A STUDY OF THE WORKSHOP AS A TEACHING/LEARNING STRATEGY

by

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B. Ed., University of British Columbia

at Vancouver, 1964

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

in the Faculty

of

Education

[redacted]

We accept this thesis as conforming
to the required standard

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the workshop as a teaching/learning strategy. The first part of the study traces the evolution of the workshop over a period of four decades from 1936, as it went through modifications to become what it is to practitioners today. A definition of the term "workshop" through the four decades; current usage of the term in advertising; current formats for workshops; adult learning theories and principles critical to the workshop form of learning; and evaluative techniques suitable for workshops are presented to develop an understanding of the context and practice of the workshop approach.

The second part of the study reports on a survey of North American workshop practitioners specially selected for this study. Results of the survey were compared with findings in the literature to determine the relationship between current practices and the existing literature. The results of the survey showed that most workshop practitioners today consider the workshop a special approach with a clear and precise set of theories, principles and strategies. The results showed unequivocally that the term "workshop" is not a generic one for meetings of a general nature for learning purposes.

Conclusions and recommendations are presented relating to the use of the workshop in the pre-service and in-service

education of teachers and counselors in British Columbia.

The implications for agencies now using or contemplating the use of the workshop approach in in-service education programs were considered and recommendations were made about the skills, and the knowledge and experience levels of practitioners representing these agencies. An inventory of skills and abilities, a personal and professional growth program outline for practitioners, and a planning and design checklist for workshops were provided as devices to be used to bring about improvement in the quality of workshops.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to all the people who worked with me in some way to help complete this thesis and my requirements for the Masters program. Dr. Rey Carr, my supervisor, was supportive, patient and encouraging when I needed him to be. After each of our visits together I felt renewed energy to keep going; that the purusit was worthwhile. I particularly enjoyed the brainstorming sessions with Rey. Dr. Vance Peavy and Dr. William Cross gave me encouragement by expressing enthusiasm about my proposal and by their willingness to sit as members of my committee. The respondents to the questionnaire provided particularly rich and full answers to my questions and I now feel a closer kinship with them. My enthusiasm for the project was stimulated with the receipt of each response. Carolyn, my typist, was willing to work to tight deadlines and gave me helpful suggestions. To everyone I express warm thanks.

PREFACE

I have conducted this study for my own benefit and for the benefit of others who may be searching for some answers to questions related to the "workshop" approach. Nothing quite like it had been done before and I felt that it needed doing.

During the period 1977-79 I became immersed in planning, designing and facilitating workshops for teachers across British Columbia and in leading training sessions for workshop leaders. The more intense the work became the more I realized that I was working with a special "technology" and that I lacked skills and background knowledge. I was often "flying by the seat of my pants". With encouragement from Dr. Rey Carr, my graduate supervisor, I decided to do a study of the workshop as a teaching/learning strategy. My primary objectives were to determine the nature of the special "workshop technology"; to determine the origins of the workshop approach; to identify the theories and principles which provide the framework for the workshop method; and to learn about the critical elements of workshop design. My secondary objective was to produce some useful materials for myself and for others who might be engaged in workshop planning, design and implementation.

At this stage I've satisfied a lot of my curiosities about the "workshop technology" and I have discovered that the problem that I set out to solve is a larger one than I

had expected. However, whether the problem has been solved or not, I'm convinced that the workshop is a powerful teaching/learning device and that I will continue to use it in my work -- only this time round what I plan, design and implement will be of much higher quality.

The reading, writing and thinking that I have done in conjunction with the study over several months has been a special challenge for me amidst the day-to-day routine of maintaining a full-time job, but nevertheless I'm glad I took the challenge and I hope that my readers will be pleased that I did also.

My study will not end with the completion of this document. I've been "hooked" and my search for information will go on because I find the field an exciting one in which to be working.

CHAPTER I

The workshop way of learning and teaching has existed in some form in education for at least forty years and in that time it has gained credibility as one of the most effective teaching/learning strategies known in the field of continuing professional education. The term and the processes appear to have been around in other fields for a much longer period, but they did not appear in education until the 1930's.

Over the years of its development the workshop has been subjected to many changes in its form and function as generally occurs with any educational innovation to meet changing learning needs, and it seems to have emerged the better for them. Certain principles, beliefs, purposes methods and techniques have been evolved to characterize the workshop and to distinguish it from a host of other teaching/learning methods. Through all its changes the workshop has remained a highly appealing method for professional educators to learn new skills, apply knowledge, and examine attitudes.

The workshop is a powerful strategy when it is well-planned, designed and implemented by a skilled and knowledgeable practitioner. The workshop can be a dynamic, exciting and stimulating learning experience unlike a lot of other meetings for educational purposes.

The meaning of the term "workshop" has grown and expanded over the years so that today it is a term used

in quite a different way from when it was first used to label the first event of its kind in teacher education. The term is very loosely applied to many educational gatherings today like clinics, seminars, study groups, and working conferences. What has occurred is that these meetings have taken on many of the characteristics of the workshop process. A definition of the workshop is accordingly in order, and this can be accomplished by analyzing the technique and its current use and historical applications.

Method

The first step in conducting this study was to review the literature on workshops in order to understand the workshop as a teaching/learning strategy. The study examined definitions, evolutionary trends, current formats, related learning theories, and evaluatory techniques. The second step was to conduct a survey of selected workshop practitioners in North America to determine if the data supported the findings in the literature. The comparison provided the basis for speculation on the future requirements for the design and application of the workshop method in the field of professional continuing education for teachers and counselors in British Columbia. The comparison also provided the basis for making some recommendations about the training and background experience of workshop practitioners in teachers' organizations, universities, colleges and private agencies serving the helping professions.

Delimitations

This study addresses questions such as those which follow and is restricted to an analysis of the workshop as a teaching/learning strategy. Although other strategies for teaching are mentioned the study does not deal with them. The study is not a comparative analysis of major strategies.

What is a workshop? Today, the trend in inservice education in the helping professions appears to be concentrating on the workshop format for learning, or so the advertising material would have us believe. The term is in common use in the educational literature yet it appears to have no distinct boundaries and no precise meaning. Is the workshop label a generic one for any meeting of people gathered for purposes of learning? What are the essential characteristics of the workshop that distinguish it from other common strategies such as the seminar, clinic, institute short course or working conference? What special learning theories and principles apply to the workshop approach and not to other strategies? Is there a workshop "technology" being developed -- a special language and a special set of techniques? Why is the workshop so exceedingly popular and widespread in its use?

The list of questions would appear almost endless and it is not intended that the study answer them in full. What is intended is that sufficient selected information has been provided to heighten any reader's awareness of the workshop and its parameters as a teaching/learning device.

Importance of the Study

Some excellent material has been written about the workshop method over the years: Heaton et al (1940), Kelley (1951), O'Rourke and Burton (1957), Davis (1974), Bergquist and Phillips (1975), Warncke (1976), Kirschenbaum (1977), Carney (1977), and Conroy (1978). However, only the earliest authors (Heaton, Kelley, O'Rourke and Burton) directed their writings at the workshop method in the continuing education of teachers which is the main focus of this study.

This study is intended for use by workshop practitioners at all levels in education, and especially the continuing education of teachers. It will also be of interest to educators in other human service fields where the workshop is a standard form of educational approach. Readers who are involved in the training of teachers and counselors should find the work useful.

This study provides three aids to educators: First, it will give them an orientation to workshop theory and principles before they begin planning and designing; second, it will serve as a reference on program components during the planning and design stages; and third, it will be a useful evaluation instrument after the workshop has been designed and conducted.

Those readers who are new to workshop planning, design, and facilitation should find the work useful background information prior to becoming engaged in a workshop experience. It will provide them with a rationale for

workshops and give them an indication of the complexity or the profound simplicity of the workshop method, the types of learning that it most lends inself to, and the outcomes that can be anticipated from its application in professional education.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Definition

The periodical literature on "workshops" contains a wealth of descriptive articles on specific educational topics, and anyone reading them would likely be stimulated and confused -- stimulated by the variety and thoroughness of the descriptions and confused by the differences among them as to concept (they are all labelled workshops), design (organization, time frame, sequence of activities), purposes, objectives, and processes.

The few books available on workshops give lengthly treatment to systematic approaches for planning and designing workshops and they appear to make the assumption that readers know what a workshop is or should be; that they know its strengths and limitations. Little coverage is given to clearly defining the concept.

What is missing from the current literature then is a precise explanation of what the workshop is or should be from which practitioners might clearly delineate its limits and set it apart from other teaching/learning strategies as a "special" approach. In this chapter the reader is provided with a representative selection of excerpts from the literature over the period from the 1940's to 1978. It is anticipated that the sought after clarity of the workshop as a device will come from an analysis of this material.

Definitions of the workshop as a teaching/learning device did not appear in the literature on teacher education prior to 1940 when educators began to study the workshop as a concept after the first one of its kind had been held at the University of Ohio in 1936.

Champlin (1942) calls the workshop "a glorified professional seminar" with the best features of the forum and panel for joint discussions between leaders and participants. Champlin (1942) also likened the workshop to a "laboratory setting and atmosphere" where problems are handled in an open environment of self-expression and mutual criticism.

Tyler (1943), who might be considered to be one of the founders of the workshop movement in North America, emphasized the "problem solving" nature of the workshop.

> "The workshop is an arrangement whereby a teacher or a school officer may work intensively on a problem which he brings from his own school and may attain the assistance of staff members of the teacher-training institution. Typically a summer workshop runs for about six weeks and includes staff members from various fields of study, particularly from the field of curriculum, student personnel, evaluation and administration. Workshop participants interested in similar problems form into small groups, and they also work individually with the guidance of various faculty members who can give help on the particular difficulties that they face. The workshop has developed rapidly because it is an effective means of actually influencing the practices in use in the schools" (pp. 208-209).

The 1945 education of the Dictionary of Education contains the following definition of the workshop:

> "An arrangement under which special facilities including particularly a wealth of source material and specialized personnel for groups

> and individual conferences, and provided by an educational institution for individualized or small-group study on educational problems that are of special interest to advanced students of education or to teachers in service, frequently provided in such areas as curriculum, administration, guidance, higher education and secondary education" (p. 453).

Kelley (1945) in his book The Workshop Way of Learning stresses the strong differences between the workshop and the course, the workshop being "alive" and the course being a rather "lifeless" activity; the workshop emphasizing personal development, functional content and integrated experiences; the course emphasizing non-functional content and compartmentalized experiences; the workshop emphasizing the application of knowledge; the course the acquisition of knowledge.

> "The workshop has been invented as a device which will permit the development of the individual in intellect and personality. It is in a sense a protest against the weaknesses of the course as an educational technique which emphasizes (a) content rather than personal development, (b) non-functional content rather than functional content, and (c) compartmentalized experiences rather than integrated experiences."
>
> "Workshops are designed to aid in the application of knowledge rather than in the acquisition of knowledge. Courses are satisfactory for acquisition of knowledge. Courses are satisfactory for acquisition if we can presuppose motive or desire. Knowledge is applied in problem situations. In problem situations needed knowledges are seldom all found in a single field or "course". For example, a teacher meets a problem in daily work requiring understanding of human behavior, principles of learning, the nature of the social structure, the direction of social change, effective methods of teaching, or diagnosis of pathological conditions. The workshop provides a setting wherein a teacher can consider a problem in its entirety, not in unrelated partitions. It is the "case" method so effective in legal and medical training. It is a functional experience for teachers. It is growth in

professional competency at its best"(p. 201).

Herrick (1946) was aware that the central focus of the workshop was work on teachers' vital problems.

> "In a workshop, the problems of teachers are the elements to consider in determining staff, resources, time schedule, procedures, group organizations, and the evaluation of the workshop program. The question of the workshop is not the question of what content is important to give teachers, but what problems are of vital importance to them and then what ideas, plans and procedures in the field of human knowledge can be useful in solving these problems. Thus the organization of the workshop is to the concerns of teachers and not to the knowledge of education per se" (p. 417).

Herrick (1946) further embellished his definition with what he called "three educational convictions to understand and evaluate workshop programs" (p. 417).

1. The learner should have the opportunity to assume responsibility for his/her own learning.

The workshop is a place for the learner to get help in identifying and defining the problems, for making decisions and meeting the consequences, for planning activities and time schedules, for identifying and using resource materials for evaluating accomplishments. Staff must be skillful in facilitating the learner's learning.

2. Teachers should practise the skills they teach.

The workshop environment should model the skills and abilities teachers need -- language, critical thinking, living and working together and identifying and using educational resources.

3. Every person must meet three developmental tasks: 1) meeting physiological needs, 2) developing an awareness of self, and 3) adjusting to peers.

To accomplish these objectives Herrick (1946) suggests that the workshop should have a balance of recreation, creative activity and problem solving.

The important emphasis in the workshop, according to Herrick (1946), is the need for staff who are competent in working with teachers in ways that they want teachers to work with children.

Downes' (1947) definition stresses the 'holisitic' approach in the "true" workshop. The significant difference between the workshop and other gatherings for educative purposes is the emphasis on <u>experiencing</u> -- the "learning by doing" approach. The workshop encourages informality, use of all resources, social experiences, individual initiative and responsibility, and personality development.

> "A true workshop as originally conceived, runs over a rather long period of time; engages all the working hours of the participants, who work, eat and play together; and includes a variety of activities such as conferences, spontaneous conversations, research in relation to both printed materials and life itself, lectures, consultations with experts, and so on. It has, in its best expression, none of the atmosphere or attributes of the formal class or meeting" (p. 447).

Hartung's (1946) definition of the "genuine workshop" stresses the problem-solving nature of the workshop and the atmosphere of joint inquiry among staff and students.

> "Provision for encouragement and ample opportunity for the participant to work toward the solution of an education problem of his own or of his own school."
>
> "Provision for a staff which conceives its role as being that of consultants or co-workers,

> each member being willing to forego the privilege of outlining for students a fixed program of study, or prescribing a list of readings, and of expecting some of the other characteristics of courses of instruction to be in evidence" (p. 572).

Boykin (1955) emphasized that the workshop was a situation in which the onus for learning is fully on the student while under expert guidance. The stress, according to Boykin (1955), should be on "the development of the individual in intellect and personality" (p. 5).

A workshop is "a shop in which work is accomplished" (O'Rourke and Burton, 1957). The difference between the workshop approach and other educational methods is that participants are engaged in productive work in contrast to listening to lectures, observing demonstrations, or participating in conferences. And there are other emphases, namely, personal and social development, cooperative group activities and work on common problems.

> "The workshop utilizes the principles which should be used everywhere in teaching; readiness and motivation of personal and social needs, cooperative and participatory process, experimental procedure, and continuous evaluation. Workshops are problem-centered and are of no use for the typical study of organized subject matter for which there already exist systematic methods" (O'Rourke & Burton, 1957, p. 3).

O'Rourke and Burton (1957), in their book which gives full treatment to the workshop as an educational approach, list thirteen essential characteristics of a workshop. These are considered by O'Rourke and Burton (1957) to be identifying characteristics for all workshops. Where they do not exist

the activity is some other form of instructional technique.

1. A clearly defined overall purpose. The major field or area as the organizing center should be stated so that participants' problems will have a clear relationship to the purpose.

2. Workshop activity must be based upon the problems, needs and interests of the participants.

3. Participants' problems should be allowed to emerge freely without pressure from the leaders.

4. Tentative groups should be formed around common problems of individuals.

5. Participants should do work on their problems on their own with assistance from staff resource people on request. There should be no required assignments, papers or reports. Leaders may often find themselves protecting participants from a tendency to overwork.

6. The planning and process of the workshop is cooperative and participatory throughout. Participants work with leaders to plan and design the workshop as it proceeds.

7. Personal and social growth of participants is fostered in conjunction with the solution of professional problems. The development of social skills through events such as recreation is of great importance.

8. Evaluation is a continuous process. Products and processes, but not persons, are evaluated.

9. Adequate time must be provided to define problems, get groups organized and coordinate efforts. Sessions shorter than six weeks are considered inadequate as workshops.

10. Resource materials of all kinds should be extensive and readily available.

11. Consultants, and instructional staff should represent a wide diversity of personal and professional interests.

12. Full-time staff in the ratio of one for each 12-15 participants is desirable. The size of the workshop is of no concern provided there are adequate staff and physical facilities.

13. The physical facilities should be adequate to permit varied experiences.

O'Rourke and Burton (1957) provide a list of "what a workshop is not" to contrast the foregoing list:

1. "It is not a series of lectures, nor a series of meetings, nor a symposium, nor a conference, nor an institute."

2. "It is not a device for orienting new teachers, nor for giving in-service training to beginners, to untrained recruits. It is of no use for inexperienced personnel."

3. "It is not a device for teaching subject matter more easily. It is not a place for listening and absorbing but for working and producing. Instruction in subject matter belongs properly in courses organized for that purpose."

4. "It is not a research situation though a good deal of research technique may be involved."

(O'Rourke and Burton, 1957, pp. 9-10)

An inservice education workshop denotes a "common thread of concern: to translate theory into practice" (Carrol, 1966, p. 13). Carrol defines a purposeful workshop as "an activity having its beginning in the recognition of a problem and in the decision to allocate a solution" (p. 13). There are, according to Carrol (1966) specific phases of development of the workshop as follows: the problem is identified; information is gathered; resources are summoned to handle problems unplanned for, information is organized; solutions are tried out; and an evaluation is conducted. (pp. 13-14).

Knowles (1970) calls attention to the similarities and differences among the clinic, institute and workshop.

> "Although these three terms are used quite loosely in the literature of the field, they convey some difference in emphasis in a basic format for learning. All these refer to a short, intensive, multiactivity,

> large-group learning experience. The clinic emphasizes the diagnosis, analysis and solving of problems arising out of the participants' field of experience. The institute emphasizes the development of knowledge and skill in a specialized area of concern or practice. The workshop (which may also be designated a "laboratory") emphasizes the development of individual competencies in a defined area of concern largely through a variety of small groups" (p. 138).
>
> "All three variations typically employ a pattern of activities that may include large meetings (general sessions), small groups (discussion groups, laboratory groups, special-interest groups, problem-solving groups, planning groups, skill practice groups, instructional groups, etc.), reading periods; individual consultations, workshop or meditational periods, and recreational activities. They vary in length from part of one day to several weeks, and are often residential -- meaning that they take place in hotels, resorts, or conference centers in which the participants live while attending the event" (p. 138).

Davis (1974) is at odds with other authors on what a workshop is. He considers the workshop to be "all those learning activities that occur in group settings" (p. 4). "A workshop is any group meeting that has adult learning as its primary purpose. If no learning purpose exists, it is some other kind of meeting, a bridge party, lynch mob, or perhaps a political convention" (p. 5).

Graening (1975) recognizes the uniqueness of the workshop method when compared to other approaches. It demands the participation of the audience in the instructional process; it is a sophisticated means of bringing people and ideas together -- for training, problem-solving, information giving, theory explanation. The workshop is a method that should be used when two-way communication between leader and audience

participants is critical. A properly planned workshop will, according to Graening (1975), change the thinking and actions of participants.

Warncke (1976) makes a distinction between the "subject-based workshop" and the "problem-based workshop" (p. 9). The subject-based workshop is concerned with presentations of information, demonstrations and practice in a special area of knowledge.

> "It must include some presentation of theory, principle or other background information as other types of learning situations do; it may include discussion of subject matter " (p. 9).
>
> "Most subject-based workshops demonstrate techniques and skills" (p. 9).
>
> "A more complex type of subject-based workshop adds to demonstration or substitutes practices in techniques and skills. Following the presentation of theory the audience applies it" (p. 10).

The problem-based workshop is different from the subject-based workshop in that it deals with personal problems and group energy is brought to bear on the solutions.

> "The participant comes to the problem-based workshop for a solution to his special problem. Background information and theory is provided in the standard type of presentation, or it may be brought out as problems are dealt with" (p. 10).
>
> "Each person's problems would be the focus of some group analysis, and of individual counseling" (p. 10).
>
> "Such workshops are practical, down-to-earth, individualized how-to-do-it sessions. They require complex planning and the leadership of capable and flexible experts in the field (p. 11).

Conroy (1978) prefers to define the workshop as a short

and intensive meeting of people with similar backgrounds and common concerns about a topic. In this situation the responsibility for learning rests with the participants although instructors and resource people may be used. There is generally a combination of learnings: knowledge learning (recognition, comparison, correlation, integration and creation of data and information); skill learning (procedures, operations, activities, methods and techniques involving repetition); attitude learning (formulation of values, emotional responses (feelings and tendencies, interests, preferences, tastes, likes and dislikes).

Current Usage

The following exerpts from a few advertising brochures (1978-79) serve to give a flavor of the broad use of the term "workshop", with some slight disregard for consistency.

"Helping and Human Relations Skills: Training for Trainers"

> "The focus of this experiential, professional development seminar will be on designing programs to train people in helping and/or human relations skills. This is not a beginning workshop" (Learning Resources Corporation, LaJolla, Ca.).

'Clinical Supervision: Adaptations for Schools"

> "This institute is intended to develop participants' specific skills in implementing major concepts from clinical supervision and other derivitive models in urban, suburban, rural, public and private educational settings. Based on a similar highly successful workshop which was held last year, this institute emphasizes skill-building through six small group workshops which focus on : facts and

inference, verbal skills building, values clarification, conferencing, time use, and models of supervision" (ASCD National Curriculum Study Institutes).

"Making Meetings Work"

"Using an experiential approach, this workshop will focus on real and simulated situations, combining theory and practice to build knowledge and skills necessary to help planners deal with the complexities of group interaction in local and regional government settings" (Centre for Continuing Education, The University of British Columbia).

"Human Relations Training"

"The workshop is a small group experience aimed at increasing self-understanding, learning communication skills and understanding small group processes. The group will create their own interaction and communication patterns which are then available to members for analysis and examination" (University of Saskatchewan, Social Development Workshops).

"Training Technologies: A Workshop for New Trainers"

"This workshop provides an introduction to participative training technologies, which were developed in recent years to make training more exciting and useful than traditional lecture approaches.

Each of the chief techniques used in interactive training will be discussed. Emphasis is placed on *experiencing* each of the methods and then *experimenting* with them as trainers.

Topics include: using structured experiences, conducting role playing, presenting lecturettes, using paper-and-pencil instruments in training, and developing creative program planning -- the major aspects of experiential learning. Participants will be guided in planning applications of these technologies to realistic, "back-home" situations" (University Associates, LaJolla, Ca.).

Summary

The definitions which appear in the literature written in the 1940's and 1950's focus on the workshop as a setting where teachers gather for several weeks to solve educational problems for 'back-home' application. The workshop is likened to the "case" study method used in medical training. In these early designs the nature of the problem under study determined the type and quantity of the reources and the strategies for learning; and learners were expected to assume full responsibility for their own learnings while in pursuit of solutions to their particular problems. The design was rather open and allowed for a free flow of experiences.

