The purpose of this monograph is to stimulate reflective inquiry by educators into their work as policy makers, program designers, and evaluators of inservice education programs. Its context is a series of case studies of evaluations performed in Denmark, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Four essays are presented. The first conveyed, on practical grounds, the notion that reflecting upon previous experience in evaluating inservice education is valuable. Future performance will depend upon the extent of understanding of previous work. In the second essay, the point is made that, if experience in evaluation is to become valuable to future performance, sound evaluation principles must be established. The third essay related in some detail those issues that the writers of the case studies felt were major problems in performing their evaluation studies. The final essay suggested that reflectivity is not only a preliminary activity leading to evaluation, but may be essential during the entire evaluation process. (JD)
IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS:
TOWARDS NEW POLICIES

Reflecting upon Evaluation

SYNTHESIS REPORT

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
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IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS:
TOWARDS NEW POLICIES

Reflecting Upon Evaluation
Synthesis Report

by

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University of Wisconsin (United States)

The views expressed are those of the author
and do not commit either the Organisation
or the National authorities concerned

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. Why Reflect Upon the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training
   A. Why reflect. ........................................... 1
   B. The purpose and context of this monograph. ............ 3
   C. The audience and format for this monograph .......... 4
   D. Recognizing evaluation and inservice education and training in the context of CERI/OECD ............ 7

II. Principles Do Not Serve Us Well: A Critique Based Upon International Case Studies
   A. Purposes and settings of inservice education and training ........................................... 10
   B. A critical analysis of the six principles formed at Bournemouth ............................. 19
   C. Conclusion and an optimistic solution. ................................................................. 31

III. Issues to Confront When Reflecting Upon the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training
   A. Confronting mundane realities to evaluating inservice education and training .............. 33
   B. Issues proceeding from the bureaucratic context. ..................................................... 35
   C. Issues proceeding from the choice of methodology .................................................... 39
   D. Issues proceeding from the many meanings of participation ...................................... 45
   E. Summary: The embedded nature of the mundane realities ........................................... 48

IV. Reflecting in Context: Confronting Wisdom and Ignorance in Ourselves and in Our Colleagues
   A. Preparing for dialogue between policy makers, program designers and evaluators .......... 53
   B. Recommendations for preparation by policy makers. ................................................. 58
   C. Recommendations for preparation by program designers. ........................................... 62
   D. Recommendations for preparation by evaluators ....................................................... 67

V. Selective Bibliography ........................................... 77
I. Why Reflect Upon the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training

A. Why Reflect

The purpose here is to ask questions of ourselves. We are evaluators from different countries, from differing traditions of education, public policy and professional development. Our status has been fluid, our professional milieu has been complex. In addition to performing our own evaluations, we have described and reviewed other people's work in evaluating inservice education and training of teachers (INSET). We are also teacher educators who have designed educational activities for teachers and other educators. We have at times worked closely with - or have been ourselves - middle level managers within a bureaucratic agency responsible for monitoring or carrying out inservice education programs for public policies. Some of us have worked with elected officials who make policy on inservice education and training in our respective countries. In short, our professional roles and corresponding perspectives are in a state of flux, making answers to questions about our work in INSET evaluation transient.
This leads us to why we must ask questions of ourselves. The complexity and fluidity of our roles in inservice education and training make it necessary for us to take periodic stock of what we know. What we have learned in our respective professional lives is not always apparent to us and seldom made known to others. The heuristics of our experience leave us little choice but to reflect upon what we have done, why we have done that and how experience has changed our perspectives on inservice education and training of educators. There are few educators or general publics in our respective countries who are much interested in inservice education and training of educational personnel. If critical analysis of our work is to be done, if stimulation for better performance in evaluating inservice education and training is to be provided, it will have to be provided by us who do the work. The underlying reason why we must reflect upon our own performance, however, is that we are uncompromisingly responsible for our own acts in evaluating inservice education and training programs. The nature of our professional lives suggests that we have an unusual degree of flexibility in reforming our work. In the contexts of our own respective countries, there is no doubt we can do better next time if we so desire.

If we consider educational evaluation (rather than inservice education and training), arguing for reflectivity into our performance is just as compelling but for different reasons. Educational evaluation is receiving renewed professional interest in our respective countries.