The definitions which appear in the literature since the 1950's and the descriptions which appear in the current advertising material emphasize the "experiential learning" approach -- learning through analysis of experiences. The current workshop is a well planned and finely designed laboratory for skill learning, knowledge learning and attitude learning; it is a short and intensive experience often lasting only a few hours and usually not longer than two weeks. While the nature of the problem under study still determines the resources and the strategies to be used, the leader/facilitator assumes major responsibility for theory presentations, modelling, and guided practice as well as for guiding the analysis of the learning which has occurred.

Evolution

The "workshop" is such a common strategy for the in-service education of teachers today that its origin is never questioned, yet it is a product of forty years of evolution.

The first workshop for teachers was organized at the University of Ohio in 1936 under the direction of Ralph W. Tyler, then Chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago. This workshop was part of the Eight-Year Study (1933-41)* when staff in colleges were having difficulty providing consultation to teachers from the 35 high schools engaged in the study. The college staffs were concerned that teachers had too little time to work together on problems during the course of performing their regular teaching duties.

The teachers involved in the 1936 workshop were carefully selected by the Study staff and local school authorities after they had submitted a description of a professional problem for attention during the six-week workshop. Problems submitted in advance not only aided in the selection process, they also made it possible to initiate group discussions early in the program. The teachers selected for this workshop were all teachers of mathematics or science.

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*The Eight-Year study of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association (1933-41).

In this study, some three-hundred colleges agreed to admit, over a period of eight years the graduates of thirty selected secondary schools without the usual requirements of examinations. Each of these schools was

In 1937 the workshop was held on the campus of Sarah Lawrence College in Bronxville, New York. One hundred and thirty-five teachers attended and on this occasion school systems sent delegations of teachers to work on changes in educational programs for their schools. The venture was seen as a breakthrough in in-service education -- a meeting of school teachers with college faculty for joint learning. An important aspect of the workshop was the group life enjoyed by participants -- study as well as social activity together.

In 1938 four workshops were organized with 500 teachers attending. Participants for these workshops were "hand picked" according to 1) their demonstration of leadership in their schools, 2) a problem that could not be resolved through regular courses or other procedures available, and 3) the innovative nature of their school -- one which would encourage new developments and would implement what was developed in the workshop.

A significant departure of the 1938 workshops was the enrollment of 23 college faculty as participants.

In three years, a temporary program planned for a small group of teachers in the Eight-Year Study had developed into a program of teacher education that gave promise of permanence and further growth.

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given unusual freedom to develop its own educational program, assisted by a staff of consultants on curriculum and evaluation problems (Heaton, Camp and Diederich, p.2).

By 1940 the "workshop" was established as a normal part of the graduate programs in several leading U.S. universities. Further, the workshop had moved to the local level, serving only single school districts. The problems of the local level workshop are worthy of note. It was considered that there was a lack of variety in school situations represented and that learning would be reduced as a result; that inbreeding would occur over a period of years unless outside staffs were enrolled; that teachers would resist attending without remuneration for the extended school year; and that there would be a reluctance to face the real problems of the district with the local supervisory staff in attendance.

The workshop was established, nonetheless, as a new form of teacher education.

> "Workshops arose at a time when there was a growing recognition among educators of the fact that the formal classroom approach to teacher education was not adequate to the needs of many teachers and at a time when many institutions were experimenting with new approaches to teacher education" (Heaton, et al., 1940, p.15).

The benefits of the workshop apparently carried over. There was a better understanding and appreciation among teachers and supervisory and administrative staff and many cooperative projects to further these relationships became possible. (Diederich, 1943).

The workshop held in DesMoines, Iowa in connection with the Eight-Year Study was called a Problems Laboratory. This laboratory had several features which made it different

from other workshops:

-teachers from outside the school system were enrolled;
-a workshop in adult education was conducted for three weeks;
-staff members who were specialists in adult education were available;
-a wood carving instructor worked full-time on the campus.

An evaluation study conducted after the laboratory showed that teachers who attended had achieved much of the purpose of the workshop which was to promote their personal growth and development in an environment free of tensions.

The workshop form of learning had been well established in the in-service continuing education of teachers by the mid and late 1940's. It was a device disliked by some educators but nevertheless used by many. The Commission on Teacher Education in 1942 listed 121 educational enterprises that were called workshops (cited in Bigelow, 1945, p. 508). Variation was the theme, for example, study groups meeting weekly over a period of several months were called workshops. The length of workshops also began to vary in terms of weeks, from two to twelve. Four to six weeks was the common format. The focus also changed; some workshops were concentrated in specific subject areas such as social studies, others were comprehensive and covered a broad spectrum of concerns.

Clientele for workshops were drawn from wide geographical areas such as the total state, or a large local region such as a city or a smaller jurisdiction such as a school system.

Prall and Cushman (1944) capture the essence of the

workshop of the time in the following statement.

> "The essential features of what we shall call a workshop are intensive considerations of practical problems that have arisen from the daily functioning of the teaching job, flexible and informal working conditions, active sharing by workshoppers in developing plans for individual or group study, and easy access to a wide range of resources in terms of staff, fellow participants, books and other aids to learning. The usual schedule consists of meetings in the morning of small discussion groups organized around the workshoppers' stated interests; free time in the afternoon for individual work, conferences, and recreation; and general meetings and individual work in the evenings. A prominent feature of many workshops is a definite period set aside for informal work in the arts. It is usual for participants and staff members to make a point of living or at least eating together, and to foster informal contacts of all sorts. A significant consequence of the general arrangements is that emphasis tends to develop on organic relationships so that participants are stimulated to think in terms of the whole child, the whole curriculum, and the whole community in which they work" (p. 201).

Although variations occurred in length, content, focus and locale, there were certain common characteristics which were retained. Bigelow (1945) provides a general list of the common characteristics which were retained regardless of the length, location or focus of the workshop. The list is as follows:

> A situation in which active teachers could concentrate on the satisfaction of needs growing directly out of their professional work.
>
> A problem as a starting point for each participant, e.g. improvement of a course, or a general curricular adjustment.
>
> Resources available in a setting suitable to the accomplishment by participants of their personal purposes.

Staff available with appropriate knowledge, experience and the capacity to employ a variety of methods.

Creation of the workshop as it proceeds -- through joint effort of staff and students.

A lengthy orientation and exploration period so that the best possible individual plans could be made by participants for achieving personal goals.

A limit on systematic lectures and formal instruction. Activities including group meetings, individual conferences, and independent study. Adequate library facilities.

Provision of activity in the field of the performing and visual arts.

General meetings on a regular basis.

An on-going evaluation and an evaluation at the conclusion of the event.

According to Bigelow (1945) questions were being raised regarding the application of the workshop in in-service education programs including the granting of graduate school credit for attendance and the subsidization of workshop costs. Nevertheless the workshop method was gaining acceptance across the country. It's popularity is described by Allen (1950) as follows:

> "The idea of the workshop is sweeping into educational circles throughout the land. As a technique, it is very appealing to universities conducting summer schools, to superintendents worrying about in-service programs; to principals searching for devices to inspire or interest busy teachers; and to teachers tired, bored, and worn out with institutes, meetings, conferences, study groups, and such traditional methods of using up their energy, not always to their advantage" (Allen, 1950, p. 224).

The workshop was "sweeping the country" and variations were becoming more common, but the summer workshop was still

the most popular because it provided the opportunity for participants and consultants to be together over a lengthy period of time forming a learning community in which congeniality and spontanaety were established norms.

By 1955 the "workshop" was still considered to be a new and bold experiment in education (Boykin 1955). It was still considered a unique form of inservice different from most other forms in basic philosophy and purposes. Boykin (1955) called attention to the differences between the workshop approach and other teaching devices.

> "Workshops are not intended for those who are just getting an orientation into teaching" (p. 6).
>
> "The workshop should not be regarded "as a place where missionary work is to be done with relatively backward members of a school staff" (p. 6).

By the 1950's concern was being expressed over the modifications being made in the format of the workshop and the negative effects of those innovations. Of particular concern was the changing length of the workshops. The trend was toward events lasting only one or two weeks. Allen (1950) was supportive of the shorter version of the workshop and stated that "values will accrue if the emphasis is upon the solution of problems local and of vital interest to the workers; if the emphasis is upon individual initiative and responsibility; and if the emphasis is upon the seeking for usable information and experiences as they apply to the recognized problems" (p. 277). Allen (1950) was of the

opinion that when participants were working on their own problems they did not need an extended orientation period.

Boykin (1955) was concerned about the misuse of the term workshop and its principles, purposes, methods and techniques and called for corrective measures.

> "Steps must be taken to correct abuses in the use of the term and to eliminate the evils that have crept in and caused marked departures from the original workshop idea, purposes and practices" (Boykin, 1955, p. 5).

It was Boykin's (1955) contention that the workshop was the means of showing teachers how the principles of learning (readiness, felt need, use of democratic procedures, use of group process and activity, meaningful materials cooperative endeavor, social growth and participation, and problem solving) could be applied.

> "It is perhaps unsurpassed as a technique for improving human relations, for the study and application of democratic procedures, for forming and renewing friendships, for reducing prejudices, changing attitudes, for securing changes in teaching methods, and for securing professional and personal growth" (Boykin, 1955, p. 7).

Innovations

The workshop was still being touted in the 1950's and 1960's as the most effective vehicle available for the in-service continuing education of teachers (O'Rourke and Burton, 1957; Boykin, 1951; Kelley, 1951; Carrol, 1966), and as with most innovations in education, modifications were being made and new problems were being encountered.

Kelley (1951) reports on two types of workshops in a book called The Workshop Way of Learning . Kelley's ardent concern was for people and for the dynamics of interaction between them, and the workshop offered this opportunity. The major portion of the book is devoted to a discussion of the Education Workshop at Wayne State University, but Kelley, perhaps recognizing the reality of the world of education also provided a chapter on the "short workshop"

The Education Workshop

The Education Workshop was unique in that it was held from 4:30 p.m. to 9:00 p.m. on Thursday's throughout the academic year. At the time of Kelley's (1951) reporting, this type of workshop had been operating, uninterrupted, for thirteen years, and with good results.

The guiding principles for the Education Workshop were as follows (Kelley, 1951):

1. The most inportant thing about any person is his attitude toward other people.

2. The primary need in the building of people is to learn better human relations.

3. Every individual has worth and has a contribution to make to the common good.

4. Learning leads to more learning and the human organism is infinitely curious.

5. The most crucial learning at any given time has to do with the individual's current problems.

6. Cooperation as a technique and as a way of life is superior to competition.

The outcomes of the workshop as reported by Kelley (1951)

give it high marks as a functional approach embodying those principles and processes regarded so highly by true workshop practitioners. The outcomes are: changes of attitude, changes in teaching method, signs of personal growth; improved human relations, increased friendship among participants, reduced prejudices, application for and understanding of democracy and new skills in using resources, books and writing.

The Short Workshop

The "short workshop" described by Kelley (1951) had to have certain essentials in order to have the title "workshop" and carry a different meaning from "meeting", "gathering", or "class". These essentials, according to Kelley (1951) were:

> A planning session where all participants and leaders were involved at the beginning.
>
> Considerable time for work sessions where all have the opportunity to work on the problems most significant to them.
>
> A summarizing and evaluating session at the close.

A short workshop must be a minimum of two days to get all of these things done, and it should be held at a retreat setting away from interruptions such as the telephone (Kelley, 1951).

Kelley (1951) set out guideposts for planners and facilitators of short workshops as follows:

1. Do a maximum of preplanning.
2. Depend on the needs and interests of participants for the program.
3. Avoid long speeches.
4. Hold the meeting in a retreat.

5. "Stake your success on the willingness, ingenuity and creativeness of the general run of those likely to attend" (p. 143).

Growing Concerns

O'Rourke and Burton (1957) considered the workshop to be exemplary of "the best in modern democratic philosophy of education and social theory and process, in the psychology of learning" (p. 17) and they were concerned that the workshop as a method was being sabotaged by people who were applying the name to a variety of activities which had little relationship to the workshop approach.

> "The potential of the in-service workshop, a courageous inovation, is too promising to allow it to be sabotaged by those individuals who, incredibly, apply the name workshop to the very devices the workshop is designed to replace. May we be protected from this type of intellectual fatuity" (p. 98).

In their plea to save the workshop as an effective in-service device O'Rourke and Burton (1957) remind us of its true purposes which had been unchanged over two decades.

> "The purpose is always dual; first to promote professional insight and growth through the exploration and solving of specific problems which arise in actual teaching situations, second to promote personal and social growth through cooperative participation in the workshop through a recreational and social program" (p. 31).

Carrol (1966), expressing similar concern to her predecessors of ten years, criticized the lack of structure in workshops. The common thread of concern in the workshop is "to translate theory into practice" (Carrol, 1966, p. 13).

However, as Carrol states, there is not enough concern for structure and so workshops "turn out to be little more than academic study groups or at most listening groups" (p. 13). The workshop must emphasize "doing" over "listening" and typically a well-structured workshop involves several phases of development (Carrol, 1966). Carrol (1966) proposed six phases:

Phase 1. Identification of a problem. The problem is located, defined and clarified. A method of approach is then determined.

Phase 2. Getting information. The resources closest at hand are tapped first. Leadership will need to be at its highest level at this stage.

Phase 3. Problem-mounting. Unexpected problems will arise as work proceeds and additional resources will have to be summoned.

Phase 4. Organizing information. An organizational system for putting what information has been collected into proper order.

Phase 5. Follow-up. Results of the workshop activity need to be tried and evaluated, otherwise the activity is worthless.

Phase 6. Evaluation. Evaluating is checking out the value of the workshop results (Carrol, 1966).

Organization Interventions

Schmuck and Runkel (1970) discuss a special workshop run

at the Highland Park Junior School in Beaverton, Oregon in 1967. The workshop was specially designed by Schmuck and Runkel as an intervention into the school organization system. The goals of the workshop emphasized interpersonal effectiveness, increased awareness of new varieties of organizational patterns, skill in using a systematic problem-solving procedure and increased skill in helping colleagues to develop ideas into plans of action.

The Highland Park workshop included numerous gamelike activities and skill activities "chosen because each of them demonstrated, in microcosm issues reminiscent of the role relationships in the school" (Schmuck and Runkel, 1970, p. 139), and work on problems which involved issues within the school as a human organization. The workshop included some brief presentations by work groups organized to consider problems which had been identified by the large group.

Schmuck and Runkel (1970) reported that the workshop had successful aspects and weaknesses as follows:

Successes:
1. Including all members of the school.
2. Structured skill activities.
3. Rotating group membership.
4. Equal treatment of all ranks.
5. Exemplifying new organizational forms in the training.

Weaknesses:
1. A lack of commitment by staff to the use of specific problem-solving processes back home.
2. Dealing with absent staff.
3. Lack of emphasis on information-gathering techniques.

Current Formats

Bergquist and Phillips (1975) identify and categorize four types of workshops according to their length and setting: 1) long-term (five-day to two week) workshops, 2) short-term (two to four-day) residential workshops, 3) extended on-campus (three to twelve hour) workshops, and 4) brief on-campus (one to two hour) workshops (p. 237).

According to Bergquist and Phillips (1975), a major advantage of the long-term residential workshop is that it enables the design to be worked out during the workshop through the collaborative efforts of both training staff and participants. Participants can assume a major responsibility for much of their own learning. They can also become part of the learning resources available. Learning in this setting is a balance of structured and informal experiences. Leaders serve as models and facilitators rather than as expert prescribers. An important aspect of this kind of workshop is the building of a community of participants.

The shorter term (two to four day) residential workshops are tightly structured and staff-directed around themes presented to participants in advance. These workshops are information-oriented, although participants are encouraged to apply the information to try out new skills in some form of experience such as a simulation or a role-play.

The residential aspect of this shorter term workshop makes it possible to accomplish a lot in a short period of

time. Residency then is an advantage but it is not critical and participants are given the option to commute to the workshop provided they can meet all the time commitments.

The extended on-campus workshop is the most traditional form for staff development say Bergquist and Phillips (1975). The format of the workshop is more that of a seminar. Presentations and question-answer sessions are common. The focus is usually specific. The advantages of this type of workshop are: low cost, convenience, participants can be asked to provide materials for sharing sessions.

Brief on-campus workshops are short, intensive sessions during class periods, lunch hour or early evening. The focus is narrow and the common processes are: short lectures, question-answer sessions and discussion groups.

The differences among the four types of workshops are important. The long-term workshop is important if an objective is to influence attitudes, values and assumptions. the negative aspect of the long-term workshop is the danger that participants are gaining only interpersonal relationships in their professional or personal lives.

The shorter term residential workshop is effective in helping participants make meaningful change in specific methods. There should be no concern about having lasting effects on the intrapersonal or interpersonal behavior of participants.

Bergquist and Phillips (1975) contend that on-campus workshops of the three-hour variety "should rarely be the

basic building block of a faculty development program" (p. 240). These sessions are most suitable after residential workshops, and should be specialized as to content.

The short on-campus workshop is best as part of a series. As separate single entities, these workshops rarely provide an experience which brings about significant change. If change is an objective the long-term workshop is the most effective way of bringing it about. (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975).

> "Unless an institution which wants a training-oriented faculty development program is willing to provide sufficient resources to support both long and short-term residential workshops, it will rarely be able to bring about any significant change among its faculty" (p. 240).

Within the formats presented by Bergquist and Phillips (1975) there are five issues concerning workshop design that they identify as critical. These are: (1) Timing, (2) Structure, (3) Stress, (4) Staff/Participant Relationships, and (5) Staff/Staff Relationships (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975).

The following notes provide the reader with an elaboration of the 5 issues identified.

Timing

Free time is more important at the end of a workshop than the beginning. This free time is important for synthesizing concepts, experiences and skills.

When the learning is rich, time is necessary for participants to individualize and integrate their learning.

Free time in long-term workshops is necessary to prevent fatigue.

Structure

When a workshop is started with a highly-structured beginning, it is difficult to reduce the structure at a later time without frustrating participants.

A lack of structure creates discomfort particularly with participants in their first workshop experience.

Participants can be encouraged to assume responsibility for the workshop design after a day or two of pre-planned structure.

A design can be created which is flexible enough to allow change to be made as the flow indicates. Bergquist and Phillips (1975) call this a "default" structure.

Stress

A degree of stress is necessary to encourage participants to "stretch"; to try out new behaviours and concepts.

Coupled with the stress must be a climate of support.

With a stress level that is too high, participants will become defensive and fail to try out new behaviours.

Opportunities for interpersonal relationships among participants should be provided as a means of reducing stress.

The level of stress should build slowly to a high point about 2/3 of the way through the workshop.

Staff/Participant Relations

Staff require free time for reflection, recuperation, recreation and planning.

Staff needs should be formally acknowledged.

Staff should allocate time for informal contact with participants.

Trainers should discuss and develop an understanding about appropriate formal and informal contact with participants.

Staff/Staff Relations

A loosely-structured workshop has the potential of increasing inter-personal problems among staff.

A flexible program demands a well-functioning, flexible staff team.

Where there are trainers involved in a workshop, a considerable amount of time should be allocated for staff planning and debriefing.

> "Because of differences in status, experience and self-confidence, staff members, under these conditions, must proceed slowly in planning and must discuss each session in great detail" (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975, p. 240).

The staff/participant ratio should be reasonable.

The larger the staff, the greater the chances of inter-personal problems.

Where the workshop involved intensive skills, training and consultation, the staff/participant ratio is best at 1/5. A workshop in which general skills, training and discussion occurs may have a ratio of 1/12 and be manageable.

Bergquist and Phillips (1975) present several assumptions or "biases" about the workshop way of learning which are worthy of note by persons engaged in planning and facilitating.

These assumptions are as follows:

1. Individuals learn from receiving continuous feedback about the relevancy and effectiveness of their behavior.

2. An atmosphere of trust and non-defensiveness is necessary if people are to risk exposing their behavior and be open to feedback.

3. Information from research, theory and experience is important for the individual and most effective when it follows his/her own experience and feedback.

4. Relevant change will occur in a persons's behavior when there is an opportunity to try out new patterns of thought and behavior.

5. Practicing new approaches in the safe atmosphere of the workshop provides the individual with the security to be different.

6. Learning and change which have no direct application to the back home situation will have little lasting effect on the participants in a workshop.

7. People need to learn how to learn from presenting new behaviors, getting feedback, and experimenting with alternative behaviors.

8. Learning need not be a deadly serious enterprise; it can be an enjoyable and often exhilerating experience.

9. Where learners are provided with opportunities for self-disclosure they will improve and change.

It can be deduced from the foregoing information that the

popular workshop formats of today are compressed versions of the six-week versions of the 1930's and 1940's with modifications to suit a shortened time frame. Whether the workshop is a few hours, a day, a week or six weeks in length, its prime purpose is to provide a learning environment that will facilitate personal growth and development through integrated experiences and functional content.

The major differences between current workshops and the original versions are: the compressed time frame; the role and function of the leader/resource person; the use of special techniques for enhancing learning; and the tighter structure of activities.

Whereas the leader/resource person in the early workshops was available only to assist people with their learning the leader today assumes the role of planner, designer, and facilitator of the total learning experience. He/she is omnicompetent in this role. Special techniques such as role plays and simulations not only speed up the learning process, they enhance it considerably. The tighter structure ensures that maximum learning will take place in the time allocated.

The shortened version of the workshop is not without its problems and foremost on the list is the problem of attending to people in the same way that might be the case in a six-week workshop. The consequence is likely to be a lowered level of "trust and acceptance" between participants and leaders. A further major problem is the difficulty in providing time for the assimilation and integration of

learning. This must often be left to chance and likely does not occur unless there is follow-up provided. Another problem is the lack of proper evaluation of the learning related to the objectives.

Although it has shortcomings, the shortened workshop so common today is still one of the most effective means of bringing about new learning and consequent behavior change in people when it is well-planned and properly executed.

How Adults Learn

An understanding of how adults learn is essential to someone who is engaged in planning, designing, facilitating and evaluating learning in workshops. Because learning is an internal process that varies from person to person and the workshop experience is external to the learner, the planner/designer/facilitator/evaluator must place emphasis on the extenal conditions to increase the probability that learning will occur.

Learning takes place in the natural setting in which any person operates; the normal everyday living process has its affect. However, this form of learning can be inefficient and may sometimes by harmful. Learning in a formal, structured setting can be more efficient and useful to the learner. In this setting, the facilitator has some high degree of control over the external conditions, the materials and the processes.

There are many adult learning theories available to draw

from in the literature so to provide an adult educator with a functional learning theory is difficult. A choice was made to start with Knowles (1970) and embellish his work with material derived from a review of several other authors: Havighurst and Orr (1956), Gibb (1960), Dickenson (1973), Davis (1974), Powers (1976), Rogers (1977) and Kirschenbaum (1977).

The intent here is to provide specific, practical material for workshop practitioners.