In the United States the past few years have been a dynamic period in evaluation as indicated by major changes in the perspectives of recognized leaders in educational research and evaluation. In Denmark, while inservice education and training has been performed by a national agency for over 100 years, program evaluation of that enterprise is just gaining attention as a professional craft. In Sweden, where major educational and political reforms have occurred in the past forty years, evaluation is being recognized as a necessary instrument for formulating and implementing educational policies. In Great Britain, the evaluation work of persons such as Parlett, Hamilton, MacDonald, Elliot, Adelman and Walker has increased not only a professional focus on the art of evaluation but on the general nature of educational research--its philosophic, political and educational foundations. In France, evaluation is considered as educational research where notions of science and its relationship to the reform of practice become major grounds for debate. In Australia, evaluation is booming to the point where it is nearly becoming the new science of education. Investigations into the induction period (the first few years of teaching), for example, have gained much
attention within Australian educational policy networks.

In all of these countries, there is no single view of educational evaluation that is considered to be relevant to all evaluation conditions. No country, for example, is considered to be a significant modeler of evaluation practice. Evaluators in each country are looking instead to their own cultural, political and educational contexts for practices that can be adapted to specific evaluation challenges. Evaluators are asking for international sharing only to the extent to which they can build their own eclectic styles relevant to their own national contexts. The focus on context goes within national boundaries and into specific programmatic settings and the political milieu in which particular educational policies are made and carried out.

This very brief sketch of the current state of evaluation implies a significant need for self-reflective behavior by us who practice or support evaluation in our own countries. We do not expect to adopt any particular evaluation model, perhaps not even the model we used last year. Instead, we intend to adapt features of different models to particular professional challenges as we investigate our activities and form our educational policies towards inservice education and training. Adapting models from our past experiences and from the distillations of others' experiences requires a level of understanding that is reached only through critical, analytical inquiry into our own work.

B. The Purpose and Context of This Monograph

The purpose of this monograph is to stimulate reflective inquiry into our work as policy makers, as program designers and as evaluators of inservice education and training programs. By reflective inquiry we mean analyzing our work, our own personal experience and performance, with the aim of making our future work better. The intent of this monograph is to redirect our critical attention from the work of others to the work we do as policy makers, program designers and evaluators in evaluating inservice education and training. Reflective inquiry into the evaluation of INSET programs includes analyzing our intentions for inservice education and training, reviewing the principles which guide us in designing evaluations of INSET programs and clarifying the issues that have arisen from our experience in implementing these evaluation designs. Reflective inquiry also includes making recommendations to ourselves for redirecting our future work in evaluating inservice education and training programs.

The context of this monograph is a series of case studies of INSET evaluations performed in four countries: Denmark, Sweden, United Kingdom and United States and selected cases of INSET evaluations performed in France and Australia. Along with the case studies were a series of international conferences on INSET sponsored by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (Paris), in co-operation with the National Institute for Education (U.S.), the U.K. Department of Education and
Science, the Swedish Ministry of Education, the Swedish National Board of Education and the Palm Beach County School System (U.S.). These conferences were held in Philadelphia (June 1976), Stockholm (October 1976), West Palm Beach (November 1977) and Bournemouth (March 1978). In addition to the international conferences and the national case studies on the evaluation of inservice education and training, a preliminary draft of this report was written and a conference held with the principal writers of the case studies in November 1978, in Paris. This monograph is a rewrite of that report based upon the issues raised by the case study writers. Thus, the context for this analysis is international, longitudinal and grounded in the field experience of those who evaluate, design programs, and help form national policies on inservice education and training in their respective countries. The intent of this monograph is to tap this resource of field experience from different national perspectives.

C. The Readership and Format For This Monograph

This monograph is written for those who have performed or supported evaluations in the past and expect to be linked to evaluations of inservice education and training in the future. This may include a diverse but quite limited group of people. "Diverse" because those who see inservice education and training as a way to improve school performance can include elected officials, middle-level managers of public agencies, teachers, teacher educators, school administrators, educational researchers and educational program evaluators. "Limited" because there may be relatively few in these roles who include a vision of a better workplace for the adults who educate our children along with their visions of improved schooling. Thus, the monograph is written as a challenge to those policy makers, program designers and evaluators who are convinced that opportunities for educators' professional development are necessary if we are to nourish or improve the education of our young.

Policy makers include governmental agency heads and middle-level managers who have the responsibility for implementing a legislated policy in education. It is they who may determine that inservice education and training is a reasonable means to achieve a particular educational policy. Policy makers may include elected officials who see inservice education and training as a viable means for achieving educational or social aims. They may also include public agency administrators who are responsible for articulating official views of what professional development means and what certification is. Program designers include teacher educators based at universities, colleges or government agencies who have had responsibilities for educating students before they enter teaching or have taught teachers in graduate courses or other school settings. Program designers may also include those school personnel who articulate school authority policy into
specific teacher training designs. Evaluators include those educators with professional reputations in educational research but with outside interests in program evaluation. They may be researchers (often from a teacher education institution) who consider the evaluation of inservice education and training as an interesting arena to apply their skills. A few may be full-time evaluators employed by a private firm relying on its capacity for gaining work. Some evaluators may be employed full time by a government agency, school system or university.

Although there are others who may become responsible, the evaluation of an inservice education and training program is usually at the discretion of the policy maker, program designer or evaluator. The purpose in addressing an audience of policy makers, program designers and evaluators is that the success in evaluating future inservice education and training programs depends upon a mutually shared ability to ask the tough questions. The following format has been chosen to engage this varied audience.

There are four parts to the monograph, each is a brief essay written for consideration by policy makers, program designers and evaluators. The four essays are:

- Why reflect upon evaluations of inservice education and training;
- Principles do not serve us well: a critique based upon international case studies;
- Issues to confront when reflecting upon the evaluation of inservice education and training; and
- Reflecting in context: confronting wisdom and ignorance in ourselves and in our colleagues.

The first essay ("Why reflect") is meant to convey on practical grounds, the notion that previous experience in evaluating inservice education and training is valuable. The point is made that we need to recognize that our future performance will depend upon the extent to which we understand our previous work. This is not, it will be pointed out in the following section, an ability that many of us have shown. The intent of this essay is to generate respect for our past experience in evaluating inservice education and training while not diminishing the need to do better in the future.

The second essay ("Principles do not serve us well") is a critique of six principles formed at a recent international conference on school-focused inservice education and training. The basis for this critique is the national surveys of case studies on the evaluation of inservice education and training (mentioned previously). This essay continues the respect for previous experience in evaluating inservice education and training programs, referring to the case studies as documentary evidence for some of that experience. The essay argues that our purposes for inservice education and training and our experience in carrying out these purposes is far
richer than the principles we usually generate in public meetings. The intent of the essay is to make it clear that if our experience is to become valuable to future performance, we must do better than extracting general principles that seem to aggregate across national and international contexts.

The third essay ("Issues to confront") relates in some detail those issues that case study writers felt were major problems in performing their evaluation studies. Some of these issues were raised in the national surveys, but most were raised in the discussions and deliberations of the case study writers' seminar in Paris (November, 1978). The essay shows how reflectivity into past performance can bring up those crucial topics that are essential to address but difficult to resolve and perhaps even more difficult to recognize. The essay suggests one way to recognize these issues in our work is to consider three realities in evaluating INSET: the bureaucratic context, the choice of methodology and the meanings of participation. The intent of this essay is to make it more clear what is at stake as we become involved in evaluating inservice education and training programs.

The final essay ("Reflecting in context") goes further with the theme of reflectivity, suggesting it is not only a preliminary activity leading to evaluation of inservice education and training programs but may be essential during the entire evaluation process. With this in mind, it is necessary for each of us involved in an evaluation of inservice education and training--policy makers, program designers and evaluators--to analyze our own understanding on topics, some of which we may not have thought about for years. The essay includes recommendations to policy makers, program designers and evaluators on what their responsibilities would be if they were to reflect upon their own experience and understanding and confront others' intentions accordingly.