Andragogy

According to Knowles (1970) a theory of adult learning is rapidly developing in North America and from this theory a new educational technology for adults is evolving. This new technology is being called "andragogy", which is derived from the Greek word aner (with the stem andr-), meaning "man" and agogos (meaning "leading"). Andragogy is defined then, as the art and science of helping adults learn.

Knowles (1970) supports the notion that andragogy means more than just helping adults learn. "I believe it means helping human beings learn, and therefore it has implications for the education of children and youth. For I believe that the process of maturing toward adulthood begins early in a child's life and that as he matures he takes on more and more of the characteristics of the adult on which andragogy is based" (pp. 38-39).

Adult learners have different characteristics from child learners and andragogy is premised on these differences.

Knowles (1970) presents four crucial assumptions about adult learners which have technological implications for people engaged in adult education.

> "These assumptions are that, as a person matures, 1) his self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directing human being; 2) he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning; 3) his readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his social roles; and 4) his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem centeredness" (p. 39).

The implications for the education of adults based on the four assumptions are put forward by Knowles (1970) as follows:

Self-Concept

Adults want, and need to be treated with respect; to make their own decisions, and to be seen as unique human beings. Adults will resist or avoid situations in which they feel they are treated like children.

> "Adults tend to resist learning under conditions that are incongruent with their self-concept as autonomous individuals" (Knowles, 1970, p. 41).

Initially adults will enter an educational activity wanting to be dependent on the teacher, as they were when they were children. Adults are typically not prepared to take responsibility for their learning -- to be self-directed. The challenge for the teacher/group/leader/group facilitator is to help them make a breakthrough. The rewards will be plentiful. There will be a sense of release and exhileration;

a deeper ego involvement in the learning; and often some startling results (Knowles, 1970).

Experience

In their lifetime adults have gathered a great volume of experience of many different kinds. This experience becomes a rich resource which can be drawn upon by others, a rich foundation of experience to which to relate new experiences, and restriction in some ways in that habits and patterns of thought are more fixed and the person is less open-minded. "An adult is what he has done" (Knowles, 1970, p. 44).

Readiness to Learn

It is now recognized that adults, like children, have their phases of growth and resulting developmental tasks (a task that arises at a certain period in life to be successfully completed prior to success with later tasks), readiness to learn and teachable moments. The difference between adults and children is that the developmental tasks of adults are the products of the evolution of social roles while developmental tasks in children and youth are the products of physiological mental maturation (Knowles, 1970). Havighurst and Orr (1956) conclude:

> "People do not launch themselves into adulthood with the momentum of their childhood and youth and simply coast along to old age . . . . Adulthood has its transition points and its crises. It is a developmental period in almost as complete a sense as childhood and adolescence are developmental periods" (p. 1.).

Orientation

> "To a child, education is essentially a process of accumulation of a reservoir of subject-matter -- knowledge and skills -- that might be useful in later life" (Knowles, 1970, p. 48).

Children enter educational activity with a subject-centered orientation. Adults enter educational activity wanting to learn things that they can apply in their current life situation. To an adult, education is a way of improving his/her ability to solve current life problems. Adults, therefore, enter an educational activity with a problem-centered orientation.

Technological Considerations

What are the implications of the foregoing assumptions for the design of educational experiences. The workshop practitioner must give consideration to the following:

Self Concept

The Learning Climate

1. Physical environment

The physical environment for learning should be one in which adults feel comfortable. The furniture, equipment, room arrangement and decorations should cater to adults. Davis (1974) reminds us that "adults are people who have relatively large bodies subject to the stress of gravitational stimuli" (p.70). If the environment is not as comfortable as desired, and few are, frequent breaks should be built into the program. Further, adults have set habits and strong tastes such as a

need for a lot of chemical stimulus and some effort should be made to accomodate them. Constant violation of these tastes and habits will deter learning.

2. Psychological climate

The psychological climate of the workshop setting should be one of acceptance, respect and support; one in which it is acceptable to take risks and make changes. Learners and teachers are engaged in a joint inquiry in an environment free of ridicule or punishment; a climate where the unique contribution of every individual is valued. Gibb (1960) stresses the need for the learner to be "free" to look at the experience emotionally.

> "Learning is a social experience. Learners learn from others in social situations. The learner who is emotionally and psychologically free to look at experience is ready to start the process of acquiring the necessary behavior with which to learn and grow. The learner must be adjusted emotionally to the learning situation (the teacher, fellow-students, the classroom environment) otherwise learning will not proceed creatively" (Gibb, 1960, p. 60).

The object of the workshop climate is to provide opportunities for success. It is not for proving inadequacies.

An important principle of learning often overlooked with adults is reinforcement (Dickinson, 1973). Reinforcement in the form of reward or punishment will increase the probability of desired behavior being repeated. Reward is more effective than punishment in helping adults to learn. Reinforcement depends on the perception of the learner. If an action by the leader is seen as rewarding, the respondent will act

accordingly, if the action is seen as punishment then too the respondent will act accordingly.

Punishment can take the form of subtle acts by the leader: a frown, sarcasm, ridicule, teasing, etc. Reward can also be subtle, in such acts as a smile, a nod of the head, a word of encouragement, a touch, etc.

On occasion the workshop is the environment in which emotional release occurs. The effective workshop leader is prepared for such release and deals appropriately with it.

3. Diagnosis of needs

Adult learners should be involved in a continual process of self-diagnosis of their learning needs. This evaluation can be assisted by the workshop facilitator.

4. Goal setting

Adult learners should be involved in the process of planning their own learning with the leader serving as a guide and a resource. There should be opportunity for the learner to participate in setting goals for learning and in the organization of the total learning situation.

> "Learning even at the simplest levels is not trial and error. The learner must be free to make errors, to explore alternative solutions to problems, and to participate in decisions about the organization of his learning environment" (Gibb, 1960, p. 60).

An outcome of any effective workshop should be a greater ability on the part of participants to be self-directing and responsible for their learning. This process may be bewildering in the beginning because of the many options. The skillful workshop leader knows this and knows, too, when to assist

and when not to interfere.

5. Learning-teaching transaction

The learning/teaching transaction is the mutual responsibility of learners and teachers.

> "The teacher's role is redefined as that of a procedural technician, resource person, and co-inquirer; he is more a catalyst than an instructor, more a guide than a wizard" (Knowles, 1970, p. 43).

Too much interference from the leader may trigger a reflex reaction toward the leader's authority which will lead to behaviours which will block learning. An effective workshop leader must be flexible, open, willing to make change and accepting of differences.

6. Evaluation

Evaluation is a mutual undertaking between the teacher and the learner. Evergy is devoted to helping learners get evidence for themselves about their progress toward their goals.

The learner must get feedback about progress toward goals particularly when he/she has been party to setting those goals.

> "Some indicators of success or failure, some frame of reference for determining adequacy of problem solution, some corroboration that the alley is not blind, some reality factor with which to assess one's achievement against one's level of aspiration, some knowledge of success or failure -- all are necessary in the feedback process" (Gibb, 1960, p. 61).

Feedback or knowledge of results should be given immediately after practice to have value as reinforcement. Verbal

guidance and thorough processing of structured experiences provide feedback instantly and reduce anxieties.

Experience

7. Experiential focus

Participatory experiential techniques increase learning and greater emphasis can be placed upon techniques to tap the first-hand experience of adult learners, such as: group discussions, the case method, the critical incident process, simulation exercises, role-playing, skill-practice exercises, instruments, laboratory methods, consultative supervision, demonstrations, seminars and counseling.

A major resource, often overlooked in workshops, is the experience of those who attend. This experience is a major source of learning and the techniques used (as those above) should be designed to aid in getting the maximum learning from the experience.

A further important consideration is to plan workshops so that they are sources of new experience for participants.

8. Application of learning

The facilitator of adult learning experiences must build into the design of those learning experiences provision for learners to plan and practice applications of their learnings.

Time must be provided in the workshop design for the integration of learning and integration can only come with practice. Practice with purpose assures increased learning, however according to Dickenson (1973) it is important to

distribute the practice rather than mass it. Distributing practice through the learning process with short rest intervals is generally superior to long periods of work without interruptions (massing), depending on the capability and experience of the learner, the meaningfulness of the exercise and the quantity.

9. Self direction

Adults are self-directing and autonomous and they resent having their concept of maturity violated. They want to be treated as equals in the learning process although they may have to learn how to learn -- pursuing their own learnings, engaging in "self-directed inquiry" (Knowles, 1970), learning with other adults, and learning from analyzing their own experiences. Sharing between teacher and learner should be dominant while directing and dominating dependent learners should not exist. Short intensive structured experiences designed to give feedback on new behaviors, or existing behaviors serve to get learners to look at themselves objectively. However, without special involvement by the leader these examinations for purposes of gaining awareness will not likely occur.

Readiness to Learn

10. Timing

Curriculum for adults must be in step with developmental tasks. The logic of subject matter or the needs of sponsoring institutions do not take precedence over this principle.

Adults want to deal with real-life concerns and problems.

Adults who attend workshops have chosen to attend because of a decision to work on problems of immediate concern -- the job, family, life, and society, and are seeking help in doing so. It must be recognized that the decision to attend may have been out of fear of falling behind and being replaced at work, or a fear of being rejected by friends and lovers nonetheless the fear is a motivating factor that must be considered.

Having made the decision to enter a workshop to resolve problems adults have little time for basics, and effective workshops get on with helping them to cope with present problems. "The future is now" for these people. The "whys" of the past are generally not of concern. Learning new skills and developing new competencies are.

11. Grouping

A variety of subgroups permits adult students a flexibility of choice. Homogeneous groupings are sometimes most effective according to the developmental task. For example, a workshop on "retirement" would likely be of little interest to young adults. Heterogeneous groupings are preferable for other learnings such as human relations training where the object is to learn to get along with all kinds of people. A design which takes groupings and subgrouping into account allows for flexibility of choice so that learners can work with similar developmental tasks.

12. Existential concerns

Programs for adults must recognize the existential concerns of those adults. Learning experiences must articulate these concerns, must be person-centered, avoid teaching subject matter, focus on helping persons to learn; and focus on real problems.

Learning must be experience centered. The facilitator of any learning experience must attempt to provide optimal kinds of experiences that relate to the problems of the learner.

> "The learner must get data on his problem. The data may come from experimencs relevant to the problem, from authorities who may tell of their experiences from logical argument, or from direct sensory experiences of the learner" (Gibb, 1960, p. 59).

The facilitator's responsibility is to create with the learner a climate which allows the learner to satisfy needs and solve the problem. Becoming ego involved in the problem mitigates against solving the problem. Interests in certain solutions develop, and present a "functional 'take' of the experience" (Gibb, 1960, p. 59).

The experience must be meaningful to the learner.

Adults have difficulty accepting single answers for their correctness because in their lives, businesses and politics there is seldom a right action or answer. Adults find decisions in terms of "right or wrong" to be difficult. The phenomenon of "right answers" versus "wrong answers" presents blocks to learning and a challenge for the teacher.

> "The experience that bears upon the problem must be suited to some degree to the learner's innate capacity to perceive; his age, his interests, his readiness, and his capacity to understand" (Gibb, 1960, p. 59).

If the learner sees data as irrelevant to the solution of problems, the data will be rejected. The facilitator must be aware of "the learner's limitations of experience, background, insight, age, emotionality and mental ability" (Gibb, 1960, p. 59). The shared responsibility of the facilitator and the learner is to create a climate in which the learner can see meanings.

13. Curriculum

The curriculum of adult education is unlike the curriculum for youth education. The organizing principle for sequences of adult learning is problem areas not subjects. The problem must come from the learner; not the teacher. Among teachers and counselors the problems would be like: "motivating the reluctant learner"; "relating classroom environment to reading", "dealing with stress", "involving the teacher in the counseling process", "communicating with parents".

> "The teacher's obligation is to provide situations in which the learners see a broader range of problems and from which he learns the ability to seek and formulate his own problems" (Gibb, 1960, p. 59).

Conflict will occur between the instructor and the learner when the problems are perceived in different ways by the instructor and the learner. Problems are motivating forces for learners: they provide energy, direction and

sustaining force to learner's activities. To interfere with the flow of that energy deters learning.

14. Workshop design

The problem-orientation of adult learners has implications for the opening of any workshop. The opening exercise might be What are you hoping to get out of this workshop? or What problems have you encountered in this area of your work? Participants are asked to identify specific problems they want to deal with more adequately. The problems of the organization or institutions which are to be dealt with are put into the list and negotiated along with all the rest, but they should not take precedence.

15. Sensing systems

Effective workshops appeal to all the sensing systems of the learners involved by providing an environment with countless stimuli. The sensing systems are interrelated and so by bombarding these systems in different ways at different times the "filtering" which is common among learners is penetrated in a variety of ways and learning is increased in the process.

Assumptions About Learning and Teaching

The andragogical approach to the learning transaction is premised on three assumptions about learning and teaching that are critical for the person who comes face-to-face with a group of learners (Knowles, 1970).

1. Adults can learn although they may not perform as well as expected because of factors such as their time away from formal learning, their ability to adjust to new conditions of learning, physiological changes (lowering of energy levels, decline in visual acuity, reduced speed of reaction) and the degree of internal motivation as opposed to external sanctions.

2. Learning is an internal process controlled by the learner:

> "Learning is described psychologically as a process of need-meeting and goal striving by the learner. This is to say that an individual is motivated to engage in learning to the extent that he feels a need to learn and perceives a personal goal that learning will help to achieve; and he will invest his energy in making use of available resources (including teachers and readings) to the extent that he perceives them as being relevant to his needs and goals" (Knowles, 1970, p. 51).

The experience, or the interaction between the individual and the environment, is central to the learning process. "The quality and amount of learning is therefore clearly influenced by the quality and amount of interaction between the learner and his environment and by the educative potency of the environment" (Knowles, 1970, p. 51).

The creation of a rich environment from which students can extract learning is critical. Further it is equally critical that the learners be guided as they interact with that environment.

The prime function of the leader of adult learning groups is to involve them in self-directed inquiry which can be

proven to produce the greatest learning.

> "The main thrust of modern adult-educational technology is in the direction of inventing techniques for involving adults in ever-deeper processes of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning, in formulating their own objectives for learning, in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives" (Knowles, 1979, p. 51).

Knowles (1970) proposes that the adult educator must have faith in the ability of the individual to learn for himself and without this faith learning can be hindered rather than facilitated. The teacher of adults has responsibility for being "ingenious in finding better ways to help his students discover the important questions and answers to them themselves" (p. 51). The antithesis to this position is the teacher/group/facilitator as authority, giving ready-made answers to pre-determined questions.

3. When does learning take place?

There are certain conditions of learning and principles of teaching that are more conducive to growth and development than others (Knowles, 1970). A set of basic principles for learning has been compiled and is contained in Appendix K (pp. 192-194).

Evaluation

Evaluation of learning in workshops is virtually ignored among practitioners yet evaluation is the only means where these practitioners can prove the success or failure of their workshops and their work. The prime purpose for

evaluating a workshop is to discover if and how objectives are being accomplished. The critical question is What have participants learned from this experience? Why evaluate? Until this question has been answered the "how to" cannot be logically decided.

What will good evaluation provide? According to Conroy (1978) good evaluation will:

- furnish accurate information to assist further planning, to improve decision making, and to document achievements,
- determine to what extent a program and/or activity is accomplishing its goals and objectives, and what impacts are occurring,
- identify program strengths and weaknesses and the reasons for specific successes or failures,
- assure more consistent quality in learning activities and efforts.
- reinforce learning and develop an awareness of growth and change.
- determine the cost and benefits of the program and its activities.
- justify the investment and answer demands for accountability,
- produce documentation that allows information to be shared with others.

(Conroy, 1978. p. 191)

Evaluation should occur during the course of a workshop, at the end and perhaps at some interval after the program. Evaluation taken during the workshop provides data which reveals how well the workshop was received overall, what progress was made toward the achievement of objectives and how well the facilitator did. Evaluation after the workshop

tells if the learning is being used and in what ways.

Evaluation is the exception rather than the rule in relation to workshop learning experiences. The rule is usually the ritualistic evaluation procedure of the "participant reaction". Instruments for this purpose are formulated hastily, have little depth and a shallow impact (Conroy, 1978).

> "Valid evaluation is more than just the means to channel impressionistic information into a required report form. Rather, consistent, purposeful, creative evaluation should be present throughout the learning activities and the functions of program management" (Conroy, 1978, p. 192).

Evaluation at the conclusion of a learning experience is not the only form of evaluation which should be considered. Information is needed throughout the experience of the program to make adjustments as the experience proceeds.

To get beyond the superficial evaluation to a thorough and in-depth evaluation requires:

1. an understanding of the importance of the evaluation function,
2. a commitment to evaluation as an integral part of planning,
3. a knowledge of what kinds of decisions will be affected by the evaluation,
4. access to information about evaluation procedures,
5. acceptance and use of the information obtained from evaluation (Conroy, 1978).

Early workshops for teachers were apparently extensively evaluated during the program, at the conclusion and at intervals afterward. Four procedures were used (Kelley, 1951). There were 1) self-evaluation where students were encouraged

to think about themselves and their roles in the workshop. Questions were provided to stimulate thought. "What is my attitude toward the workshop at this stage?" or "If the workshop is not succeeding to what extent is that my responsibility?", 2) small group evaluation where work groups met to review the objectives set for themselves and ask themselves how well they were achieving the objectives. The results of the analysis were put into written form; 3) total group evaluation where an evaluation was conducted at general sessions. Forums were sometimes organized for the purpose of evaluation and a final evaluation session was held at the concluding session of the workshop; (4) evaluation for staff where informal personal evaluations of the work of the staff were conducted on a regular basis. Questionnaires were usually used for this purpose.

During the Eight-Year Study (1936-1944) an extensive evaluation procedure was conducted (Heaton, Camp & Diederich, 1940). The process began with the application for admission where a statement of problems, proposed methods of attack of the problems, and the help required were stated. Following this application individual conferences were held to clarify needs. Throughout the workshop there were several other means used to gather data: comments at group meetings, questionnaires and weekly reports, staff meetings to discuss needs, a statement of benefits submitted by participants at the workshop closing and a questionnaire on outstanding features of the workshop. The evaluation was kept current and as informal as

possible.

According to Davis (1974) there are four common and important types of workshop evaluation: feedback from participants, post-meeting reaction formats, evaluation by objectives and impact evaluation.

The first of these methods "feedback" is that data provided by participants regarding the adequacy of the workshop and the staff performance. Staff can make adjustments in the workshop program on their behavior based on this information, or the information serves to reinforce the leaders in their correctness. Feedback is relevant only as it is timely. Feedback may be obtained in several ways:

1. Individual participants may be asked for comment at regular intervals.
2. The entire group may be asked for comments on a "post-meeting reaction form". These comments are reviewed and used to guide the program as it proceeds.
3. The entire group may be asked to comment on the workshop in a "community" session at the end of the day.
4. A special feedback group is assigned to the task of making comment.
5. Participants are asked to spontaneously offer comments in the course of learning activities.

The post meeting reaction so commonly used is referred to by Davis (1974) as a "popularity poll". Warncke (1976) calls this kind of evaluation "false evaluation". Conroy (1978) calls it "happiness" data. Refer to Appendix I (pp. 170-179) for a sample form. The format may include

questions, rating scales ("poor" to "excellent"; "1" to 10") or check lists. False evaluation is nothing more than the participants' emotional reactions to various parts of the program. There is absolutely no indication of what the participants may have learned (Warncke, 1976). The disadvantage of the popularity poll is that it is usually taken at the end of the workshop when participants are happy (to be going, or that its over, or that they learned something) and their remarks are generally too soft and nice (Davis, 1974).

The one advantage, according to Davis (1974), is that it may provide useful data for planning future workshops. The criteria for a post-meeting reaction form would likely include: an expression of pleasure or displeasure with the program; the number of people in attendance; the smoothness of operation of the event; other flattering comments. The falacy of the post meeting reaction is that evaluation comes only at the end of an event (Warncke, 1976). According to Warncke (1976) evaluation must be a part of every aspect of the workshop. It starts with the statement of objectives and is a continuous process applied to all parts and the total.

The most important form of evaluation, for the serious evaluator according to Davis (1974), is the evaluation of the learning objectives for the workshop. To what degree were they reached? The crux is to have participants demonstrate the behaviour described in the objective under the specified conditions and to the level of performance required.

This type of evaluation (by objectives) must realistically

measure the learning outcomes. "The evaluation should simulate or approximate the way the behavior will be used in real life" (Davis, 1974, p. 276). Some of the more typical forms are the case study, role play, critical incident, In-Basket and simulation game.

The evaluation by objectives method has advantages and disadvantages (Davis, 1974). The advantages are:

1. It can provide feedback to participants during the workshop. Each objective can be evaluated step by step.
2. It can be used to evaluate participants at the end of the workshop.
3. It may be used to check on learning retentions after the workshop.

The major disadvantage is the difficulty in conducting such an evaluation with large groups.

Another form of evaluation is what Davis (1974) calls "impact evaluation" or "follow-up evaluation" (Warncke, 1976). This is a type of evaluation which attempts to measure the impact of the workshop on the behavior of participants back on the job. It is rarely used because the variables cannot be controlled.

Conclusions reached by Leary and Wolf (1972) after gathering pre-conference data, post-conference data and data six-months after the program were: 1) that short-term training in-service training programs such as workshops were more effective in influencing awareness than decisions to adopt innovations -- 29% awareness; 11% adoption. 2) That support for attendance did not influence reactions; 3) Innovations within the program were related to innovations

of subsequent interest to program participants; 4) There was no difference between attitudes toward programs and subsequent behavior.

Innovations would have more chance of adoption according to Leary and Wolf (1972) if the purposes of short-term programs were more clearly set forth; if participants who are apt to profit are pre-selected; and if follow-up training within the context of the participants' practice is conducted.

Warncke (1976) approaches evaluation in a methodical manner, establishing "baseline" information before doing anything about measurement of progress. The baseline is established by pre-examination. With a baseline established measurement can proceed. The units of measurement should be consciously defined, and the objective itself should suggest the measure (Warncke, 1976).

> "Establishing units of measurement is another way of saying "Know what to look for". The process of evaluation is basically organized observation" (Warncke, 1976, p. 89).

There are many ways to observe participants' responses and the choice of a few methods for any event must be realistic (Warncke, 1976).

Some common methods are the written response at the end of sessions, participants' responses to presentations, the product of an activity, reports from assigned observers, and group evaluation sessions (Warncke, 1976).

According to Warncke (1976) follow-up evaluation is highly desirable, but difficult to obtain for specific reasons:

1. Changes can be achieved in certain kinds of workshops where the topic is limited and capable of application.

2. The clientelle must be fairly homogeneous as to background, job type, etc.

3. Participants are usually mobile and may not be in the same situation as they were at the time of the workshop.

4. Planners may not be available to conduct follow-up.

5. There may not be support for a follow-up survey.

In spite of the difficulties which may be encountered Warncke (1976) suggests that plans should be made to measure change in a post workshop evaluation.