The intent of this essay is to suggest how we can make our experience and understanding work for us as we evaluate particular inservice education and training programs.
Recogizing Evaluation and Inservice Education and Training in the Context of CERI/OECD

Earlier it was argued that reflection is necessary because of our own varied professional development, the absence of much interest and stimulation by outside critics of inservice education and training, and the contrasting state of interest and stimulation in program evaluation at this time in our respective countries. Such arguments may be well and good for evaluators and program designers but do not say much to agency heads and middle level managers of education. They may also be less useful to OECD/CERI which has developed this program in order to increase interest in inservice education and training because of the role it plays in improving school practice in member countries. Reflecting, that is reviewing one's performance in terms of a variety of perspectives (e.g. one's intentions, official purposes, what actually happened), can seem to be a relatively passive undertaking compared to the design and implementation of new programs. Although we know that current and future performance is not independent of the lessons we have learned from past performance, the challenge of the manager is to get something done. Lessons will be learned by those who practice. Evaluators and program designers have responsibility for reflection on evaluation and inservice education and training. The manager's responsibility is to make sure that performance meets the objectives, in this case, to see that evaluations of inservice education and training help improve schools of OECD member countries.

That view of reflectivity is wrong and events sponsored by CERI/OECD provide us with good examples of why it is wrong. One example is found in the traditional focus of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) on school innovation. The focus of CERI on curriculum reform paralleled comparatively great efforts in most member countries to improve the quality and equality of their schools by concentrating resources into the design of curricular programs. In the 1960's and early 70's, participants from all member countries and CERI knew innovation was curriculum reform and that one necessary feature of curriculum reform was to get the curriculum into the schools. The more recent emphasis of CERI on inservice education and training is a direct outgrowth of these past performances in curriculum reform and the lessons that have been learned from that performance. Educational managers understand, for example, that the major problems in the past era were not in curriculum design but in getting those designs into school practice. Given the lessons learned from that period it is natural and wise for educational policy makers (in CERI and in OECD member countries) to turn their attention to the potential of inservice education and training as a crucial factor for implementing educational policy. As much as CERI policy makers may realize the historical antecedent and relationships of inservice teacher education and training to the curriculum reform efforts performed under the rubric of innovation, it is clear that this
understanding is not shared by evaluators or designers of inservice education and training. Nothing in the reports of past conferences on inservice education and training sponsored by CERI, nor in the recent CERI publications on inservice education and training link INSET to experiences in curriculum reform. We evaluators and program designers look at INSET as a new area to apply our craft rather than as a factor linked to past failures in improving our schools.

This tendency not to reflect upon past performance is especially pronounced in certain reports and publications dealing with the evaluation of inservice education and training. A repeatedly expressed opinion that the evaluation of INSET is a new activity that may (or may not) borrow its methods from curriculum evaluation is an example of the misunderstanding we evaluators have about our past performance. Many past evaluations of curricular programs addressed problems in implementing these programs in the schools, focusing upon teachers, teacher training, teacher education and school context. Many evaluators who are cited as pioneers in curriculum evaluation were forming their approaches to understand problems in transferring a designed curriculum into the schools. Alternatives created by Parlett and Hamilton (1972), MacDonald and Walker (1974), Elliott (1977), Berliner et al (1978), House (1974), Stake (1974) and Scriven (1974), for example, are erroneously referred to as reforms in the evaluation of curriculum. Instead they created approaches to better understand how a curricular program is integrated into the schools. They focused on one major purpose of INSET (to improve school practice), as well as on the educational and training processes used with school personnel. This lack of attention by evaluators to the historical context of inservice education and training and of the alternative forms of evaluation produced in that context suggests that professional reflection upon past performance does not occur naturally.

There are two important conclusions that policy makers can make from these examples. The first is that if professional reflection by evaluators and/or program designers is warranted or seems desirable, it will have to be directly supported and encouraged by the policy makers. Even when it seems obvious to the policy maker that past performance is related to current intentions, that may not be so obvious to either the evaluators or to the program designers. The second conclusion is perhaps even more crucial, and that is that evaluators and program designers can not be expected to reflect alone and draw relevant lessons learned. There is information held only by the policy makers that is crucial to a fuller understanding of why inservice education and training is deemed important and the role that evaluation may play. Thus, for policy makers, the most serious conclusion is that reflectivity is their responsibility as well as the responsibility of the evaluators and program designers. Furthermore, this reflection by the policy makers should be done with the evaluators and program designers since it is their fundamental understanding of context and purpose that must be improved.
In the CERI context, this would imply that there is much of value in CERI managers and agency heads reviewing the evolution of their concerns about inservice education and training (and its evaluation). It would also imply that this reflection should at some time include those others who have been asked to reflect and draw implications from their experience in evaluation and/or in designing inservice education and training.
II. Principles Do Not Serve Us Well: A Critique
Based Upon International Case Studies