What is the use of evaluation? According to Warncke (1976):

> "Perhaps the most important aspect of evaluation is that the preparation for it requires a close look at objectives in the planning stage. To develop an effective evaluation device, it is necessary to break an objective into its parts, to know specifically what is to be accomplished. Airy objectives such as 'to encourage intellectual freedom' vanish like puffballs when a plan for determining achievement is undertaken" (p. 95).

There are other important uses of evaluation: It gives guidance for future learning experiences, choice of method of presentation and provides feedback to sponsors and future planning groups.

> "Evaluation lifts the workshop or institute out of its time slot, and provides it with an opportunity to make an impact on future learning opportunities" (Warncke, 1976, p. 95).

Carney (1976) approaches evaluation from the view that it is the evaluatory exercise that will make the learning experience memorable and deeply meaningful. It is Carney's

(1976) contention that most of the learning occurs in the course of evaluating the experience. A full summary of Carney's (1976) approach is provided in Appendix J (pp. 180-191).

Summary

This chapter has traced the history of the workshop through its definition and evolution over 40 years; it has provided information on innovations and current formats; it has provided information on adult learning theories and principles which form the basis for the workshop approach to teaching and learning; it has provided comment on evaluative techniques.

To conclude this chapter, three points are worthy of note:

1. The workshop has emerged after four decades as one of the most powerful teaching/learning strategies known today in professional education.

2. A sound set of theories and principles on adult learning have emerged to give workshop practitioners a solid base from which to plan and design their workshop learning experiences.

3. Evaluative procedures, often a neglected part of workshop planning and design, are essential and must become an integral part of every practitioner's repertoire of skills.

CHAPTER III

SURVEY METHOD

The questionnaire, Appendix C (pp. 118-119) was mailed to thirty-four people known to the author as persons who planned, designed and conducted workshops in education, business, industry, or for the public at large as private practitioners. All persons selected were residents of Canada or the United States.

A letter from the author, Appendix A (pp. 114-115); a letter from Dr. Rey Carr, University of Victoria, Appendix B (pp. 116-117); a copy of the questionnaire, Appendix C (pp. 118-119); a response sheet, Appendix D (pp. 120-124); and a stamped, self-addressed envelope were mailed by registered mail. Two of the recipients of the questionnaire requested interviews and special arrangements were made to accommodate them. Eight response sheets were returned by the deadline, June 30, 1979 or shortly thereafter. Within two weeks of the deadline for the return of surveys several of the people to whom the questionnaire had been sent were telephoned. Five additional survey forms were received as a result of the telephone contact. One of these returns represented four persons.

Comments from some of the respondents included with the response form indicated that they found the task of completing the questionnaire an onorous one, and they would have liked to have had more time.

One response was in the form of a letter with a list of references attached. This person was not able to complete the questionnaire in the way he would have liked in the time provided and took the option of not doing so. Another recipient of the questionnaire telephoned to say that he was engaged in a study that would provide similar information and so chose not to complete the questionnaire.

All responses received in time to be included in the analysis for this study have been reproduced in full and are found in Appendix E (pp. 125-161).

A synthesis of the information contained in the response sheets was made and forms the second section of this study, Chapter IV (pp. 66-107).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Working Definition

The questions posed in the questionnaire were worded: "Has the term (workshop) become a generic one for any meeting arranged for the purposes of learning?" "When you hear the term 'workshop' what things do you think of?" "What special associations do you make?"

Table 1 contains a list of the "associations" made by respondents when they hear the term "workshop" The list suggests that the emphasis in the workshop method is on "learning by doing", often referred to as "experiential learning", or the "do--look--learn" approach. It stands then that the environment for the workshop must be congruent with the experiential approach.

It is significant that only one respondent stated that the term "workshop" had become a generic term. One might speculate that although the term is in common use today by many people it still has a "special" meaning for knowledgeable practitioners.

The data suggest that within the current format for workshops the leader takes on special responsibilities as facilitator (orchestrator) of the learning by: 1) structuring experiences that heighten the learning, such as simulations, guided fantasies, role plays, instruments, (pencil and paper exercises); 2) providing information via short lectures

TABLE 1

ASSOCIATIONS

active involvement
experiential learning (learning by doing)
collective energy
high degree of participation
leader as orchestrator
participants working
input by leader and group members
concentrated learning
strategies
action steps
working
labour
adults learning
problem solving
interpersonal exchange of knowledge, attitudes, experiences, skills
simulations
theories
paper-pencil exercises
skill-practice
newsprint
single unit of learning
specific focus
not part of a larger program
short term
new information
place and environment that facilitates work
content relevant to personal concerns
specific objectives
practical end-product
relationships
learning and personal growth

(lecturettes) when necessary to enhance the integration of the learning; 3) assisting individuals and groups to develop strategies and action steps for the application of the learning in the real world beyond the workshop setting. One gathers that the leaders in workshops discussed by Kelley (1951) and Boykin (1955) were resource people -- guides and mentors -- for participants. The leaders in the early workshops did not engage in designing the workshop to any great extent or in the structuring of special activities to engage the participants.

It can be generalized from the data that a workshop is a highly-concentrated, controlled environment with a much more formal structure than a seminar, symposium, or class. There are specific objectives (often only one objective), and a short time span in which to work toward achieving those objectives. All strategies used must be congruent with the objectives. In addition to the time restriction there is a limit placed on resources (the main resource is the participants) and a limit placed on the physical facilities used.

Champlin (1942) and Knowles (1970) liken the workshop to a "laboratory" which indeed it resembles in many respects. The term laboratory refers to a focus on experimentation with new behaviors and testing them in the workshop environment as one might test things in a laboratory.

The definitions which appear in the literature over the past decade emphasize the experiential nature of the workshop (Knowles, 1970; Graening, 1975; Warncke, 1976; Conroy, 1978).

The workshop is a short, intensive learning experience with multi-activities (or a single activity) designed to develop individual competencies, through a pattern of activities including large group meetings, small groups, problem-solving groups, planning groups, skill-practice groups, individual activity and one-to-one consultation. The workshop format demands participation from people and gives them a major responsibility for their own learning.

Using the survey data provided the author's working definition of the workshop would be as follows:

The workshop is an environment created for the purpose of a group of adults coming together to apply their collective energy to learning new skills, gaining knowledge and formulating (or reformulating) attitudes that will assist them in the resolution of personal and professional problems within their range of experience as individuals. The workshop leader has a critical role in the learning -- acting as planner/designer/facilitator/evaluator for the activities in such a way that objectives are kept in focus, modified as necessary, and achieved within the time frame of the workshop. The leader has a responsibility to provide information for participants in the form of short lectures (10-15 minutes), handouts, and articles, and to use methods that will engage participants in ways that enable them to maximize their learnings in a short-time span. The facilitator assumes a major responsibility for the processing period following any experience to assist learners in getting the most from the experience.

The workshop emphasizes people "doing together" rather than being "talked at". A significant part of any workshop is the "people interaction" which takes place during and after formal sessions.

The time span of a workshop varies with the objectives to be achieved and may run from a few hours to several weeks. The workshop is a problem-solving session with a focus on skill, knowledge and attitude learning where participants are psychologically safe to practice what they need to enable them to solve problems which they encounter in their work and home settings.

Learning Theories

The second question posed in the questionnaire addressed adult learning theories as related to workshop designs and activities. The question asked was "What adult learning theories do you emphasize in your workshop designs and strategies?"

Table 2 is a list of key words and phrases derived from the data provided by respondents to the survey question. The data are not incongruent with theories outlined in the literature (Gibb, 1960; Knowles, 1970; Dickenson, 1973). In designing a learning experience for adults the self-concept, the level of experience, the stage of readiness and the orientation of the person toward learning are prime considerations.

The most common response from respondents indicated that

TABLE 2

ADULT LEARNING THEORY: Key words and phrases.

learning by doing/deductive learning
relevancy of material
non-threatening data toward higher risk
reinforcement
experientially-based learning
psychologically-safe environment
multi-sensory
discovering
changing
non-defensive
cooperative
readiness
individual
sophisticated
empowered
modelling of teacher
structured experiences
confrontation with support
conceptual links
assimilation of knowledge
andragogy
discovering concepts/integrating concepts
changing attitudes
model building
experimenting

they accept that adults learn best when there is an experiential focus; when they are actively involved in the learning process and when all their senses are being used. "A basic tenet of the workshop is learning by doing" (Respondent 2).

There would likely be agreement among the respondents about the need to create a psychologically safe environment (Gibb, 1960) while at the same time challenging the learners to go 10-15% beyond their comfort zone.

Knowles (1970) states that adults have their phases of growth and resulting developmental tasks, readiness to learn, and teachable moments. It can be generalized from the data that the respondents recognize this principle in their work. "People can only learn as much as they are ready to learn" (Respondent 10). "Begin to teach where they are" (Respondent 10). "The depth of learning depends on the stage of readiness, but everyone learns in every situation" (Respondent 11).

Knowles (1970) also suggests that adults enter educational activity wanting to learn things they can apply in their current life situations. The data support this premise. "Adults learn when the content meets a specific, current need which they have identified" (Respondent 13).

The data are supportive of the concept that learning is an internal process, controlled by the learner and engaging his/her whole being -- intellect, emotions and physical self; and that the central dynamic of the learning process is the experience of the learner -- the interaction of the learner

with the environment (Knowles, 1970). A critical consideration in the planning and design of workshops is the inclusion of strategies which will increase the quality and amount of interaction among participants thus assuring the possibility of an increase in the quality and amount of learning.

Strategies

The question asked in the survey was "What strategies do you use that are most effective in providing for skill-learning, knowledge learning and attitude learning?"

Table 3 contains a list of strategies which respondents indicate can be used for each area of learning: skill learning, knowledge learning and attitude learning.

Although this aspect of the workshop approach was not covered specifically in the review of the literature, the strategies chosen by the workshop practitioner must be congruent with the learning approach of the workshop, sound learning theories, and the needs of the learners. Respondent 1 suggests that a variety of techniques must be used "to communicate with each individual's primary representational channel: visual -- blackboard and posters; auditory -- clear words and information; kinesthetic -- small group contact and non-verbal exercises".

Knowles' (1970) concept of the teacher as procedural technician, resource person and co-inquirer -- a catalyst and a guide -- is supportive of the data obtained.

The majority of the strategies chosen by the respondents

TABLE 3: STRATEGIES

Skill Learning	
small groups	simulations (video and peer feedback)
structured experiences	role plays
modelling	learning partners
practice with opportunity to evaluate experience	practice in giving and receiving feedback
homework	

Knowledge Learning	
small groups	problem-solving exercises
visuals: chalkboard and films with discussion	lectures with handouts and articles
overhead transparencies	experiential lectures
clear language	demonstration
tapes	simulations
learning partners	role reversals (Gestalt)
reading	participant input
journal writing	case studies

Attitude Learning	
small groups	learning partners
theory presentations	T-groups
modelling	instruments (worksheets and questionnaires)
intra-group processes	case studies
non-verbal activities	simulations
role reversals	lectures for integration
role plays	large group synthesis
films	participation training (group discussion with functional roles)
tapes	
structured experiences	
journal writing	

suggest an experiential focus for the learning -- involvement of the learners in a variety of ways -- to tap the full depth of knowledge that they bring to the workshop.

Limitations

The question asked of respondents was "What limits would you place on the workshop approach as a teaching/learning strategy?"

Table 4 provides a breakdown of the data as it relates to the participants, the leader and the environment in general.

The data reveal that time is a major limitation of the workshop approach. Whereas time was not a critical factor when workshops were from four to six week long (Bigelow, 1945) it is a significant element in workshops that vary from a few hours to several days. There is not time in short periods to pursue learning across a broad spectrum on any topic. There is not time to allow participants an opportunity for a full analysis of presentations or to permit full internalization of learnings in the workshop setting. There is not time for follow-through on workshop learnings and consequently much of the benefit is lost. With these considerations in mind the planner/designer of workshops must be careful to keep goals and objectives achievable and manageable.

There are other critical limitations of the workshop approach according to the respondents. Some of these impact the content of the workshop while others have an effect on the processes adopted. It is not possible in the workshop setting

to simulate the social situations or the job situations of participants. Issues of this nature are better dealt with by some other form of learning intervention. Further the type of content must recognize that participants come from different cultural backgrounds and may be hindered in their learnings by certain activities, or certain sensitive topics.

The "rarified atmosphere" of the workshop is a further limitation in that learning may never be implemented because the participant must return to an environment which is hostile to change and new behaviors. Taking the learner in the safe workshop environment beyond what is practicable "back home" may be doing him/her a disservice.

Other critical limitations of the workshop approach are the learner's state of readiness to learn, the learner's expectations, the learner's level of interpersonal skills, the learner's skill development in relation to the workshop processes; the personal problems that the learner may bring to the workshop and finally the degree of voluntariness of participation. Each of these limitation have design implications of which the planner/designer /facilitator must have cognizance.

The leader of the workshop places another set of limitations according to the data. What is the leader's level of competence? What personal attributes does the leader possess that may interfere with the workshop process? What level of skills and knowledge does the leader have for this workshop on this topic with these participants?

Other limitations on the workshop approach are money (Is

TABLE 4

LIMITATIONS OF THE WORKSHOP APPROACH

Participants

readiness for learning
expectations (interference of high level expectations)
level of interpersonal skills
level of skills with workshop processes
personal problems
voluntariness

Leader

competence level (to make appropriate interventions)
skills
personal attributes

Environment

simulation of social situations
simulation of job situations
cultural background of participants
group size
time: opportunity for follow-through -- isolated event -- lost learnings
opportunity for depth of learning (limits subject presentation)
opportunity for internalization
opportunity for in-depth analysis
real world: "rarified atmosphere"
re-entry to a non-receptive back-home situation
content: personal problems
not efficient for large bodies of knowledge
money: cost effectiveness
physical facilities

it cost effective?) and the restrictions imposed by the physical facilities.

Leader Background and Experience

Question five in the questionnaire addresses the issue of leader background and experience. The questions asked were "What essential background experiences should workshop leaders have to be effective in their roles as leaders/facilitators?" "What depth of experience is necessary for them in the human relations field?" Table 5 categorizes the information from respondents.

The matter of wholeness" or togetherness" or "self-concept" is identified by several respondents as a critical factor. "The leader can only be effective up to his wholeness, an autonomous leader affords a powerful model" (Respondent 1). "They (the leader) have to be dealing from a "together", non-defensive", and "self-accepting" position (Respondent 8). "Sense of self; awareness of self; good self-concept; maturity in the best sense of the word" (Respondent 10). "It's being fully present with people and not playing a role" (Respondent 11).

In addition to being "whole" and having "psychological health" the leader must have current and credible content (in depth around the topic being studied) and current and credible methods and style.

While being a person (empathic, congruent, accepting and rigid) the effective leader posses skills in designing,

facilitating, listening, presenting and evaluating. The effective leader has a wide repertoire of techniques (verbal and non-verbal exercises) from which to draw to inject into the learning experience at appropriate intervals. The effective leader operates from a sound theoretical base related to learning, individual development (the change process), interpersonal communication, and group dynamics. The effective leader has a commitment to personal and professional growth and a commitment to self-directed learning.

It is essential that the leader have participated in human relations training, have taken training in basic human behavior and have learned basic communication skills. "The leader needs to model each principle he teaches; this modelling is the most powerful teaching device I know" (Respondent 1). Experience as a co-facilitator or as an intern is a further critical consideration for workshop leaders.

A final consideration may be that the level of experience and background of the leader can vary according to the experience and background of participants. "The more experienced, 'sophisticated' the participants, the more experienced, 'sophisticated' the leader required" (Respondent 7).

Leader background and experience is not dealt with in any depth in the literature review although, as mentioned by Herrick (1946), staff (leaders) must be skillful in facilitating the learners' learning. Workshops were held in university or college settings and leaders were chosen from

TABLE 5

LEADER BACKGROUND AND EXPERIENCE

Knowledge	Attributes	Behavior	Experiences	Skills
basic human behavior and behavior change	wholeness	modelling	interpersonal communication	presentation
content	psychological health	capacity to confront what is	co-facilitation	facilitation
learning theory	presence (charisma)	non-defensive	internship/ apprenticeship	evaluation
group dynamics	competence	willingness to risk	training labs	design
interpersonal communications	self-directed		organizational behavior labs	listening
instructional design	togetherness		variety of life experiences	feedback
conflict management	sensitivity for people		participation in a lot of groups	
	self-accepting			

the faculties of these institutions. Because of the nature of the workshops they would likely possess a depth of knowledge in special subject fields. Hartung described the staff as "consultants and co-workers" with a willingness to forego outlining a program of study or prescribing readings. O'Rourke and Burton (1957) suggest that staff (consultants and instructors) "represent a wide diversity of personal and professional skills".

With the shift of focus in the content and process of workshops over the years has come a shift in emphasis on the leadership of such events. The leader/facilitator today is more than consultant and co-worker and requires a much more sophisticated repertoire of professional skills and knowledge and must possess the attributes of a fulfilled human being.

Co-Facilitation

Question 6 on the questionnaire was concerned with co-facilitation of workshops. The questions asked were: "What are your views on co-facilitation of workshops?" "Are there special considerations for the facilitators? . . . the participants?"

Pfeiffer and Jones (1975) identify the major advantages and disadvantages of co-facilitation. According to Pfeiffer and Jones (1975) the advantage are: complementary styles of working; increased capacity to deal with heightened affect among participants; personal and professional development through the personal and working relationship; the synergistic

outcomes of two people working colaboratively; modelling of a two-person relationship; shared leadership (reduced dependency by participants); better pacing of activities (one monitors while other presents); sharpened focus on issues. The data are not at variance with these premises. One might generalize from the data which are summarized in Table 6 that the presence of two or more facilitators at a workshop provides participants with a potentially richer learning experience provided that the leaders "have their act together". If there are tensions between the co-leaders the effect will be negative. "I believe it (co-facilitation) doubles the effectiveness of the event, potentially" (Respondent 3). When there are two facilitators they can take turns concentrating on content and processes simultaneously so that the chances that something will be missed are minimized. A single facilitator must neglect one of these aspects (process or content) from time to time. "Co-facilitation is excellent, but time consuming" (Respondent 10).

The potential disadvantages of co-facilitation outlined by Pfeiffer and Jones (1975) are: different theoretical, personal and technical orientations, extra energy expended in maintaining a relationship, threat to group members, competition for popularity over training of the group by making too many interventions, mutual blind spots, presentation of a misleading model, and different work rhythms. Again, the data are not in disagreement with these principles.

To co-facilitate effectively, the facilitators must have

TABLE 6

CO-FACILITATION

Special Considerations

Each must allow the other to be different.

Co-facilitator issues are worked through outside the group.

Vital for large groups.

Requires deliberate attention.

Clarity of relationship:

- openness to work through conflict.
- risk to expose self to other.
- examination of collusion issues.

Roles and functions differ from situation to situation.

Must have high trust/respect for each other.

Must plan together; have equal power.

Must debrief.

Potentially increases flexibility.

Time consuming.

Impact of two role models on learners.

Double effectiveness on input and feedback.

Increased attention to process and content at same time.

Confusion of group members around leadership.

a high level of mutual respect and openness and there must be a conscious effort to keep the relationship clear -- working through conflicts, examining collusion issues and building the "team". It is critical, however, that issues not be worked through in the workshop.

Co-facilitators must have high trust for one another, must have equal power (unless one is in training), must co-plan and debrief together.

Participants gain from having more than one role model or presentation style. With an effective team approach there is an increased chance of hearing and acknowledging every individual's needs. However, the presence of two people constantly may create discomfort or confusions about leadership. Who is the leader, who is the assistant? There may, in addition to the "leadership" struggle, be "mother--father" "transferences" (Respondent 7).

It can be concluded from the data that co-facilitation is desirable, is potentially more potent, and is a superior way to work with groups. Those who consider co-facilitation should choose a partner carefully, be willing to invest time and energy in building an honest and open relationship, and establish clear roles for themselves. Co-facilitation is a rich and worthwhile experience for both facilitators and participants.

Resistance

Questions asked in part 7 of the questionnaire were: "What is your working definition of 'resistance'?" "What are

the obvious subtle indicators of resistance?" "What do you do about them?"

A question frequently asked by workshop facilitators is "What do I do when people resist becoming involved in an activity; resist doing what I ask them to do?" Resistance will be a part of every group unless everyone agrees with everything all the time (and that is highly unlikely). Knowing how to deal with resistance so that it does not obstruct the learning process is crucial for the group leader.

The topic of "resistance" is absent in the review of the literature on workshops reviewed however, it was deemed to be of sufficient importance to ask for information in the survey questionnaire. The data provided through the survey are compiled in Table 7. An analysis of those data indicates that "resistance" can be loosely defined, that there are some obvious indicators of resistance, and that there are ways of dealing positively with it.

The data indicate that resistance is likely to occur most often when learners have perceived needs that do not coincide with the goals of the workshop. There is a reluctance to take part and a challenge of the leadership. Resistors are readily identified.

The major manifestations of resistance are, according to the data: withdrawal (physically or mentally), excessive questionning, using criticism, and demanding attention through a variety of means (feigned misunderstanding, slowness,

TABLE 7

RESISTANCE

Definition	Obvious Indicators	Resolution
poor pacing of learner	hostile questions and interventions	describe behavior and involve group in getting solution
hesitation to take part	passive resistance in withdrawal (physically or mentally)	clarify the bottom line
not having resolved who's in charge (unresolved control issues)	opting out	individualize the workshop to suit individual needs
learner needs incongruent with workshop goals	critizing activity	encourage peer feedback
leaners experiences difficulty and reacts counter of leader values	excessive questioning	avoid blaming
putting effort into avoiding	refusal to do activity	be sensitive to "melt the resistance"
an indication of threat	wanting to theorize, not do	use self-disclosure
not wanting to be present	leaving to go to the bathroom as activity starts	cultivate a sense of humor
proves something is wrong	slowness to follow directions	give permission to leave
	asking for clarification	negotiate what you and the resistor can live with
	negativism	accept the learner's version of reality to start
	low energy	become the resistance and express dislike for what happened also
	"spaced out" behavior	listen and respect
	fatigue	discuss activity
	boredom	sometimes ignore
	being "turned on"	
	noise level	
	power moves against leader and others	

Table 7 (cont'd.)

Definition	Obvious Indicators	Resolution
	joking "Yes, but." feigned misunderstanding	give extra attention accept indicator at face value restate position as leader confront resistance negotiate what's negotiable name resistance in advance call attention to sabotage of learning opportunity do needs assessment to give activities practicability

theorizing, low energy, joking, power moves against the leader).

The data provide a list of positive ways to resolve resistance. The suggestions range from granting permission to leave, to direct confrontation of the resistor. Though these methods may be positive and the only solutions in certain cases, there are a range of other actions which can be taken by the facilitator. The most effective first step is likely to be an acceptance of the learner's position which will in some way serve to defuse or melt the resistance. Validating the resistance and requesting peer feedback then negotiating changes within the limits that are negotiable are alternative strategies.