A. Purposes and Settings of Inservice
Education and Training

First, let us remind ourselves that inservice education and training has received attention for three quite different reasons. One reason is its potential for stimulating professional development; a second is that inservice education and training can improve school practice, and a third is that inservice education and training may be a viable strategy for implementing social policy. We have all heard one or all of these reasons used to establish why particular inservice education and training programs should be supported. We have used them ourselves. The three reasons have been repeated often enough where we must take ourselves seriously, that is as if the purposes we give were contextual features of an inservice education and training program.

When we support an inservice education and training program on the grounds that it may stimulate professional growth, for example, we have placed that program into a context with particular characteristics. One obvious characteristic is that the program is focused on individuals' professional advancement. The goals and objectives of the program are intrinsic to the goals and objectives of participating educators. An underlying assumption is that the complexity of professional demands on educators and the changing social context of schooling make growth a necessity for professional survival. It may or may not assume that knowledge about education is expanding; it does assume, however, that educators need to continually improve their range of professional understanding and personal performance as they mature, develop and practice their craft. Critical to the context created by reasoning that inservice education and training will stimulate professional development are the theories we hold about development. These may, for example, be held as psychological theories of stages (e.g. Sprinthall), sociological theories of socialization (e.g. Lortie), or some eclectic theory of how teachers develop (e.g. Fox). Each theory of professional development can imply very different inservice education and training strategies, thus making the theory of professional development a significant feature of these programs.

The practice of inservice education and training to stimulate professional development has a tradition in our respective countries. In some of our countries this tradition may jump back a number of decades. In the United States, for example, inservice education and training for professional development was practiced by some followers of John Dewey in the 1930's and 40's (see Feiman, 1979). This practice has shown that when the goal is to stimulate professional growth, the means may be the end, the performance may be the goal. A significant characteristic of the context created by referring to the professional
development of those educators who are involved in an inservice education and training program are the positive connotations of "professional development". It implies we can and do change (for the better) over time, it suggests that there are steps we can take to improve our own professional situation; it respects the professional autonomy of those who are developing. Perhaps the attractive connotations are why we currently hear professional development being used in our respective countries as a primary reason for inservice education and training programs. It makes "professional development" attractive rhetoric. When inservice education and training is practiced, however, it is other characteristics such as the theoretical basis and the experience from past efforts that are significant to the design and evaluation of a program intended to stimulate professional growth.

A different context is created when we reason that an inservice education and training program is intended to improve particular aspects of school practice. Here the inservice education and training is initiated and motivated by a noted inadequacy and failure in the school system. Inservice education and training is for an end that goes beyond the individual educator's well-being; it is intrinsic to the school system, extrinsic to the participating educator. Inservice education and training designed to improve a particular feature of school practice (e.g., a curricular program) focuses on isolated features of participating educators' professional practice; the complexity of anticipated roles is largely irrelevant. It usually assumes knowledge is expanding and, in fact, is often designed to transfer knowledge gained from research to those who are practicing in the schools. It often assumes that knowledge about educational practice is generated only in research settings. It is oriented to immediate performance (and those understandings that may lead to immediate performance) since the intent is to resolve current problems. The theoretical basis for the context created by reasoning that inservice education and training can accomplish improvement is in organizational development and institutional change. Theories of how schools change influence the design and evaluation of these inservice education and training programs (e.g., McLaughlin and Berman, McLaughlin and Marsh, Corwin, Meyer, Fullan, Miles in the U.S.).