The data indicate that the chances of resistance occuring are reduced when the needs of participants are clarified in advance. The data further suggest that the facilitator who listens, avoids blaming, is sensitive, and is assertive about his/her own position will likely be able to negotiate a satisfactory resolution to the problem.

Evaluation

Questions asked in the survey questionnaire were: "What priority do you give evaluation in workshops?" "What evaluatory exercises have you found to be most interesting and useful?"

Table 8 contains a summary of the data gathered in response to the two questions. Respondents either indicated

TABLE 8

EVALUATION

Level of priority	
high priority	√√√√√√√√√√
medium priority	√√
low priority	√√√

Evaluatory exercises
evaluation questionnaire (pluses, minuses, omissions)
verbal evaluations (group discussions)
3 - 4 week follow-up questionnaire
follow-up workshop (questionnaire on principles taught earlier)
process evaluation and product evaluation
exercises within learning process (structured experiences)
"goodbye forever" (a check on authenticity of participants)
extensive cognitive/attitude measure (pre-post basis)
personnel department follow-up (one week; two months; six months)
questionnaire addressing goals

(√) indicates single response

directly their priority or it was generalized from their comments that they gave evaluation a high, medium or low priority. Other data provided ranged from general comments about evaluation to specific mention of evaluatory procedures.

The issue of evaluation is dealt with in some depth in the recent literature (Davis, 1974; Warncke, 1976; Carney, 1976; and Conroy, 1978) and in the literature describing the first workshops for teachers (Heaton, et al, 1940). The data do not provide this depth, but they are not at variance with what the authors noted above have said.

It can be concluded from the data that there is a wide range of opinion about the form and function of evaluation in workshops. Those respondents who gave the evaluation a high priority wanted ongoing information to enable them to make adjustments in the program design, information at the conclusion of the event to determine adequacies and inadequacies of the total experience from the learner's point of view and follow-up information to determine the impact of the learning "back home".

Respondent 5 provided a list of several reasons for evaluating learning as follows: to give participants feedback, to provide the facilitator with feedback on style, to gather data for improving the design, to gather data for use in advertising (quotations), to judge the quality for reporting out to sponsoring agency, to determine the level of human resource development in a system, and to maintain

quality control.

There is no mention in the data about evaluation by objectives which is emphasized by Davis (1974), Warncke (1976) and Conroy (1978). Follow-up evaluation or "impact evaluation" (Davis (1974) was identified as desirable but difficult.

One can speculate that evaluation of workshop learning will be a controversial issue for some time among workshop practitioners and that the resolution will be a greater emphasis on the evaluation as learning discussed by Carney (1976) and mentioned by one respondent as "exercises built into the learning process". The form and function of the evaluation is probably directly related to the experience and "sophistication" of the leader and the participants. What works for some will not work for others. Evaluation without some specific purpose is unneeded additional work.

Discussion and Conclusions

The review of the literature traces the evolution of the workshop over a period of four decades since its inception as an in-service education strategy for teachers in 1936. The study provides definitions and descriptions of workshops over the forty years. Tyler (1943), Kelley (1945), Herrick (1946), Hartung (1946), Downes (1947), Boykin (1955), O'Rourke and Burton (1957) present definitions which distinctly separate the workshop method from other methods as a teaching/ learning device.

The early workshops had special characteristics: 1) the problems dealt with were typically school problems -- problems with administration, student personnel and evaluation, 2) working groups were developed around the common problems, and 3) faculty members were available to give guidance and leadership as necessary. (The workshops were usually held on a college or university campus and faculty referred to here are the faculty of those institutions.) The workshop method stressed personal development, functional content (content that had direct application in the back home situation), and integrated experiences (work on school problems combined with social and creative activity). Workshops were designed to facilitate the application of knowledge in solving vital problems, not the acquisition of knowledge. The problems which teachers brought to the workshops were the elements which determined staffing, time schedule procedures and processes, organization of groups, and evaluation strategies.

Within the time frame of from four-to-six weeks (and anything less was considered unworkable) participants could take time to clarify and clearly articulate their problems, identify resources, develop strategies for resolving problems and work out solutions to those problems. Participants were given full responsibility for their own learning in the workshop place; staff were available as assistants to facilitate the process of searching for solutions.

The workshop was conceived and designed to aid in solving

problems, and as a model democratic environment for teachers to learn about themselves and their capacity to work and live with other people. Deliberate attention was paid to providing opportunities for participants to engage in the visual and performing arts and social activities.

It is important to note that the early workshops were considered to be of no use to beginning teachers. They were not "orientation" sessions. A criterion for entry into a workshop was a well-defined problem and a background of knowledge and experience as a practicing teacher.

Authors of the 1970's (Knowles, 1970; Warncke, 1975; Graening, 1975; Conroy, 1978) talk about the workshop as a short, intensive, practical experience with the emphasis on the development of individual competencies in a narrowly defined area of concern. The workshop is rated as a more sophisticated means of bringing people and ideas together than the conference, institute, class or seminar. The workshop is likened to a "laboratory" which requires complex planning and leadership. Theory presentation, application sessions and feedback sessions are a standard part of good workshop design.

Respondents to the survey questionnaire equated the workshop with learning and personal growth; with active involvement of participants individually and in small groups; with experiential learning; with the use of the collective energy of the group to arrive at solutions to problems;

with concept learning, skill learning and attitude learning; with the interpersonal exchange of knowledge. The presence of these elements separates the workshop sharply from the seminar, symposium, clinic, conference of institute.

"Learning by doing" in the workshop way of learning described by Kelley (1945) has a different connotation from what is known today as the "experiential" approach. Participants who engaged in problem-solving exercises in the early workshops were "doing" together to produce a solution to a problem which had direct applicability to their work setting, the school. The product may have been a revised curriculum, a new administrative procedure, or a method of handling pupil personnel problems more effectively. People worked together to produce the product and the emphasis was on the activity -- the doing -- the working together in a democratic fashion -- the socializing.

In a well-planned, well-designed workshop today the important learning is not in the activity and the product that may be produced but in the experiencing of the experience; it is in the "processing" of the experience of being involved in an activity and the product is the personal learning that is "pulled out" for application. Processing as used here is a special activity with several phases: 1) reflection on what took place during the activity; 2) getting peer feedback and validation of those perceptions; 3) making comparisons with an existing body of knowledge; 4) making generalizations and drawing conclusions; and 5) looking for applications of

what was learned.

The workshop is still (as it was in 1945) a special situation designed to aid in the application of knowledge. Seminars, symposia, conferences, lectures and institutes are still better devices for transmitting large amounts of information. The workshop provides a special setting and an unique opportunity for the integration of skill learning, knowledge learning, and attitude learning. Furthermore, there are no restrictions on who may attend. The workshop is open to anyone regardless of background or experience and this mix creates the potential for rich learning to occur.

Whereas the problems which teachers brought to the workshop setting were the elements which determined the design in the early workshops, the objectives are now the critical elements around which staff, the time schedule, procedures, processes, resources, organization of groups, and evaluation strategies are developed. (The objectives are usually set in advance by the leader/facilitator, published, clarified and renegotiated with participants within the parameters of the workshop topic and the time frame.) The key question is: What will be required by way of resources and processes to achieve these objectives in this time frame?

The workshop leader/facilitator in current workshops plays a much more significant role than his/her predecessors. He/she has a much higher profile and requires a broader range of skills and depth of knowledge, particularly in the area of human relations. The leader is the planner,

designer and facilitator of the learning. He/she is the orchestrator "par excellence" of all the activities which are employed to engage participants.

The survey of the literature on adult learning theory was restricted to those theories and principles which could be directly linked to the workshop method. The theory of andragogy -- the art of helping adults learn -- is based on the premise that adults have different characteristics from children and there are, therefore, special considerations which must be kept in mind when engaging them in learning activities. Knowles (1970) presents four assumption about adults which are supported by the data from the survey questionnaire. These assumptions are that adults are self-directing, that adults have a vast reservoir of experience that is brought to the learning environment, that an adult's readiness to learn is in direct relationship to his/her developmental tasks in society, and adults are concerned about learning that enables them to solve problems. The data from the survey questionnaire generally support these principles.

The prime purpose of evaluating a workshop is to determine whether or not objectives are being achieved, yet evaluation is generally done superficially and without reference to the objectives. Full evaluation is an exception rather than the rule. Although the literature surveyed makes a good case for evaluation (Heaton, et al., 1940; David, 1974; Warncke, 1976; Carney, 1976; Conroy, 1978)

the data from the survey questionnaire reveals that evaluation is done is a rather shallow way, mainly with a post-workshop survey using rating scales and checklists. One can generalize from the data that evaluation by objectives is seldom, if ever done.

Good evaluation will furnish a wealth of useful data to improve future planning of workshops, to determine to what extent goals/objectives were achieved, to identify strategies and weaknesses in the design, to assure quality, to reinforce the learning of participants and develop their sense of awareness of growth and change, to determine cost benefits, and to document achievement.

To be useful in fulfilling all of these purposes evaluation must be done at the beginning of the workshop, during the course of the workshop, at the end, and at some interval afterward if feasible. Superficial evaluation will continue to occur until planners/designers/facilitators understand the importance of evaluation and make a commitment to incorporate evaluatory procedures and processes into the planning and design processes. There are different kinds of evaluation and it is the responsibility of planners/designers/facilitators to become familiar with what is available and begin to apply it.

The early workshops described by Kelley (1945) used four procedures: small-group evaluation, total-group evaluation, self evaluation and staff evaluation. The process

began with the application made by a participant to be enrolled. Data was obtained in written reports, through conferences and via questionnaires. The process was kept current and informal.

The writings by authors in the 1970's direct attention to evaluation of the learning objectives as a prime consideration. Are participants demonstrating the behavior described in the objectives and to the level of performance desired? The suggestion is that the way the behavior will be used in real life be simulated or approximated. If participants can demonstrate the behavior in role plays, simulation games, critical incidents and IN baskets, then it can be assumed that the objectives have been achieved. Practitioners of the workshop method are not using this approach probably because of its apparent complexity. However, two of the respondents did suggest that evaluation should be an integral part of the learning experience rather than an "add on" exercise.

In designing a workshop, the planner must be concerned with multiple factors: the physical environment and it's conduciveness to adults' learning, the psychological environment, the needs of the participants, the involvement of participants in goal setting, evaluation procedures that will give learners feedback, participatory experiential techniques, opportunities for practice within the workshop conditions, opportunities for mutual inquiry, the stages of

readiness of participants, the variety of working groups, the meaningfulness of experiences, the motivational force of activities selected, the design (structure) of the workshop, and the appeal of the activities to all of the senses. The planner/designer of workshops must keep in mind that adults can learn, that they learn best when there is a rich environment from which to extract learning, and that there are certain conditions that are more effective than others in producing growth and development.

The survey questionnaire included questions about several special considerations in workshop design, as follows: 1) strategies which are most effective in providing for skill learning, knowledge learning and attitude learning; 2) limitations of the workshops approach as a teaching/learning strategy; 3) the essential background experiences for workshop leaders/facilitators; 4) the effects of co-facilitation on participants and other facilitators; 5) resistance behaviors of learners and their treatment.

The workshop is synonymous with "experiential learning" or the "do-look-learn" approach and within the parameters of these approaches a multitude of activities can be used. The methods used must relate to the objectives to be achieved -- a role play for practicing a particular skill, a structured experience to aid in the examination of attitudes, and a discussion group to aid in the sharing of knowledge. Audio-visual aids (overhead transparencies, charts, slides) are

used when appropriate, to augment a presentation or to enrich the learning experience such as audio-tape, video tape self analysis.

The workshop approach does have limitations which have an effect on its application as a teaching/learning device. Time is a major restriction and a critical consideration in the design process, particularly when learning objectives are being developed. Will there be enough time to achieve these objectives through these processes?

The simulated world of the workshop is a second limitation and one which must get serious consideration. Is the workshop environment that will be created by this design too rich or too impoverished? What impact will it have on participants? Will there be a transfer of learning from this environment back home without too many difficulties?

Other limitations center on the learner -- his/her state of readiness, expectations, level of interpersonal skills, level of skill development in the use of workshop approaches, state of psychological health, and voluntariness in attending the workshop. The planner/designer must be aware of these limitations and compensate for them in the workshop design.

Leader background and experience is a critical consideration. High on the list of requirements in "wholeness" or "togetherness" and genuineness" as a person. The impact of the leader as model is a factor which cannot be overlooked. The leader must have a depth of knowledge in the content of

the workshop and a wealth of techniques which can be put into operation as the workshop unfolds. A special requirement, and one which is probably not given serious consideration is that the leader of workshops have participated in growth groups on a regular basis.

Co-facilitation is considered very desirable in workshops where the number of participants is greater than 10 or 12. However, with co-facilitation come special issues: the clarity of the relationship of the two people facilitating, the clarity of the roles and functions of each person, the clarity of the duality of the role in the minds of the participants. With these concerns alleviated co-facilitation has the potential of creating a much richer learning experience for participants.

Resistance is a normal phenomenon under the conditions which exist in workshops and should be recognized, accepted and understood. If a workshop is to be successful "resistance-like" behaviors must be dealt with in a sensitive manner -- the manner depending on the type of resistance.

The transformation of the workshop over the years from the long summer event to the short, intensive "laboratory-like" experience confined to one day, a weekend or a week has special implications for planning and design. Planners/facilitators must give special consideration to the following:

1. The level of trust and acceptance between the leader and the participants. The accelerated pace and the

higher intensity of the experience necessitates greater attention.

2. The problems experienced between people who are involved in working in groups. Participants may bring personal problems with them to the workshop and these may interfere with their effective interpersonal relations in the group.

3. The resistance that some people have to "experiential" learning.

4. The capacity of some people for the assimilation of learnings in a short period of time.

5. The individual learning styles that people have developed and feel comfortable with.

6. The effects of the "safe place" of the workshop setting on the growth and development of participants. Some people will experience the setting as negative while others find it positive and growth producing.

7. The applications that the learner can make of the learnings in the back-home setting. Is the learning relevant to the job and the social situation of the participants? Is there an appropriate fit?

8. The level of competence of the leader/facilitator in working with groups of people.

9. The number of participants. Will the facilitator be able to make effective contact?

10. The effects of more than one facilitator on the group.

11. The level of expertise of the participants in the use of the workshop processes such as role-plays, simulations, etc.

12. The opportunity for follow-through on the workshop learnings to assist learners in implementing what they have learned.

A lack of attention to the foregoing factors will serve to negate the effect of the workshop. Practitioners must take responsibility for giving them consideration in their planning and design.

The survey of the literature, the survey of workshop practitioners and a lot of first-hand experience provide a sound background from which to derive a set of guiding principles for good workshop planning and design. These principles are as follows:

1. The workshop is literally a "shop" which has been deliberately planned and designed for working toward a precise set of objectives; it is a "laboratory-like" setting where people can engage in multi-activities for a short period of time to derive new skills, new knowledge and new attitudes.

2. The workshop has a special structure which allows for sequencing of activities so that one builds upon another, thus creating a flow to the learning.

3. A workshop involves participants in working up to 80% of their time. Facilitator presentations and interventions are limited to 20% of the time.

4. There is sufficient free time allocated in a workshop for individualization and assimilation of learnings and to reduce fatigue.

5. Small groups are the essence of workshops.

6. The learning in a workshop is not only in the doing of an exercise, but in the experience of analyzing what went on during the "doing"; what happened to the learner during the activity.

7. Assigned tasks in a workshop are achievable in a short time frame.

8. There are no required assignments, papers, reports

or readings unless the workshop is "ongoing".

9. The design of the workshop is completed in full detail before the workshop is held. Changes are negotiated with participants only as necessary to resolve problems which may interfere with work toward the objectives.

10. A "live in" arrangement for participants will heighten the impact of the workshop learning.

11. Time devoted to an orientation session at the beginning of a workshop will lessen the chances of resistance occuring.

12. Time devoted to teaching workshop methods before they are applied if the group in unfamiliar with such methods (e.g. role plays, simulations, etc.) will enhance learning.

13. Evaluation which is incorporated into the learning experiences will provide valid data from which to build more effective workshops.

A sample workshop design incorporating these principles is provided in Appendix I (pp. 170-179).

Conclusions

This study was a descriptive investigation of the workshop approach as a teaching/learning strategy. It aimed to create a body of information about the workshop which was not otherwise available in the literature. It aimed to place the workshop approach in proper perspective among the other teaching/learning devices available for the

inservice continuing education of teachers and counselors.

The results of the study serve to confirm that the workshop is the most effective strategy available to us today when it is carefully planned well designed and properly facilitated. The term "workshop" can only be misunderstood by those who are unfamiliar with its basic underlying theories, principles and processes.

The workshop provides for high experience and immediate feedback for participants in a supportive setting where risk-taking and openness can be established norms. Change in participants' attitudes, skills and knowledge can be brought about in the enriched environment created where the learning needs are expressed as precise learning objectives; where activities are closely related to the achievement of the objectives; where time and opportunities are provided for practice and assimilation of learnings; where participants are given responsibility for their own learnings; where participants are recognized as prime resources for learning; and where the facilitator works from a solid base in adult learning theory, principles and practices as well as genuineness as a person.

The study shows that the term "workshop" is not a generic one for any meeting of people for purposes of learning. The word has special meaning in a special set of strategies -- a technology -- that has evolved over the years and is being applied with outstanding results.

Recommendations

With this groundwork accomplished further work is now needed to improve the application of the workshop technology in the in-service continuing education of teachers and counselors in British Columbia. It is the personnel in the universities and teachers' associations who are in the unique position to influence the "upgrading" of the use of the workshop. It is these people who have the funds, the time and the expertise to remedy the deficiencies which exist in the application of the workshop as a learning/teaching device. To go on as they have done for many years allowing anyone to conduct "workshops" is to relinquish their responsibility to have a significant impact on the growth and development of teachers and counselors.

In-service education programs will be greatly improved when efforts are made by the agencies mentioned to exercise control over the use of the workshop by their representatives through the formulation of policies and procedures which will restrict the use of the workshop to those people who have proven that they have the appropriate credentials -- the training, the background knowledge and the personal attributes to be working with people in such intense ways.

Practitioners must also assume responsibility for setting higher standards by developing expertise in the use of the workshop technology through extensive and intensive ongoing training and study.

To achieve what is implied in the foregoing recommendations will require agencies and individuals to "take stock" to establish a base from which to build. To give this process impetus an Inventory of Skills and Abilities for Practitioners has been developed and is included as Appendix F (pp. 162-164); A Personal and Professional Growth Program Outline has been prepared and is included as Appendix G (pp. 165-166); and A Workshop Planning and Design Checklist has been prepared and is included as Appendix H (pp. 167-169). These materials will have served their purpose if they stimulate the thought and action necessary for the upgrading that must begin with all agencies and individuals.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER TO ACCOMPANY SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

May 22, 1979.

I am currently engaged in the process of collecting, analyzing and synthesizing data on the "workshop" as a teaching-learning strategy in the pre-service and in-service education of teachers and counsellors. The study is intended to provide a history of the development of the workshop strategy, a summary of the learning theory that provides the base for effective workshops, a discussion of presentation techniques that may be unique to workshops, an analysis of the use of structured experiences and instruments, and evaluation methods for workshops.

A study of this nature will provide teachers and counsellors in British Columbia's schools, and members of the faculties in the universities, with valuable information to be used in the planning, design and evaluation of the workshop method, which is widely used in B.C., particularly in continuing education programs for teachers.

As part of the study, I want to include information from people who plan, design and conduct workshops on a regular basis. To gather this information I have designed the enclosed questionnaire which I would like you to complete and return to me by June 30, 1979.

While this is not an anonymous study per se I do want to preserve your right to keep the responses anonymous in the final document if you wish. The statement at the end of the questionnaire is provided for this purpose.

A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience in returning the questionnaire.

Thank you for your assistance. I look forward to your reply.

Yours sincerely,

Roy B. Ronaghan,
Professional Development,
B.C. Teachers' Federation.

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA
P.O. BOX 1700, VICTORIA, BRITISH COLUMBIA, CANADA V8W 2Y2
TELEPHONE (604) 477-6911, TELEX 049-7222

Faculty of Education

May 22, 1979.

Enclosed you will find a letter of introduction and a brief survey designed by Roy Ronaghan, who is studying the workshop as a teaching-learning strategy. We are both genuinely concerned with maximizing adult learning, and would appreciate your replies to this survey. We are hoping to obtain a 100% return rate so that the findings of the study will be based on a thorough exploration of the field.

I believe this study is an exceptionally important one and is designed in a way to make a significant contribution to learning about learning. I hope you share this desire, and will take the time to complete the survey.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

Rey A. Carr, Ph.D.,
Associate Professor.

RAC/slc

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

Purpose: To assess the "workshop" as a teaching/learning strategy for teachers and counsellors.

An answer sheet accompanies this set of questions. Please use it to record your thoughts, feelings and perceptions about workshops based on your experience in planning, designing and conducting them.

Working Definition
The term "workshop" covers a broad scope in the literature being published today. Has the term become a generic one for any *meeting* arranged for purposes of learning? When you hear the term "workshop" what things do you think of? What special associations do you make?

Learning Theories
What adult learning theories do you emphasize in your workshop designs and strategies?

Strategies
What strategies do you use that are most effective in providing for *skill learning, knowledge learning* and *attitude learning*?

Limitations
What limits would you place on the workshop approach as a teaching/learning strategy?

Leader Background and Experience
What essential background experiences should workshop leaders have to be effective in their roles as leaders/facilitators? What depth of experience is necessary for them in the human relations field?

Co-Facilitation
What are your views on co-facilitation of workshops? Are there special considerations for the facilitators? . . . the participants?

Resistance
Workshop leaders will likely experience responses to activities that are sometimes called resistance behaviors. What is your working definition of "resistance"? What are obvious or subtle indicators of resistance? What do you do about them?

Evaluation
What priority do you give to the evaluative process in workshops? What evaluatory exercises have you found to be most interesting and useful?

APPENDIX D

RESPONSE SHEET
Questionnaire to assess the "workshop" as a teaching/learning strategy. *Code No. ____

Working Definition

Learning Theories

*The code number at the top of this page is for purposes of keeping track of returned and non-returned surveys.

Strategies

Limitations

Leader Background and Experience

Co-facilitation

Resistance

Evaluation

I hereby grant permission to be quoted in any written document which may be prepared as a result of this study.

Signature of Respondent

APPENDIX E

RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE

Working Definition

The term "workshop" covers a broad scope in the literature being published today. Has the term become a generic one for any meeting arranged for the purposes of learning? When you hear the term "workshop" what things do you think of? What special associations do you make?

Respondent 1

I associate the term "workshop" with learning and personal growth. I expect from a workshop new information, chances to personally integrate the information, contact with the leader and the participants to enrich the workshop experience.

A meeting for the purposes of learning must include didactic information but does not need to include the relational, subjective part that for me is a workshop.

Respondent 2

I hope the term "workshop" has not become a generic one for any "meeting". To me, a workshop is distinguished by active involvement of participants, either as individuals or small groups. The leader is more of a facilitator than a lecturer. The learning method is likely to be "do-look-learn" or experientially based. There is likely to be some "hands-on" activity and the participant should take something of a practical nature away with him/her. I don't see this as being accomplished in less than two hours. The focus is usually on how to use or develop concepts or techniques.

Respondent 3

Workshop = learning by doing; combining theory with active participation from those attending; leader being more facilitator than expert; informal; newsprint; using the collective energy of the group to arrive at solutions, strategies, action steps; the use of lectures, small group discussions, simulations, paper-pencil instruments; skill practice.

Respondent 4

A place where tools will be provided and participants will be instructed in their use and be encouraged and given time to build something for themselves.

Associations:
- level of participation greater than a lecture.
- short-term, usually measured in hours or days.
- specific subject or focus.

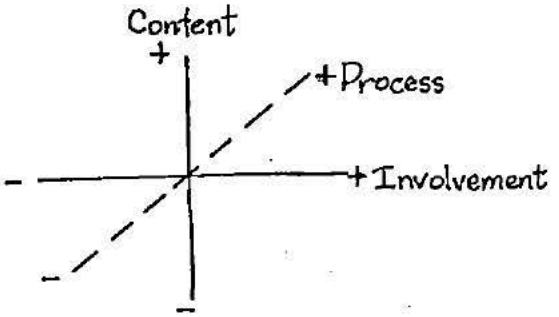
Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Working rather than shopping.
Labor rather than oratory.
Experiential learning.
Adults learning. Workshops are not for kids.
Specifiable objectives, stated beforehand.
Three types of objectives: concept learning, skills learning, attitude learning.
Leadership as facilitation. The leader orchestrates the work.
There are sharp differences among the seminar, clinic, personal growth group and the workshop.
In a workshop the participants do a lot of work.
Seminar: All data comes from the learners. They teach each other from their own experience. Seminar leaders facilitate discussion.
Clinic: A clinic implies presentation and demonstration. It's a "show and tell" time. It is teacher centered. It is compressed in time.
Personal growth group: Unstructured at the beginning. The group determines its own structure and the facilitator sponsors consciousness raising. Facilitator participates as a full member.
Course: Implies credits and evaluation of students by instructor. Implies institutional abjectives. The leader has multiple roles including participation: presentation, conducting, evaluating, and facilitating.

Respondent 6

A meeting which encourages "active" involvement. There is also an attempt to make the content relevant to the personal concerns of each participant. It is basically just "good" teaching over a sustained period of time. See Hall's learning model.

Hall's Learning Model



Respondent 7

The term workshop implies more participation of the learner to me. It suggests problem-solving, practical application, interpersonal exchange of knowledge, attitudes, experiences, skills.

Respondent 8

I can't think of anything that one can expect for sure as a workshop. The word was used with the onset of highly experiential programs, as they became popular, yet the word was used before and since for cognitive programs. It also suggests a unit of learning confined to one period -- weekend, day, whatever -- but one hears of "ongoing workshops".

There is also a tendency to highlight the specific teacher. One might hear that _____ was doing a workshop and plan to go, instead of "there is going to be a workshop on the subject of _____" and plan to go, but this too has many exceptions.

Non-credit, or not part of a larger program is also common but not universal.

Respondent 9

1. Generic for any meeting arranged for the purpose of learning? No. I can think of learning meetings (e.g., conference lecture sessions) that I could not call workshops.

2. "Workshop" -- I think of skill building; experiential learning design.

Respondent 10

Involvement of participants < pairs, trios, small groups) Sometimes sharing feelings, opinions, experiences.

Experience shared.

Hands-on learning environment where participants learn by doing, be experiencing, by trying new behaviors and getting peer and instructor feedback.

Talking time 30% instructor/facilitator and 70% participants.

Input by leader and by group.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

The term workshop is generic. There is a gathering of people, a leader, an objective, and an experiential learning base.

The workshop is a concentrated learning experience. It is a place and environment that facilitates work.

An encounter group is a workshop because it is an environment in which work is being done.

The work in a workshop depends on the objective.

An ongoing group is not a workshop.

The leader is part of the environment.

My preference is: 20 or fewer people; experiential base; clear objectives; well thought out structure or lack of structure.

Respondent 12

I seem to use the term workshop for any short (2-5 day) meeting for the purpose of training/learning. It still carries implications for me of a "hands-on", practical, experiential event and therefore I prefer it to terms such as seminar, training event, symposium, conference, etc.

I expect that for some clients symposium or seminar might carry a bit more status and therefore be preferable.

Respondent 13

The term "workshop" has been widely used to describe a variety of activities. Consequently, the term is confusing to people who are deciding on whether or not to participate in a learning activity. A person must look at all of the dimensions of the activity before deciding on participation. I have been asked to do workshops which range from two hours

to two weeks in length. Length of time to meet is certainly not a discriminator. Other terms may more adequately describe the learning activity and expected outcomes for participants.

Respondent 14 (Group)

We use the terms lecture, panel, symposium, seminar and workshop. These are not interchangeable. The critical criteria are the active involvement of participants in the learning of new skills, and the application of these skills to daily living and/or the classroom. To us, the lecture, symposium, panel and seminar are most often intellectually loaded; the focus is on content, the expectation is that participants will change attitudes and behavior through the intellectual internalization of knowledge. The workshop, by comparison, provides for knowledge and conceptualization, but as such demands active demonstration of the skills required to apply the knowledge and skills. An essential ingredient is feedback permitting the participant to more and more closely approximate "perfection" in the behavior.

Respondent 15

The term has broadened to become almost generic, but I think most people see it as a meeting of perhaps no more than 25-35 persons with some degree of flexibility and structure and primary emphasis on learning by doing, including significant inputs from the participants and the exchange of ideas and experiences among them. It is generally presumed that the majority of participants bring to the meeting a basis of knowledge and experience around which development can take place.

Unfortunately, the term has some unfavorable connotations suggesting minimal substance and perhaps more common reassurance and support than significant growth. I see publicity offering workshops ranging from the most simple and elementary skills to programs that border on psychotherapy.

Learning Theories

What adult learning theories do you emphasize in your workshop designs and strategies?

Respondent 1

I move on two tracks: 1) Relational exercises planned around didactic information which includes the following (the order is important). Past personal history, present situation, future dreams. Each exercise progresses from non-threatening data toward higher risk. I believe that the degree of openness is based on the modelling of the teacher.

I utilize positive strokes and stroke exercises to reinforce people so they are more open to learning.

2) Processing information is based on a pattern of clarifying information, stating feelings, examining insights, and finally focussing on a plan of action.

Respondent 2

I suppose you're looking for something like Madeline Hunter's model here. I subscribe to it for some workshop designs. For others, I subscribe to structured experiences with what amounts to "instructional input" coming near the end of the session. A basic tenet of the workshop is learning by doing.

Respondent 3

Basically I believe that adults learn best by doing; deductive learning. Providing conceptual links to experiencing is critical. Creating a psychologically safe environment where people experience that the learning event is a safe one for them is combined by my "pushing" people "10-15%" beyond the comfort zone. Learning takes place via confrontation with support.

Respondent 4

Behavioral.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Learning is a relatively simple change in behavior.

Learning is:
1) Discovering concepts. (See '79 Annual on Role Playing).

2) Integrating concepts. A didactic learning theory. Lecturing or other methods may be used: model building (teaching "how to" build models).

3) Changing attitudes. Experimenting with behavior as in the personal growth group or role playing. (See experiential learning theory.)

4) Skills learning. Practicing with a knowledge of results and positive reinforcement when well done. Micro progress is made.

Respondent 6

Modelling.

Respondent 7

Experiential based learning.

Confluent (affective and cognitive) theory.

Andragogy -- Malcolm Knowles; Whitehead.

Respondent 8

I don't. Learning theories suggest, to me, taking over and manipulating the group a lot more than I do.

If it's learning theory to say people learn more of what they DO than what they HEAR --

or that didactic input is useful when it fills a vacuum created by the situation, --

that's my theory.

Respondent 9

Experiential learning theory for skill building.

Assimilation of knowledge for cognitive input.

Respondent 10

People learn by:
- seeing
- doing and hearing and seeing and saying
- hearing
- reading

Anxiety can inhibit learning. I do put much effort into helping a non-defensive and open and cooperative climate to

to emerge in my workshops.

People can learn a fantastic amount if they perceive it as being relevant to their purpose.

Begin to teach anyone from where they are.

People can only learn as much as they are ready to learn.

People need support back on the job to implement new behaviors.

On-the-job follow-up is essential. (I have not succeeded in doing this in most cases in my work with industry. I am striving to do it more)

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

Learning is individual.

The difference between children learning and adults learning is that children are less sophisticated and less demanding.

People learn a lot from one another.

The most effective learning is through experience; cognitive as well as affective.

A multi-sensory nature will give assurance of learning results.

Adults like to know "what they are doing" and "why". Objectives must be clearly and openly stated.

A sense of power comes from participation and real involvement. People are empowered by learning.

The depth of learning depends on the stage of readiness, but everyone learns in every situation.

Respondent 12

When I think of learning theories I think in terms of adults since that is the group I work with. I believe that adults learn somewhat differently from children.

My emphasis in designing is on:

- adults learn when they are involved - i.e., when they

have a part in determining the goals and the content as well as having an opportunity to participate in the learning.

- adults learn when the content meets a specific, current need which they have identified.
- adults have learned how to learn.
- learning is a basic need of adults.
- adults are able to make responsible choices for themselves.
- adults learn in many different ways, what works for one may not work for another; some learn by reading, some by observing, some by trial and error, some through the senses, etc.

Respondent 13

If there is a particular learning theory to which I adhere, it is more related to the research and writings of Carl R. Rogers. His beliefs about people and how they learn best stemmed from psychotherapy, but what he learned in providing psychotherapy lays the groundwork for the facilitation of learning in classrooms and other settings. My learning activity designs are usually focused on helping the individual realize his/her own potential/power and become more self-directed in learning and in life.

Respondent 14 (Group)

Adult learning: Designs are created that respond to the learning theories as outlined by Kidd, J. Roby (1959), Knowles, M.S. (1970), Miller, H.L. (1964), Rogers, C.R. (1959), McClelland, D.D. (1965). Crucial characteristics of adults to be considered in adults as compared to children are self-concept (responsible, self-directing, independent), accumulation of experience, readiness to learn, and time perspective.

Learning models: Predominantly experiential (Kolb -- in Cooper, Theory of Group Process (1975), and providing for information processing, or conceptualization as required. Renzin: Experience, Identification, Analysis, Generalization, and Application). The Laboratory Model, NTL.

Training models: Include knowledge and conceptualization modelling, practice, practice with feedback and planning for transfer.

Respondent 15

My experience indicates that people learn more effectively and change most productively when provided opportunity to participate actively in the development and application of theory. Increasingly I tend to use activities, problems, tasks (both individual and group) and projects as a foundation for helping participants come to understand and internalize the theories and concepts being considered. Where participants are lacking in experience or theoretical background I may operate deductively, presenting substantive foundation material and then providing application experiences.

Whenever possible I try to follow up over time with additional meetings, workshops or training sessions to reinforce and supplement whatever has been developed in the earlier sessions.

Obviously it is inefficient to expect participants to discover or inductively develop complex information and relationships. Their lectures, readings, etc. must preceed activity. However, I think we err on the side of too much telling and too little doing.

Strategies

What strategies do you use that are most effective in providing for skill learning, knowledge learning and attitude learning.

Respondent 1

I believe in the small group process; a group of 12 to 20 broken down into groups of 8 or 4. The small group reports insights back to the larger group. The small group keeps the same members through the workshop for added safety and trust.

I use varied techniques to communicate with each individual's primary representational channel:

visual - blackboard and posters
auditory - clear words and information
kinesthetic - small group contact and non-verbal exercises

I plan small group exercises to practice new skills, knowledge and attitudes each time processing the insights as a whole group.

I believe that the workshop leader needs to model, demonstrate the techniques that he is teaching.

Respondent 2

Films, tapes, overhead transparencies, role play, structured experiences, worksheets (in some cases), small group and large group discussion.

Respondent 3

A combination of:

Reading, lectures, open discussion, case studies, role play, instruments, structured experience, small intensive groups.

Respondent 4

These are given in sequence:

skill learning - modelling -→ practicing -→ positive feedback and encouragement to try again -→ homeword.

knowledge learning - short lecture to give information -→ demonstration -→ practice or discussion groups -→ repetition of principles.

attitude learning - give information -→ then small discussion group -→ then large discussion group led by leader to emphasize desired attitudes.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Reading, lecture experiential lecture, group discussion, participation training (group discussion on a topic with functional roles), case study, role playing (acted out case study), instrumentation structured experiences, intensive growth group (on personal issues).

Respondent 6

Experiences that encourage involvement.

Respondent 7

Skill learning - behavioral (humanistic based).

Knowledge learning - didactic, didactic/experiential,

self-directed/proactive.

Attitude learning - experience based learning, internal/external values examination and prioritization (humanistic and transpersonally based).

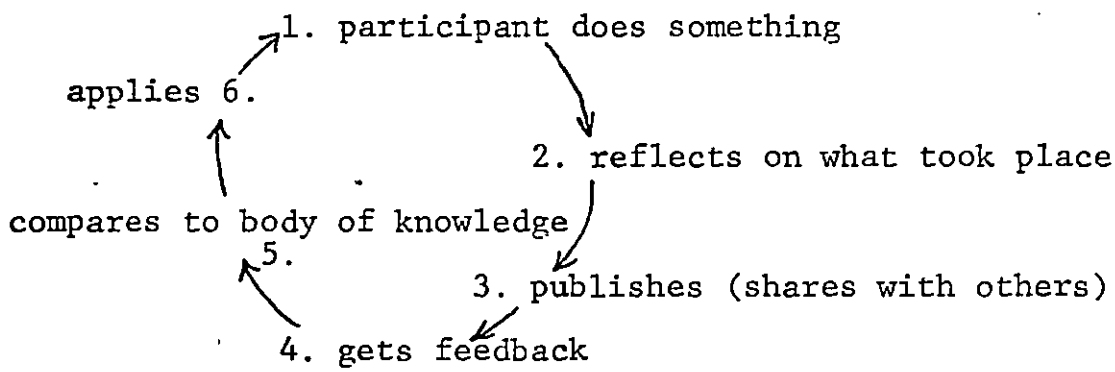
Respondent 8

I use simulations extensively -- putting the person in a situation as closely similar, experientially, as possible to the subject under study. I also add role-reversal maneuvers.

I usually try to make most of the workshop, as a series of interactions, set up by me for a specific result, carried out in dyads, quartets or whatever, and when I don't tell them what results to expect.

Respondent 9

A. Skill learning and attitude learning: a DO, LOOK, LEARN approach



B. Knowledge learning: step #5 with discussion.

Respondent 10

a) Skill Learning

Simulated situations where they DO it. Get feedback: video, peers, instructor.
Often the participant develops the situation -- simulating his job environment.
Role plays.

b) Knowledge Learning

Simultations, role reversale (like in assertive training), films and discussion, lecturettes, handouts and

articles, input from participants, case studies and discussions, problem-solving exercises.

c) Attitude Learning

Simulations, role plays, instructional games and feedback, "T-group" climate in small groups, case studies, questionnaires.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

Intragroup processes are essential.

Interaction.

Enjoyment.

Whole group interaction, small groups, dyads.

Respondent 12

My personal preference is for experiential learning as often as possible. For learning a skill -- there doesn't seem to be a much better way than practice with opportunity to evaluate the experience.

I encourage people to set their own learning goals and to monitor their learning regularly either through the use of a journal or meeting with a partner.

For knowledge and attitude learning I use a combination of theory presentation, structured experiences and instruments. I have also found that helping people to develop a skill in both offering and asking for quality feedback, enhances learning a great deal -- its also a very difficult skill to learn!

Respondent 13

In my learning activities for others, I use a number of strategies for experiential learning. These structured strategies build around the idea of helping the learner discover his/her own potential and knowledge from his/her own life experiences. When I use skill learning, it is systematic in terms of reaching for selected learning, it is systematic in terms of reaching for selected outcomes. These outcomes are ones which the learners seek. But the movement in a set of learning activities is always away from instructor designed structure to learner designed experiences.

Respondent 14 (Group)

There is no way to separate skills, knowledge and attitude learning -- all are part of each. Having said that, there are ways to approach activity in which each is separately the goal of the moment.

Skill: modelling, or demonstration, followed by practice, and practice with feedback. Feedback is offered via observer or audio tape, or videotape. Videotape has the higher impact.

Knowledge: Multi-media presentations
Chalk-talks
Inquiry
Group and individual research
Observation

All presentations are brief, focused, and are followed by group discussion and internalization. A useful device is fantasy: "If I applied this knowledge, I would begin to be . . ., to think . . ..

Attitude: Activities that provide an opportunity to feel dissonance.

Respondent 15

My work involves relatively little skill learning except as it relates to skills in communication and interpersonal relations. In those areas I emphasize problems, experiences, and follow-up projects. Where there is complex interrelated knowledge to be mastered, I use readings, explanations and discussions with a heavy emphasis on feedback mechanisms that will provide checks for both the participant and the leader concerning the degree of mastery. Attitude change and attitude learning is best approached through situational experience and feedback that rewards change. Personally, I find the Sherif, Sherif & Nebergall approach, using latitudes of acceptance, rejection and tolerance the best theoretical foundation. I place little confidence in verbal or pencil and paper responses as measures of attitude change. I try to create situations that demonstrate the need for change and then reward the behaviors that accompany them.

Limitations

What limits would you place on the workshop approach as a teaching/learning strategy?

Respondent 1

Time: The longer the workshop, the more intense the internalization of the information and the growth.

The Real World: The workshop is a rarified atmosphere, a "safe place"; the world is often hostile to change and to new learnings.

The Individual: Each individual participant is at a different stage of readiness for new strategies; each must move at his/her own pace.

Respondent 2

I would put time limitations, as mentioned earlier. If working with the same group over a period of time, I would also recognize design limitations; i.e., the same approach to everything becomes boring. There are also content limitations. The workshop is not the most expeditious vehicle for certain types of learning.

Respondent 3

It's based on the assumption that people are there by choice if this model of learning is to work effectively. Limitations are also reflected in the facilitator's competence to intervene appropriately in the life of the learning group.

Respondent 4

Short time span usually means limited subject presentation.

Many workshops are offered in one concentrated time. e.g., one day, one weekend -- which doesn't give enough time for participants to question presented principles.

Presentation is often convincing enough for participants to desire the proposed behavior changes, but without respect for the gradual process that change requires and the instruction and feedback that may be necessary, they are likely to feel like "failures" when they cannot achieve what they admired.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Deal with problems of persons. The workshop is not a place to deal with systems problems.

It may not be possible to simulate social situations of participants.

Other limitations:

Participant expectations, institutional pressures, time, money, opportunity for follow-through, impact on persons when there is little opportunity for future contact, skill and personal attributes of facilitator.

Respondent 6

It is suited to most types of learning

Respondent 7

1. Amount of personal development, training of workshop facilitator.
2. Size of group.
3. Physical facilities -- need to be congruent with aims of workshop approach.
4. Culture in which one is working.
5. Interpersonal skills of participants.

Respondent 8

I have been unable to limit the term, thus I am really not able to limit its usefulness. If the workshop is a "one-shot" session, a danger is that the results look very good at the end of the workshop, but might not look so good later, after the enthusiasm cools down.

Respondent 9

Voluntary attendance.
Workshops are not cost effective for transmitting large bodies of knowledge -- conferences serve this purpose.

Respondent 10

You cannot perfectly simulate the job situation. On the job consultation has this advantage.

Participant can appear somewhat different when at a workshop, especially a short one (hide the negative perhaps).

Workshop can be a "high" and important experience and the effect can "wear off" without proper follow-up and reinforcement.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

A workshop is not an efficient way to impart statistical information.

Some skills might be learned better on a one-to-one basis. Is the skill best learned in a group environment?

Participants need experience in the "workshop process" and structure. The experiential focus of a workshop may interfere with learning, e.g., people must learn how to brainstorm before the can be asked to do it. Education is required on how the individual can use the workshop process to increase learning. "Scrambling" to learn processes and apply them interferes with learning.

Respondent 12

For me in my business as an external consultant/ trainer the biggest limitation is that the workshop is an isolated experience. Often the person comes along from his dept. or office with little or no support from either his/ her superior or peers. So there is little opportunity for the person to implement any learnings following the event.

In addition the experience is often out of context in the sense that it may not apply to the person's work setting.

It is difficult to build in follow-up opportunities, ongoing support and methods to continue the learnings after the workshop. The person feels "turned on" to something, but is parachuted back behind the lines and abandoned.

Respondent 13

A key difficulty in a workshop approach is the lack of follow-up to aid the learner in implementing all components covered in the workshop. A second difficulty is that most workshop leaders attempt to cover too many concepts and skills, thus, not doing an effective, thorough presentation of any concepts and skills.

Respondent 14

My definition of "workshop" incorporates its own limits. I would use a workshop approach when the goal was to change behavior, or teach new ones. A failing in our planning is usually that we try to support change in behavior, and cannot, or do not take enough time.

Respondent 15

These are implied in much that has been stated above. Workshops or group sessions are likely to be unproductive if (a) there is a fundamental ignorance of foundation information, (b) absence of motivation, (c) inexperience with the method of technique, and (d) inexperience and/or unskilled leadership. On the other hand, knowledgeable and motivated people can pool their knowledge with the expectation of increased productivity. We discuss this rather extensively in Harnack Fest & Jones, GROUP DISCUSSION, Second Edition.

Leader Background and Experience

What essential background experiences should workshop leaders have to be effective in their roles as leaders/facilitators? What depth of experience is necessary for them in the human relations field?

Respondent 1

My basic premise is that the leader can only be effective up to his own wholeness; an autonomous leader affords a powerful model for the workshop participants.

I believe a leader needs considerable training in basic human behavior, such as Transactional Analysis. The leader also needs skills in communications theories. The leader needs to model each principle he teaches; this modelling is the most powerful teaching device I know.

Respondent 2

It depends on the topic and the structure of the workshop. At a minimum, the leader/facilitator should have a good grounding in interpersonal communication and group process. If the workshop is to focus on process as well as content, then I believe depth of experience in the human relations field is necessary. In cases where the workshop is content-centered, a good grasp of the content area is also desirable.

Respondent 3

Participation in personal growth labs (T-group); co-facilitation with someone more experienced; psychological health (the most critical); presence in a group (charisma);

The capacity to confront what is; competence to change in the middle of the design.

Respondent 4

First: Workshop participation as participant for own personal growth.