There is a rich and comparatively recent tradition of inservice education and training for school improvement in most OECD member countries. This tradition is found in the surge of curriculum innovations performed in the 1950's, 60's, and 70's where inservice education and training was a major strategy for implementing designed innovations into the schools. There is little reference to this tradition in recent discussions on inservice education and training, perhaps because of the unattractive connotations. The unattractive connotations include implications that greater knowledge is held by those outside the system, that external pressure is necessary and that the participating educators in the inservice education and training are "deficient" in some significant aspect. There is irony brought about by our recent past in curriculum reform. The irony is that there is considerable practical experience in inservice education and training from the curriculum reform.
eras of OECD member countries that is not being acknowledged by those who reason that inservice education and training can improve school practice.

A third context is created when we reason that a social policy is to be implemented through an inservice education and training program. This reason for inservice education and training has seldom been stated but often has been implied in recent OECD conference discussions and publications. Implied or stated, it does, however, create a third context where social policies are the focus of attention rather than the school systems or individual educators. Inservice education and training designed to achieve a social policy (e.g. in the U.S., desegregation) is intrinsic to legal goals of the society and may be extrinsic to institutional goals of the schools or to personal goals of the participating educators. Professional demands and the complexity of professional roles may not even be relevant, except as barriers to social reform. The focus is on the role of education in inducing social reform, not only in responding to social changes. Professional knowledge of educators is often challenged in this context, particularly the notion that knowledge about education is expanding. It assumes that the understanding and professional performance of educators is related to the maintenance of social ills as well as to their eventual correction (e.g. there is personal and institutional culpability for sexual and social inequalities in schooling). The theoretical basis for the context created by reasoning that inservice education and training can implement social policy is found in theories of social reform. Theories of how social patterns in our respective countries change and how social reforms do or do not occur can shape the design and focus of the inservice education and training programs. These theories, for example, may be economic (e.g. Young), sociological (Bernstein), intellectual (Toulmin, Habermas) or some combinations of these theories (e.g. Apple).

Inservice education and training is considered as a means where achieving social policy is the end. To be more precise, inservice education and training is one means among many where law, financial incentives, architecture or community planning, for example, may be other means to achieve a particular social policy. Historical analysis suggests that a tradition of inservice education and training for implementing social policy has happened at particular moments in our respective countries. One example is the industrial revolution and the formation of Lancastrian schools (1 teacher, 1 class, 1 subject). The connotations in reasoning that inservice education and training be used to implement social policy are both attractive and risky. The attractive connotations include the implications that education is a social responsibility, that in both an institutional and personal sense, educating the young is a noble and socially relevant activity. At the same time, we consider the view risky because of our ignorance of social theory and our corresponding inability to deal with fundamental political dissent—whether we be policy maker, program designer or evaluator of inservice education and training programs.
To summarize this discussion on context, we give 3 reasons for our support of inservice education and training of educators:

1) to stimulate professional development,
2) to improve school practice and
3) to implement social policy.

Each reason creates a different context with its own set of characteristics. Figure 1 summarizes the characteristics. In addition to acknowledging that we do create different contexts by our reasoning for inservice education and training, we must also acknowledge that the contexts we create are often more complex than the columns in Figure 1 suggest. This happens when we use more than one reason to support a particular inservice education and training program.

Although it does happen that we support inservice education and training for primarily one reason (for stimulating professional development, for example), it is just as often that we use multiple reasons for the same inservice education and training program. There are inservice education and training programs that we support on the grounds that they will stimulate professional development while improving particular features of school practice. These are programs that we support on the grounds that they will implement a social policy while they improve a particular feature of school practice. In combining two or more reasons for inservice education and training, we create some of the more vexing (and interesting) problems for designing and evaluating these programs. As Figure 1 suggests, if we use two (or three) reasons for supporting inservice education and training, we place the program into two (or three) different contexts. Contradictions and conflicts can then occur between many characteristics of the multiple contexts. If we reason that an inservice education and training program will be performed to stimulate professional development and to improve school practice, for example, we are implying that the program will be intrinsic to the participating educator and to the system, it will recognize complex unanticipated professional demands and will isolate significant features of practice in order to improve immediate system failures.