Second: Understanding of:
a) individual change process,
b) group process,
c) effective teaching aids.

Third: Internship. Experience is gained by doing, but the responsibility of a workshop leader is so great that one cannot suggest that beginners will just have to learn with time and group hours. A supervised intern program would be one way of gaining experience.

Depth? I don't have enough experience in setting educational guidelines to say. Depends on the person learning and the subject to be taught.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

"Human relations start in the womb."

Givens:
Content current and credible; methods and style current and credible.

The effective workshop facilitator must:

be a person: empathy, congruence, acceptance, rigidity.

possess skills: designing, facilitating, listening, presenting, evaluating.

have a repertoire of techniques: verbal and nonverbal exercises.

have a theoretical base for what he/she does: learning, individual development, group dynamics.

Respondent 6

Good teacher.

Respondent 7

1. Commitment to personal growth -- personal/professional.

2. Commitment to self-directed learning process.

3. Experience depends on interrelationship between participants and facilitator/leader -- more experienced, "sophisticated" participants -- more experienced, "sophisticated" leader required. This is based on assumption of a mutual learning process.

Respondent 8

As "human relations" is mentioned here, it narrows the field a whole lot. People leading human relations workshops need to have a great deal of depth of skill and that can be learned. They also have to be dealing from a "together" "non-defensive" and "self-accepting" position. Since these don't seem to be measurable in any satisfactory way, the unqualified will continue to lead H.R. workshops. These have a great appeal to people acting to serve personal needs. The trainer's position is greatly envied by the members -- he gets admiration -- even love, and often everyone in the group would like to lead the next session.

Respondent 9

Understanding of group development, conflict management, learning theories, instructional design.

I think leaders should apprentice with an experienced facilitator and have a systematic learning/feedback loop built into the process of learning.

Respondent 10

I will identify the qualities (characteristics):

Acceptance of people where they are.
Knowledge of workshop design (behavioral objectives, pacing, etc.).
Knowledge of group dynamics.
Knowledge of change and resistance to change.
Knowledge of basic learning theory; classroom management; instructional techniques.
Listening skills and skills of giving and receiving feedback.
Sense of self; awareness of self; good self-concept; maturity in the best sense of the word.
Competence in the field they are teaching or leading.

It is very difficult to say where anyone develops these or what experiences would guarantee them.

Possible experiences: Training labs, i.e. NTL labs; organizational behavior programs at universities or institutes; widely read and up to date on current literature; encounter groups; a variety of life experiences; monitored practice as a facilitator or leader; frequent feedback from client participants and from colleagues who 'sit in' on workshops.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

The workshop leader doesn't have to be an expert. The art is in getting people to "pull out" their own learnings.

An essential ingredient for the leader is to have participated in a lot of groups. Some people are "naturals"; they don't need leadership training.

Being clear about who you are and why you are there. A screwed up leader will come across screwed up. It's personal qualities and abilities that are critical. It's "contactfullness". It's being fully present with people and not playing a role.

Respondent 12

Training as a trainer and designer of learning experiences.
Expertise in the subject area.
Love for and sensitivity toward people.
Sense of humor.
Willingness to risk, experiment, make mistakes.

I think that at least basic personal growth or human relations experience is necessary if the learning experience is experiential. Learning is enhanced when people are enabled to encounter each other, when the facilitator is sensitive to what might be happening to individuals in the group, and when the facilitator is aware of their own feelings and wants and is able to express these.

Respondent 13

Background and experience for leaders depends primarily on the goals and objectives of the workshop. But for most workshop experiences, much background is needed in presentation of information, facilitation of learning processes, observation of interactive processes, application of intervention processes, evaluation of outcomes, etc. Perhaps facilitators should receive supervision in workshop preparation and presentation before going "solo".

Respondent 14 (Group)

Researchers theorize, with some data, that it takes five years of accumulated training, and trials in various situations to ensure that a leader can be client centered in his/her approach. Accumulated training, in my view, would include experiential laboratories in personal growth, group development, learning experience, design, the knowledge and skills of the particular topic i.e., counseling, supervision, models of teaching/learning, etc.

To fulfill the role of leader, having accomplished the personal and professional growth, would require a time of internship -- that is, acting as co-leader with a competent other person.

Leader development succeeds or fails on the ability of the prospective leader to internalize the essence of leadership -- i.e., empathy, trust genuineness as Carkhuff describes it, or client-centered, as Rogers says. Too often leaders espouse a "theory" and in fact do not behave accordingly.

Respondent 15

What qualities should a workshop leader or facilitator possess:

A. Some experience as a participant or member in such a situation.
B. Confidence in the abilities of people and in potential for productive and creative effort.
C. Reasonable skill in human relations, i.e., communication objectivity, listening ability, and the like.
D. Patience to await developments rather than forcing them.
E. The ability to handle feedback, including both overt and covert evidences of confusion, resistance, hostility and the like with capacity to manage one's own ego and derive satisfaction from the contributions and growth as observed in others.

In summary, this is not something that is learned by simply reading a book. There has to be sensitivity, insight, and humility as well as confidence in one's self and one's workshop design.

Co-Facilitation

What are your views on co-facilitation of workshops? Are there special considerations for the facilitators? . . . the participants?

Respondent 1

I would need to plan with, respect, and vibe with my co-leader.

Respondent 2

I'm for it, if the facilitators work well togeths and capitalize on each other's strengths. If it becomes a Huntley-Brinkley dialogue just for the sake of having two bodies present, the results are less than desirable. Co-facilitation after experiencing the workshop itself is a good way of training trainers.

Respondent 3

I believe it doubles the effectiveness of the event, potentially. 1 + 1 = > 2 if the two people have their act together.

Special consideration: each facilitator must allow his/her partner to be different if that is the case.
Critical: co-facilitator issues don't get worked in depth during the workshop.

Respondent 4

I approve.

Facilitators can take turns concentrating on content and group process, so that both are continuously dealt with.

When modelling desired behaviors, one has two -- or more -- role models for different styles. Greater chance of hearing and acknowledging individual's needs in the group.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Highly desirable; indispensible for professional development in conducting workshops; co-plan, co-conduct; debrief during and after.

Vital for large groups.
Open: It's OK to talk about it; solicit feedback
Good modelling of effective human relations
Requires deliberate attention.
May require team building.

Respondent 6

OK

Respondent 7 (Couple)

Co-facilitation for us is what we like most.

Special considerations: -clarity of relationship between co-facilitators, openness to work through conflicts, risk to expose self to other, examination of collusion issues.

-can provide one more person for participants to identify with, also participants can feel more uncomfortable with a team -- "mother-father transferences" (either m/m or m/f team).

Respondent 8

This can be a very good situation -- or terrible. There are as many co-facilitator relationship styles, as marriage styles. They may compete and take a heavy toll, they may act as though their one job was to prove how wonderful the real leader is, which is anti-productive, but they may be confident, and really confront each other and provide two solid positions and examples which helps group members see that there are more than one way.

One basic difference from one situation to the next has to be recognized: one model where they get together and map strategies between sessions, and another where all that is part of the training, and is done in the group.

Often, too, the group is confused as to whether there is a trainer and assistant, or two trainers. This must be made clear.

Respondent 9

Nice but not necessary for many workshops.

Best to have with OD efforts; working with an intact group dealing with conflict.

Not necessary for awareness sessions with a unified group of people.

Must have high trust/respect for each other; must plan together; have equal power (if male/female; white/minority); must debrief.

Respondent 10

It is excellent and time consuming (post and pre workshop hours) and very rich.

I often have a colleague do a workshop with me. The only reason we do not do it more often is a financial one. We work privately and it means one-half a fee instead of each doing a full fee each.

We still do it to learn from each other, pick up new ideas, and get valuable feedback.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

Like a good comedy team, unless they're really together the act will be a flop.

Choose a partner with whom you have spent time. Know each other. Have a clear set of objectives and a way of working (process) together. Roles should be clear.

Process what's going on openly.

Co-facilitation introduces a new dynamic. Perhaps one facilitator should be dominant. Co-facilitation may interfere with flexibility. Co-facilitation gives participants different input and feedback.

Respondent 12

YES! Always if possible -- especially if there are evening sessions or the event is longer than two days -- then co-facilitation is essential.

Two trainers can keep a higher level of energy in the group. Some people in the group will be able to relate to one more easily than the other. One trainer can always be sensitive to what it happening in the group and can flag issues that the up front person may not see.

Two bodies, heads, etc. are always better than one.

One side benefit has often been a modelling of how two people can work together.

Respondent 13

Co-facilitation is very desired when one person is learning from the other (assistant), when each facilitator offers different resources, when the scope of activities is too much for one person, when the activities call for varied viewpoints, when facilitators complement each others' styles of helping, etc. The participants can gain additional resources and help with co-facilitators; however, if the facilitators are not in tune with each other on the workshop process, they can confuse participants. Yet, differing facilitator viewpoints aid participants in seeing more than one side of issues.

Respondent 14 (group)

Co-facilitation is more effective than using only one facilitator and further co-ed facilitation is most effective in mixed groups.

Two facilitators can respond to a wider spectrum of needs in participants, they can integrate resources, they can give each other feedback on processes and interventions. In addition, if one leader is active the second can observe and intervene according to the perceived impact on the learners. Co-leaders can offer each other emotional support, if needed. Lippitt has found that participants will view one leader as "stronger" and one "weaker" regardless of leader capability, but that did not effect group growth. The caveat I apply is that co-leaders must have time to build their "team" before entering the workshop.

Respondent 15

Given the proper balance of abilities and interpersonal relationships between the co-leaders, this has great potential. There are individuals with whom I find it stimulating and productive to work. There are others (including some who write most extensively about this and how it should be done) who are total disasters in a collaborative situation. There must be a full sharing, a recognition of special expertise and skills and a willingness to acknowledge differences in points of view. These conditions must be communicated to the participants by behavior and not simply by statement. There are different types and levels of resistance behavior. Some may arise from insecurity on the part of new participants, lack of familiarity with the method, etc. Given effective leadership, these will gradually disappear as involvement increases. Another level of resistance represents challenges to the whole idea, design, method or the facilitator.

I attempt to deal with the latter by first proceeding with activities or problems in the hope that such involvement will demonstrate the value of the workshop. If hostility remains, I may attempt to deal with it in an open and frank manner. However, the best method I have found is to permit the workshop members themselves, the peers of those who are hostile, to deal with this either directly within the framework of the meeting or indirectly in the social contacts outside the meeting.

Resistance

Workshop leaders will likely experience responses to activities that are sometimes called resistance behaviors. What is your working definition of "resistance"? What are the obvious subtle indicators of resistance? What do you do about them?

Respondent 1

Resistance is poor pacing of the participant by the leader. Obvious resistance comes with hostile questions and interruptions; passive resistance is seen in withdrawal, physically or mentally.

To pace resistance I accept their version of reality and start from there; I become their resistance by telling them how I didn't like that either; I listen to them and respect them.

Respondent 2

I guess a general definition of resistance would be behavior by a participant that indicates that he/she is hesitant to take part. This might be demonstrated by opting out, by criticizing the activity, by questioning relevance, etc. The first thing would be to look at the design. Depending on the situation, I might ask others to share how they feel, discuss the purpose of the activity, etc. In some circumstances I might ignore it.

Respondent 3

Resistance is not having resolved who's in charge or who's responsible for what. Unresolved control issues. Other resistance is manifested when learner needs don't coincide with workshop goals.

Respondent 4

Healthy. Any important change is going to be difficult. Improving personal style is threatening. Taking changes gradually and molding them for personal fit is advisable.

Indicators: excessive questions; refusal to do suggested activity; wanting to theorize, not do; leaving to go to the bathroom as an activity begins.

I ... 1. give extra attention -- reassurance -- accept the indicator at face value but note behavior;
2. acknowledge behavior as resistance and re-explain my position;
3. confront it.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

What is it?	How does it manifest?
Passive	Slowness to follow directions. Moaning and groaning. Asking for clarification.
Active	"I don't want to do this". "I don't think we should have to do this" (an attack on the directions).

What do we do about it?

Resistance is reluctance -- a defensive behavior. Acknowledge it. Don't put people down. Don't argue. Negotiate within the limits that are negotiable.

To prevent resistance make all activities practical through a needs assessment and research on what's needed -- likely needed. Model emphasis on utility. Do your homework.

Remember, "I am not the target".

Work with people to find another way to express their anger.

Name the probably resistance in advance to defuse it. Close the escape routes. Take the resistance away.

"I'm bringing you the best thing that I can do. If you want to deal with it by resistance that's up to you. Today is a possibility for new learnings and I invite you to participate. Think of how you might be sabotaging yourself if you continue to resist."

Respondent 6

Deal directly with them as they occur.

Encourage.

Ignore if appropriate.

Respondent 7 (Couple)

Resistance is a behavior labelled by leaders when a participant experiences difficulty in learning something; reacts in a way that is counter to leader values or which the leader does not understand.

Obvious: withdrawal, "negativism", low energy, "spaced out", boredom, fatigue, lateness, etc.

Subtle: "being turned on", bodily presence, noise level, confusion, etc.

What we do depends on the situation. Basically we remain open to feedback.

Respondent 8

Resistance proves something's wrong. If a person is resisting in an H.R. workshop, he shouldn't have been forced to come, or he WANTS to move ahead, and is feeling pushed in addition. In my experience I have never found a person who wasn't trying to improve his H.R. skills in the workshop, although it always hasn't been immediately apparent. One of the most important skills of the trainer is to be sure that the group doesn't push people by setting norms or urging, or whatever.

Respondent 9

I haven't thought of defining resistance but it usually is a passive or active grab for control.

If passive (silence, low communication "show me" attitude) I describe what I see going on and ask the group what it wants to handle the situation. The same is true for active resistance -- a lot of clarification/concerns surfacing/ negotiation and clarity about my bottom line.

Respondent 10

Resistance is putting effort into avoiding.

What do I do about it?

Check out his/her needs and expectations for the workshop.
Listen to his/her feedback to me re the workshop.
Individualize the workshop to better suit their needs.

Indicators

No involvement.
Power moves against the leader and other group members.
Contradictory remarks made consistently.
Joking and getting off track.
"Yes, but".
Feigned misunderstanding.

To handle

Give direct feedback (usually privately or in a group feedback session allowing the person to save face).

Encourage peer feedback which usually results in similar comments.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

Know who the people are and how they work.

Resistance is an indication of threat. Defence is a way of coping with threat. Accept that people have resistances and avoid a blaming attitude. Be sensitive -- "melt the resistance" -- listen; act non-defensively. Cultivate a sense of humor. Use self-disclosure.

Respondent 12

Resistance for me comes from not wanting to be there in the first place, and is expressed in general resistance to the whole experience. This can come out in apathy, arguing, late arrival, missed sessions, lack of participation, challenging the process and/or content.

I distinguish this from resistance to participate in a particular activity and I respect the norm of voluntariness although I will encourage someone to risk.

I confront the resistant person or persons, alone at the first opportunity, attempt to determine what the resistance is about. This is sometimes all that is needed to come to a resolution. Other times I give the person permission to leave the workshop. Other times we work out some conditions for their participation which we can both live with. If I encounter a resistant group, then we talk about the resistance in the total group and attempt some resolution . . . e.g., given that you are here for four days, what could happen that would make this a worthwhile time for you.

Respondent 13 (paraphrased)

Resistance is often present in workshop conditions. And it's okay. Too often there is no attempt on the part of the facilitators to understand the resistance of a person(s). Sometimes resistance is nothing more than a choice of a participant and should be respected. Resistance to learning activities is usually for good reasons -- prior negative experience in learning activities. My first goal in working with resistance in people is to understand their experiences relating to the "resistant-like" behavior. If you tell me there is not enough time to understand resistance, I will say that there is little chance for a successful workshop.

Respondent 14 (group)

The following notes were made from a paper which was provided by the respondent.

Indicators of resistance: not responding to directions easily; consistently breaking into conversation pairs; making many trips to the coffee urn; requesting long breaks; discussing irrelevant personal concerns with leaders; using the excuse of "having to be present".

Dealing with resistance: being open; providing non-judgmental feedback; giving permission to try new behavior; being supportive; using low threat activities; moving toward higher threat activities as trust level increases.

Respondent 15

Refer to response under Co-facilitation (p. 151).

Evaluation

What priority do you give to the evaluative process in workshops? What evaluatory exercises have you found to be most interesting and useful?

Respondent 1

I give evaluation high priority. Workshop leaders need to evaluate during the workshop and make changes where indicated, and they need to evaluate at the end of the workshop . . . to grow from errors and to enjoy successes.

I often ask participants to fill out an evaluation questionnaire, which includes pluses, minuses, and ommissions, and ask them not to sign it so they will have more freedom with their answers. I sometimes have evaluation sessions verbally with participants, however, these eye-to-eye sessions too often end up praising the leader and omits constructive criticism.

Respondent 2

Again, the priority given to evaluation depends on the workshop and the number of times I have acted as a facilitator for it. What is the evaluation for? To improve design? To improve "warm fuzzies" for the facilitator? Having decided on the purpose to be served I like to keep evaluations as brief as possible: five minutes of discussion at the end or a simple form that requires no more than a few minutes to complete.

Respondent 3

Hardly any. It's important but comes later. To me it's a matter of what happens as a result, down the road.

Respondent 4

High priority.

Always: continual checking throughout workshop; group checking at close of each session.

Occasional: questionnaires at end of workshop; 3-4 week follow-up questionnaire (usually less flowery than immediate one); after a series of workshop days a follow-up workshop, e.g., 3-6 months later (Usually much lower key than

the series closed on) with a questionnaire as to principles taught earlier.

Respondent 5 (Interviewed)

Rationale:

Evaluation of learning for: participants, for facilitator, for improvement of design, for improvement of advertising, to protect the training politically, for system development, for quality control.

Participants: Self and peer evaluation if at all.

Facilitator: Impact of style by behavior; suggestions for the improvement of style.

Design: Concrete. What to keep; what to throw out; what to add; how to change the sequence.

Advertising: Impact on person; willingness to quote.

Protection: "Cover your ass"; ratings; end of course judgement about quality; body count.

System Development: To determine the level of human resource development with the system; to determine the level of functioning of participants.

Quality Control: To determine whether the workshop conducted by person "X" was up to standards: satisfaction 1-10; usefulness on job back home.

Respondent 6

Useful to have process as well as product evaluation.

Respondent 7 (Couple)

High priority.

Exercises built into learning process -- many of the University Associates type that add to and are part of the learning process; depends on experience and "sophistication" of leader and participants.

Our evaluation process begins in the first session.

Respondent 8

Emphasis on evaluation depends on many things -- whether I am evaluating the members, or I am evaluating my success, or they are getting further feedback on their performance.

I have devised an exercise called "goodbye forever" which calls on members to say what they would say if they were never going to see the other members again. From this it is apparent to the whole group, who has become authentic, and I am able to come up with a numerical ratio, representing each member's skills.

Respondent 9

I collect evaluation data after every session. In a series of sessions I collect after each mini session and post a summary of the results.

For service work I just ask (on paper) "What went well . . . Why? "What would you change . . . Why?

For workshops we are developing we use extensive cognitive/attitude measures on a pre-post basis.

Respondent 10

1. I am using pre-workshop knowledge and attitude questionnaire then I give the same questionnaire following the workshop. We discuss this.

2. Workshop critique form (it can be anonymous).

3. Oral evaluation and feedback.

4. Personnel department follow-up on the job next week; two months and six months later. (General report to me.)

5. Follow-up day three months after the week long workshop:
   What worked on the job? What didn't work?
   Group discussion for improving their job performance and the workshop itself.

Respondent 11 (Interviewed)

Allow time -- one hour for one day.

Draw out the positive and the negative: I regret . . .; I'm pleased that . . .. What are your major learnings?

Some written, some oral. Keep the evaluation open-ended.

If the objectives are modest the evaluation can be lighter.

All learnings can't be ascertained by the leader. Everyone learns at his/her own rate and in his/her own way.

The evaluation solidifies learning; brings about a sense of closure and purpose.

Respondent 12

I invite feedback on my facilitator style from time to time during the event, and I encourage participants to evaluate how they are doing in the process of achieving their learning goals and to make any adjustments they need to, including letting me know if there is a way that I can help.

At the end of the event the only formal evaluation I might do is in relation to the workshop goals that might be as simple as writing what helped us achieve the goals and what hindered.

I believe the best evaluation is an individual one done after the participant has returned to work and attempted to use workshop learnings. Only then can they assess whether the workshop has been valuable for them in meeting their specific needs. Unfortunately this is hard to administer and does not happen very often unless the individual takes the initiative.

Respondent 13

Assessment, as I call it, is crucial. It must be part of the process at all stages so that direction of the process can be changed, if necessary. Yet, I'm most interested in self-assessment, encouraging the individual to assess his/her own progress and make appropriate changes. I'm most interested in helping the individual discover and maintain his/her own personal power.

Respondent 14 (Group)

Evaluation is important as part of the learning. Evaluation is used to assist learners to clarify their own learnings. Descriptive statements, rather than scales or evaluative statements are asked for. Criteria like "successful conduct of three counselling sessions", or

completion of a "contract for behavior change" are used. We often ask participants to write a letter to themselves incorporating a summary of learnings and contracts, to be mailed by us to them six weeks later. Evaluations at workshop-end are measures of emotional state at that time -- we find that an additional measure, three months later, is most reliable. We often ask for feedback to leaders, as well.

Respondent 15

Evaluation is essential. At the same time it's tricky and often unreliable. I generally open a workshop by proposing an action plan which invites participants to select specific goals which they will attempt to implement immediately upon return to the work environment. I save time at the end for them to review individually and in small groups the goals or activities chosen and the means of implementing them. Sometimes I ask them to state these in open meeting as an additional inducement to follow through. The ultimate measure of a workshop or development session is what happens a week, a month, or a year after the session. At the same time, I use post-meeting reaction sheets, anonymous survey forms and the like. However, these tend to tell me more about how members reacted to what has happened than what changes in their behavior or attitudes have resulted. Sometimes it is possible to follow up with a questionnaire, additional workshops and I have been fortunate in some instances to have opportunities to return and observe whats happening in the organization.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

AN INVENTORY OF SKILLS AND ABILITIES FOR WORKSHOP PRACTITIONERS

Workshop practitioners must possess a special set of skills and abilities. The list below is intended to provide a base from which individuals might begin to assess their own potential.

1. Skill in writing workshop objectives, and in selecting content and activities which are challenging, within the conceptual abilities of the participants, and difficult enough to encourage "stretching".

2. Skill in arranging and presenting content and learning activities in a logical sequence.

3. Ability to establish a learning set among participants so that they will want to engage in the learning activity at hand.