The point is not that these conflicts are necessarily irreconcilable, but that we need to give them attention when designing and evaluating such programs. Experience has shown it is possible. Three of the most interesting international case studies evaluated inservice education and training programs that were intended to stimulate professional development and to improve school practice: Elliott (U.K.), Larsson (Sweden), and Olsen (Denmark). Some of the most insightful literature in evaluating inservice education and training programs intended to improve school practice and to implement social policy are in the works of the Centre for Applied Research in Education in Norwich, England (see MacDonald; MacDonald and Walker; MacDonald and Norris; Jenkins et. al). Some of the richest experience and resulting insights we hold are in our resolutions of the conflicting characteristics implied in Figure 1. What we need is a better way to discuss, compare and
Inservice education and training for:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stimulating Professional Development</th>
<th>Improving School Practice</th>
<th>Implementing Social Policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic to participating educators</td>
<td>Intrinsic to educational system; extrinsic to participating educators</td>
<td>Intrinsic to societal goals, ideals; extrinsic to educational system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizes complex professional demands</td>
<td>Recognizes significant features for particular purposes</td>
<td>Professional demands, complexity not relevant (except as barriers to social reform)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizes social pressures for educational practice may change</td>
<td>An institutional response to a particular pressure</td>
<td>Recognizes a symbiotic role for education in changing social pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May or may not assume professional knowledge is expanding</td>
<td>Usually assume professional knowledge is expanding</td>
<td>Expanding of professional knowledge is often questioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumes that range of understanding and professional performance must develop to deal with unanticipated futures</td>
<td>Assumes that understanding and professional performance must be improved to deal with immediate institutional failures</td>
<td>Assumes that understanding and professional performance are related to social ills and can be transformed for social reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical basis in developmental theories (e.g., psychological stages, process of socialization)</td>
<td>Theoretical basis in organizational development and institutional change theories</td>
<td>Theoretical basis in theories of social reform (e.g., economic, political, intellectual, ideological)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich tradition in practices of 1930's and 1940's</td>
<td>Rich tradition in practices of 1950's, 60's and 70's</td>
<td>Rich tradition in practices of certain ages of social reform (e.g., Industrial revolution)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inservice education and training can be both means and end</td>
<td>Inservice education and training is means to an institutional end</td>
<td>Inservice education and training (indeed all of education) is means to social end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has attractive connotations about personal and professional autonomy of participating educators to improve self -- thus, confidently stated</td>
<td>Has unattractive connotations about external pressure and a deficiency model of the participating educator -- thus, stated with caution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Characteristics of Three Contexts For Inservice Education and Training (Formed By Our Intentions)
analyze those practices, insights and experiences we have gained from inservice education and training programs that have been supported for multiple reasons. I have two suggestions:

1) Use a taxonomy that allows for combinations of the reasons to be discussed, and

2) Use language that allows us to distinguish between purposes and aims of inservice education and training.

The following 3-dimensional taxonomy is suggested.

Take the three reasons given for the support of inservice education and training:

1) stimulating professional development,

2) improving school practice, and

3) implementing social policy.

Consider each as a singular dimension, a continuum with intervals from low to high. Place the dimensions as orthogonal axes to define a space where an inservice education and training program is located by its place on the respective dimensions.

If we take stimulating professional development and improving school practice as two axes, for example, the two continua define a two dimensional space. All inservice education and training programs can be placed in this space. In Figure 2 INSET program A is primarily supported for improving school practice and minimally supported for stimulating professional development, INSET program B is supported for stimulating professional development and for improving school practice, and INSET program C is exclusively supported for stimulating professional development. (The three are relatively "high" in their primary concerns which would not be necessary for all programs).

The example in Figure 2 differs significantly from a 1978 monograph written by Professor Ray Bolam. In that monograph, Bolam suggested that stimulating professional development and improving school practice be considered as opposite end points on the same continuum as is shown in Figure 3. (Bolam called the first "personal education" and the second "vocational/career education/training".)

Figure 2 and Figure 3 are similar in one respect: they both consider stimulating professional development and improving school practice as continua (that is, with varying gradations of emphasis). The difference is that Figure 2 suggests that a program can be supported for both reasons, Figure 3 does not. Taking INSET program C from Figure 2, for example, and placing it on the Bolam grid (Figure 3) is simple. Perhaps
Figure 2: Example of 2-dimensional space for locating inservice education and training programs

Figure 3. One Dimension of Bolam Grid (OECD, 1978)

Figure 4. 3-Dimension Space for locating inservice education and training programs.
placing INSET program A on the Bolam grid is not much of a problem. either. Where, however, would INSET program B be placed on the Bolam grid? A program intended to improve school practice and to stimulate professional growth? Figure 4 includes the third reason for supporting inservice education and training, to implement social policy, as a third dimension. Figure 4 is a 3-dimensional space where inservice education and training programs can be located by the reasons expressed for their support.