4. Skill in facilitating the participation of people in a variety of learning activities.

5. Ability to use a wide range of teaching methods effectively.

6. Ability to use creative and imaginative strategies at appropriate times in the sequence of learning events.

7. Skill in facilitating discussions in fruitful directions.

8. Skill in using questioning techniques to encourage increasingly higher levels of thinking.

9. Ability to answer questions clearly and concisely in a manner that conveys interest and support for the learner.

10. Skill in elaborating (clarifying, developing, embellishing) ideas or concepts.

11. Ability to interpret new ideas, information and concepts and apply them in ways to enrich the learning experience.

12. Skill in introducing new topics or activities at appropriate intervals so there is time to deal with them in a satisfying and useful manner.

13. Ability to synthesize the major points of a presentation or group discussion.

14. Ability to plan and effectively manage and control one's own personal and professional life.

15. Ability to create and maintain an atmosphere that is conducive to physical and psychological involvement.

16. Ability to be sensitive to specific issues that may be of special concern to participants and to direct the energy around these issues in productive ways.

17. Ability to deal with differing needs and interests among participants and to respond constructively to suggestions, criticisms and comments about processes and procedures.

18. Skill in using a variety of verbal and non-verbal techniques in communicating with participants.

19. Skill in planning and designing evaluation processes that will maximize experiential learning.

20. Skill in preparing meaningful and effective charts and other visuals.

21. Skill in performing the organizational and administrative tasks necessary to support the implementation of effective learning experiences for participants.

22. Ability to approach problem-solving in creative ways.

23. Ability to work in a co-facilitator role.

24. Ability to manage time effectively.

25. Ability to maintain a "sense of self" in relationships with participants.

26. Ability to relate to people in ways which promote mutual self-respect and support.

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH PROGRAM FOR WORKSHOP PRACTITIONERS

An effective person in the field of human resource development must be constantly involved in developing interpersonal skills and abilities to be creative and risk-taking in the design and execution of workshop programs; he/she must be constantly pursuing new knowledge in the field of human development and training technologies; he/she must periodically examine his/her own life goals and values; he/she must be physically and emotionally healthy.

The workshop practitioner should consider a personal and professional growth and development program with at least the following basic components.

1. Participation in a life planning workshop from time to time to assess current resources and liabilities to develop an understanding of self in order to make professional and personal decisions about future life directions.

2. Participation in personal growth experiences such as T-Groups at regular intervals.

3. Participation in supportive and therapeutic counseling as necessary.

4. Participation in workshops where the helping skills (self-disclosure, empathy, descriptive feedback, active listening, etc.) are practiced.

5. Skill training in program planning and design, needs assessment, objective writing, etc.

6. Skill training in facilitator style (voice, presence, verbal/non-verbal facilitation, etc.).

7. Skill training in the use of evaluatory instrumentation.

8. Skill training in the use of structured experiences as learning tools.

9. Independent study to keep current and credible with the technical literature in the field of human development.

10. Supervised practicums to benefit from direct feedback on design, style, knowledge of technology, and personal attributes.

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H

WORKSHOP PLANNING AND DESIGN CHECKLIST

This checklist is designed to provide workshop practitioners with a profile of the thoroughness of their planning and design work previous to a particular event. A low rating on any item indicates a need to do more work on that aspect of the workshop. To complete the checklist write a numeral from 1 - 5 to indicate the degree of thoroughness of the planning and design. 1 = not at all; 2 = a little; 3 = adequate; 4 = a high degree; 5 = competely or thoroughly.

____ 1. The workshop has been planned and designed around the learning needs of the participants.

____ 2. There are clear, general learning objectives for the workshop.

____ 3. There are clear, attainable specific objectives for the workshop stated in performance terms.

____ 4. There is a purposeful relationship among the objectives.

____ 5. Evaluatory procedures and processes have been developed in conjunction with the objectives.

____ 6. The evaluation procedures employed will gain information about participants' learning in terms of the objectives as well as data about the design, the facilitation style, etc.

____ 7. The theme or focus of the workshop prevails in all sessions.

____ 8. The activities which have been planned are the best possible at the time for achieving the stated objectives.

____ 9. A low-threat beginning is planned for the workshop.

___ 10. Consideration has been given to a movement from a relatively high degree of structure to a lesser degree of structure as the workshop proceeds.

___ 11. Sessions have been differentiated as to content, format and length.

___ 12. The time schedule for all activities and presentations is reasonable and flexible.

___ 13. There is enough flexibility in the program to permit the addition of a session which participants may request.

___ 14. Sufficient time has been allocated for thorough processing of structured learning experiences (role plays, simulations, case studies, etc.) to permit extraction of learning application.

___ 15. Sufficient work time has been provided for participants so that they will not feel continually "pushed".

___ 16. There is a balance between theoretical input and experiential activities in the ratio of about 1/5.

___ 17. Presentations making use of audio-visual materials (film, video tapes, etc.) are kept within reasonable time limits.

___ 18. Planned lecturettes are short (a maximum of 20 minutes) and are followed by some activity for participants.

___ 19. Free time has been allocated for participants to allow them to assimilate their learnings.

___ 20. The group dynamics are varied enough to prevent boredom and keep the interest high.

___ 21. The sensitivity of participants to certain issues such as sexuality, religion, politics, etc. have been considered in the design.

___ 22. Consideration has been given to the need to teach participants how to use the processes of the workshop (consensus seeking, brainstorming, feedback, etc.).

___ 23 The learning and change that will occur in the workshop will have applicability in the back-home situations of the learners.

___ 24. The limitations of the physical environment have been taken into account in the design.

___ 25. There is a potential for an enjoyable experience throughout the total design.

___ 26. Sufficient time has been allocated at the end of the workshop for adequate and meaningful evaluation and feedback.

___ 27. A closure experience has been planned.

APPENDIX I

DESIGN AND FACILITATION SKILLS WORKSHOP FOR PD ASSOCIATES

Clientelle

The clientelle for this workshop were teachers from all levels in the public school system in British Columbia (K - 12). Each person was a member of a cadre of teachers known as PD Associates. Associates are called upon by the BC Teachers Federation to plan, design and conduct training events for teachers (workshops) with a variety of emphases: knowledge learning , skill learning and attitude learning around a wide spectrum of topics. Associates are asked to consult with teachers on special professional development issues and concerns and otherwise assist BCTF office staff with their work in providing continuing education services and opportunities for teachers.

Staff

The training event was co-facilitated by a team of two staff: a member of the BCTF staff in the Division of Professional Development and an outside trainer and consultant. A third person from the BCTF staff was asked to be a floating consultant to the design teams. On the second day this person decided that it would be more satisfying to become a member of a design team, and remained with that team for the rest of the workshop.

Schedule of Events

The design consisted of eight three-hour modules during a 3½ day period. Breaks for lunch and dinner were two hours

long with the exception of the last day when the noon break was shortened to 1½ hours. No training session was scheduled for the Tuesday evening which was left open for participants to arrange some form of social event for the total group.

Objectives

Objectives of the workshop training event were pre-mailed as part of the workshop advertizing material. These same objectives were posted and discussed in the design overview session on the first evening. The objectives were as follows:

> Participants will:
>
> Develop skills to enable them to plan and implement learning experiences for teachers.
>
> Develop their capabilities to facilitate groups where the focus is on learning new skills, increasing knowledge and/or changing attitudes of learners.
>
> Develop an increased understanding of the processes of designing and implementing an entire training event, including: contracting, setting learning objectives, planning workshop structures and activities, facilitation and evaluation.
>
> Explore special design and facilitation problems in the large group of participants and individual consultation with the workshop training staff. Such problems include: dealing with resistance in groups, choosing appropriate facilitation styles and using structured experiences in workshops.

Major Staff Presentations

"How Adults Learn" "The Experiential Learning Cycle"

"Contracting"

"Leadership Styles"

"Staging for Learning"

"Non-verbal Facilitation"

Staff Role

Consultation.

Leading critiquing and processing sessions.

Facilitating discussions of special design problems.

Staff Meetings

Staff meetings were held at the end of each work day as indicated on the design. The purpose was to process the happenings of the day, including co-facilitator issues, and to make changes in the next day's schedule. These meetings were public, i.e., they were "open" meetings held in the main meeting room. Participants were invited to observe but not to take part.

Design Teams

Six teams ranging in size from four to seven people were pre-selected by the leaders. Name tags were numbered to facilitate the formation of the teams with the least possible confusion. It was intended that the teams be equal in size, however, because of the late registrations and last-minute cancellations two teams had seven members. It was decided that equalizing teams was not necessary and that it would be an interesting and worthwhile challenge for groups to create designs that would incorporate a large number of facilitators.

Application Groups

Application groups of four were pre-selected by the leaders on a random numbering basis. Eight teams were formed.

In their first session members of the application groups were asked to formulate personal contracts for the three days of the workshop. In subsequent meetings participants were asked to refer to their contracts and make changes as necessary.

Critiquing

There were two parts to the critiquing process. First participants were asked to meet in a "fishbowl" and discuss what had happened, give feedback to others on the team and talk about successes or disappointments. This procedure took from 5 to 8 minutes. Second, the design team members were asked to listen to feedback from the participants who had taken part in the learning experience led by the team. Cards with key questions for critiquing had been previously distributed on a random basis. Design team members were allowed to ask questions or comment at the completion of the "feedback" round.

Social Event

A social event was planned by the participants for the open evening. It consisted of a group dinner at a local restaurant followed by dancing for those who wished to participate.

In addition to this scheduled activity a majority of the participants met in one of the small lounges to talk and partake of refreshments. Sometimes these sessions lasted till the early morning hours.

Evaluation

Evaluation was done on an ongoing basis with the participants. The final evaluation consisted of some feedback to the leaders (again in the fishbowl situation) and a written evaluation containing ratings and written comments. A copy of the evaluation form is part of this summary.

	Sunday	Monday
09:00 12:00		Negotiation of Design Topics "Contracting"* Contracting Exercise "Leadership Styles"* Design Teams
14:00 17:00	Staff Meeting Check in for participants Registration	"Setting the Stage for Learning"* "Non-Verbal Facilitation"* Community Sessions Design Teams
19:00 22:00	Introductions Workshop Overview "How Adults Learn"* Design Teams Application Groups Community Session	Team #1 Presentation Critique/Processing Application Groups
22:15	Staff Meeting Happy Hour(s)	Staff Meeting

	Tuesday	Wednesday
09:00 12:00	Team Presentation #s 2 & 3 Critique/Processing Special Design Problems	Team Presentation #5 Critque/Processing Special Design Problems
14:00 17:00	Team Presentation #4 Critque/Processing Application Groups	Team Presentation #6 Critque/Processing Linking Issues Evaluatuon & Closure
19:00 22:00	Staff Meeting No Session Open Evening	Staff Meeting
		* Lecturettes by staff

Summer Workshop for PD Associates

July 15-18, 1979

Workshop evaluation

Please respond to the following questions based on your feelings, thoughts and perceptions about this event. Circle a number on the rating scale and make a comment. The information you provide will be helpful for planning future workshops and it will provide an assessment of the design used this year.

1. To what degree were the objectives which were published achieved?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all moderately high degree

   Comment:

2. Considering the workshop as a whole, how would you rate its general value to you?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   little value moderate value very valuable

   Comment:

3. Were you satisfied with the opportunities provided for your involvement?

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all moderately very satisfied

   Comment:

4. One outstanding feature of this workshop was:

5. One disappointing feature of this workshop was:

6. In this space, write any feedback you want to give the workshop leaders/facilitators.

7. Write a statement about the impact of this experience on you as a person and/or as a professional.

_____
Name

APPENDIX J

Approaches to Evaluation

The Baseline

A baseline from which to measure achievement must be established. Some baselines are obvious. That is, all participants may enter the workshop with no knowledge of the content or processes. On the other hand some participants may have a lot of knowledge about the content of the workshop. The challenge of the planner is to determine a general level of competency of participants and work from there.

Pre-examination

Pre-examination is a method used to obtain baseline data. How far are the participants from the objectives that the workshop is expected to achieve.

There are several pre-examination methods available to the planner.

1. A brief questionnaire to assess previous opportunities to learn about the topic.
2. An instrument designed to determine the participants actual knowledge and attitudes. This may take the form of an opinion list.
3. A recorded small group discussion at the beginning of the workshop. What in your opinion are the most controversial aspects of this topic?
4. Staff interview to determine the level of awareness.

The purpose of the information obtained is to form a group picture. Where is the group on this topic? Where do they begin! Without this information no measurement of

progress (growth) toward objectives is possible.

Time for evaluation

A critical consideration in planning is to allow time for evaluation. To assure that participants have ample time evaluation instruments may be given out as a serious home-work assignment to be done the night before closure. If this is not done a half-hour time slot should be scheduled for the purpose of evaluation. If the approach to evaluation is genuine participants will usually respond in a genuine fashion.

Interpretation of results

Comments on the evaluation form must be interpreted in relation to the objectives.

Evaluation as learning

Carney (1976) presents a most comprehensive statement on evaluation in his book No Limits to Growth: Mind Expanding Techniques. It is Carney's (1976) contention that "most of the learning occurs in evaluating the experience" (p. 314).

> "It's the evaluatory exercises which follow a learning experience that makes that experience memorable and deeply meaningful. Interesting and effective evaluatory exercises inject new life into the learning experience--and besides most of the learning occurs in evaluating the experience" (Carney, 1976, p. 314).

Any exercise becomes a powerful learning experience only when participants come to realize the implications of the experience for their own lives. To bring about this realization participants have to do two things (according to Carney,

1976).

1) "Consciously evaluate the process while it's going on (known as 'process analysis', this feature requires evaluators to have evaluatory instruments, and

2) "assess the results, afterwards (structured activities lead to far better assessment than 'free'--that is, rambling--discussion can achieve)" (p. 314).

Getting the maximum experiential learning out of an experience is directly related to the number of evaluatory techniques used. A wide variety of evaluatory techniques permits a wider variety of exercises to be used because there are a lot more ways of adapting an exercise to fit a learning experience.

BACK TO FRONT planning is recommended of the overall activity. The evaluatory process "reaches back into the teaching exercise and shapes that exercise so as to make evaluation most effective" (Carney, 1976, p. 315).

The "before and after" questionnaire illustrates the front process. The "before" questionnaire must take into account the state of ignorance of the participants at the outset, and the expectable state of knowledge at the conclusion of the experience.

The designer of the "before and after" questionnaire can't design the questionnaire until he/she knows in detail just what will be covered. So the questionnaire can't be planned until the course is planned. The course can't be planned until a decision has been made on how to evaluate it. So the course plan and the evaluatory instrument must be built

together, each of them adapted in turn so that each fits and strengthens the other.

When the final ("after") questionnaire is done it must be redrafted so that it can be answered from the initial state of lack of knowledge and the end state of considerable knowledge. The adapted version then acts as the "before" and "after" questionnaire.

What are we evaluating for? The teaching approach must match the objectives to be reached and the type of evaluating which should be done depends on the type of teaching that was done. The evaluative device must take into consideration what kinds of learning have taken place. Carney (1976) proposes that there is a taxonomy of instructional aims and related evaluatory instruments, e.g., when the aim is to test recall, questions requiring the ability to give definitions are sufficient, however, when the aim is to test application of knowledge the instrument must be more complex, such as the solution of a scenario problem or a case-study problem. When the aim is to evaluate the participant's ability to synthesize, the instrument must be designed to get the person to "put it all together". If the aim is to conduct an assessment, the exercise will be just that -- design an evaluatory instrument and use it to do an evaluation.

Where understanding or skills related to group dynamics is involved these cannot be learned simply by reading, or

being lectured to about them. In such a case the participant is dealing with interpersonal relationships. Group centered experiential learnings are used in the development of these skills and the evaluatory instruments and processes must provide feedback to learners of others' perceptions of their interactions.

Carney (1976) has produced a matrix of teaching approaches which illustrates the best ways to present concepts or cognitive information or teach skills. Lectures are best for cognitive input although it is more effective if learners read in private. Seminars are much less suitable than lectures for imparting quantities of information. Seminars are best for a critical exploration of conceptual information which ultimately leads to enriched understanding. Workshops are not appropriate for presenting a bulk of new information.

Workshops are best for:

1. providing skill building practice or experiential learning of interpersonal relationships,
2. bringing home the meaning of concepts already intellectually grasped in practical human terms.

There are special considerations, though. Only one skill can be taught per workshop if the aim is to produce insight or change a person's behavior patterns. The learner must first grasp the principles conceptually through experiencing what happens when a skill is used. Insight comes suddenly after a certain mass of experiences. This

makes experiential learning via workshops radically different from lectures or seminars. It is obvious, then that the teaching approach must match the objective to be achieved and follows that the type of evaluating which can be done depends on the type of teaching which has been done. Carney (1976) provides the following examples:

To test for level of conceptual knowledge a questionnaire or multiple-choice test might be used. The teaching method would be largely by lecture and assigned reading.

To test for skills in human relationships a structured experience planned and designed by the learner would be appropriate. The workshop would be the teaching strategy in this case.

To test people so as to rank them by ability, a testing instrument that would allow different degrees of the kind of ability to emerge would be used. The simulations game would be best to provide the data required.

To be able to use the full range of testing procedures we must be able to use the full range of teaching procedures. Evaluation is a demanding process:

> "As evaluation involves the most demanding conceptual activity, an evaluatory instrument, combined with the results it produces, shows what the instructor is (or isn't!) capable of at his/her best. In fact any test can be used as a measure of its designer" (Carney, 1976, p. 315).

Five useful evaluatory approaches are as follows (Carney, 1976).

1. The self-inventory

The self-inventory is the most useful of all the instruments because of its flexibility to be fitted to any exercise. Further, the self-inventory is a low-threat instrument. The person who completes the instrument is the only one who knows what's in it; it lends itself to open honesty. The one disadvantage to the self-infentory for the designer is that it takes a lot of building. However, as Carney (1976) says "the higher the payoff of an instrument, the higher the construction costs usually are" (p. 321).

The most famous self-inventory available is the Johari Window, an instrument developed by Joe Luft and Harry Ingham. An overview of the instrument and its use can be found in the University Associates publication, The 1973 Annual Handbook For Group Facilitators (p. 114-119). A number of self inventories have been evolved which use the Johari Window as their framework of reference, e.g., Hall, J., Management Relations Survey, Teleometrics International, 1970. If you want to be versatile at evaluation you need three or four self inventories in your repertoire.

2. Problem Posing

Posing problems is an excellent way of testing for understanding. It is not artificial; it can be addressed by the person being tested directly from his/her own life-space. Problems can be used by groups and by individuals; they can be practice sessions while people are being tested.

The drawbacks are (1) that the trainees must work at an advanced level, and (2) problem setting is an art. As a designer, you must be sure that:

> "(a) you really NEED such a severe and exacting test; and (b) that the problem solvers had all the necessary pre-training (in skill building and in consciousness raising regarding emotional side effects, as well as straight concept acquisition)" (Carney, 1976, p. 328)

> "Generally, the way you proceed is as follows. While you're working through your initial training program, you note problem areas that match with your trainees' interests and skill mix. You rough out problem solutions and keep them on file, letting your unconscious work further on them while you're working on the actual training program. At the end of the program, you pick out the problem that now seems best suited to your trainees' aptitudes. Then you work out its general outlines and leading issues, and present these as an orienting framework to your trainees for their test/problem" (Carney, 1976, p. 329).

> "A well-posed problem is rather like a well-posed self-inventory: it takes a lot of ingenuity and time to develop" (Carney, 1976, p. 330).

3. Substructuring

Substructuring is "a way of forcing yourself to think completely through a problem involving correlations. Such a problem normally takes the form: how do the following characteristics/features of this person/process influence this other set of obviously related characteristics/features" (Carney, 1976, p. 335).

A series of characteristics is set out as a dimension across the top of a page- a second series is set as a dimension down the left-hand side. The creation is a matrix.

The object is to establish how everything along the top interacts with everything down the side. An entry is made in every cell of the matrix.

The objectives of substructuring is "mind stretching" (Carney, 1976). "You want to induce people to think through all aspects of a given relationship, so they'll have to apply or extend the principles they've grasped" (p. 338). The type of substructuring described here is a fairly low level evaluatory process. If the objective is to determine how well people can "extend the principles grasped", a more powerful instrument must be used, that is the transformation matrix, a more advanced variant of the matrix described above. The transformation matrix is an "high-powered" evaluation.

The purpose of the substructuring is to test for non-linear thinking or multi-track thinking. "As this type of thinking isn't normally taught, running such tests presupposes that you've given your group learning experiences involving multi-track and Gestalt thinking (simulation problems, for instance -- with zig-zags)" (Carney, 1976, p. 340).

4. Polling

Polling, is employed:

"(a) to avoid having discussions likely to involve many value judgments, much heat and little enlightenment; and

(b) to obtain a quick rank-ordering of

> priorities via uniform, quantitative methods" (Carney, 1976, p. 340).

There are inherent dangers with the polling process. People put different values on different things and if debate about those different values is suppressed, resentment will occur among the group using the procedure.

> "Polling gives speed and precision of results without acrimonious debates. But if the subject matter calls for a complex evaluatory process, then you have to have these debates. If you don't debate, but instead you only poll, you're likely to leave a residue of resentment smouldering among group members. So the acrimony will come anyway--and it may be worse for coming later, rather than sooner. Thus you have always to exercise judgment when tempted to use polling as a quick test of opinion or a speedy evaluatory process" (Carney, 1976, p. 341).

The polling process has speed and precision when there is a need to cross-compare the impressions or opinions that a group has. Examples of polling devices are:

1. A poll to determine a group member's participation in a session. Members rate each other and self on a 5 point scale. Ratings are entered on a master matrix.
2. Distribution of units (candies, play money, etc.) to members in proportions appropriate to their contributions to accomplishing the group task.
3. Group member ratings of others according to a given list of attributes. Results are entered on a master sheet.

> "Polling is a high-threat technique which should only be used with bonded groups,

> where members won't use the poll's results to put one another down" (Carney, 1976, p. 343).

5. Questioning

The fifth evaluatory approach is questioning. Questioning is the simplest, but the least well-practised and the least effective of the five modes of evaluation (Carney, 1976).

Questions should be structured when used in conjunction with structured experiences.

> "A structured activity is concentrated and focused. Unless parallel structure and focus is built into the questions which probe such activities, confusion results, because those questioned don't know at which particulars they're to direct their reply (Carney, 1976, p. 347).

If you want an observer to tell you "what's going on" you must define very clearly what you want observed. A scoring frame is probably the best way to do that. A scoring frame is a kind of check-list of categories beside which the observer indicates how group members contribute.

The questioning technique is often ineffective because it's "tacked on"; it's an afterthought without pre-planning. If questioning is going to be used, it must be allowed for in the design of experience.

APPENDIX K

VITA

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Educational Institutions Attended, with Dates of Entering and Leaving:

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA, VICTORIA 1974 to 1979

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Elementary Basic Certificate	1951	Provincial Normal School, Victoria
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Honors and Awards:

None

Publications:

None

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Title of Thesis

A Study of the Workshop as a Teaching/Learning Strategy

Author [redacted]

ROY BERTON RONAGHAN

November 29, 1979

[redacted]