In addition to the 3-dimensional space of Figure 4, I suggest that it is necessary at times to distinguish the purposes from the aims of our inservice education and training programs. Purposes are our immediate intentions and aims are our eventual goals for inservice education and training. If we permit a distinction between purposes and aims, then we can refer, for example, to a program whose purpose was to stimulate professional development and whose aim was to improve school practice. For such a program it may be essential to ask in what ways the purpose (stimulating professional development) was related to its aim (improving school practice). A distinction between purpose and aim would allow us to describe and analyze (from the performance of the program) the extent to which its aim was reached and the extent to which the purpose, in this instance, may be judged to have been related to the aim. There may be many inservice education and training programs where distinctions between purposes and aims are essential in evaluating the performance and success of the program.

A significant part of the context of our inservice education and training programs is created by the reasons we use for supporting our programs. These contexts may be different, depending upon our reasons (see Figure 1); they may be complex when we have multiple reasons or when there are distinctions between the purposes and the aims of our programs. The complexities of our programs may be more capable of analysis, comparison and understanding if a) we consider seriously the characteristics implied by the three reasons we use to support inservice education and training, b) we use a 3-dimensional taxonomy that allows for combinations of these reasons to be used for the same program (see Figure 4), and c) we use a language that can distinguish our reasons for inservice education and training into purposes and aims when it is appropriate.
Another significant part of the context of our inservice education and training programs is the setting in which a program takes place. The international case studies suggest that there are three different settings in which inservice education and training programs have been performed:

1) in single schools, for the entire staff, sometimes referred to as "school-focused" INSET,

2) in multiple schools, for entire or selected staff from an educational system larger than a single school (e.g. a "feeder system" or a "school district" in the U.S.), and

3) in ad-hoc groups, for persons in a group which has been formed on a temporary basis (e.g. a university course or a series of Teacher Center workshops).

These three settings (single school, multiple school, ad-hoc groups) can be considered as strategies for reaching the purposes (and aims) of our inservice education and training programs.

Thus, there are two significant parts to the context of our inservice education and training programs: 1) that created by the three reasons we use to support inservice education and training and 2) the settings in which these programs are performed. To articulate or analyze our experience, to judge our effectiveness, to assess what we have learned from our experience in inservice education and training will take a precise identification of what our intentions are and what the setting is. If we discuss only the setting, for example, important features of our own experience are left uncritically analyzed and resulting professional dialogue becomes disjointed and unilluminative.
B. A Critical Analysis of Six Principles Formed at Bournemouth

"In the development of school-focused INSET, evaluation was agreed to be: essential; collaborative, with teachers involved; important for diagnosis, process study and outcome measurement; part of the teachers' professional responsibility and required at many levels within schools as organizations."

(Bournemouth, England, March, 1978 as reported by Mr. Keith Baker, p. 13)

Keith Baker's report on the Bournemouth Conference offers a succinct synopsis of five characteristics that conference participants agreed were basic to the evaluation of school-focused inservice education and training. In addition to the five characteristics described above, there was a sixth characteristic that all agreed was necessary in evaluating school-focused INSET: that the investigations be "illuminative" in the sense described by Parlett and Hamilton.

There were 42 participants at Bournemouth from a number of OECD member countries. They were to address their remarks to school-focused inservice education and training. They were to focus on two issues, one being strategies for evaluating school-focused inservice education and training, the other being the training of INSET trainers. One purpose of the Bournemouth meeting was to identify where international collaborative efforts in school-focused INSET could be profitable. Conference activities included distribution of papers from previous conferences, keynote addresses, papers prepared and briefly introduced, group discussions around the themes of the conference and the preparation and reporting of recommendations for future action.

Discussions of the evaluation of school-focused inservice education and training at the Bournemouth conference were initiated through three papers, one by Ray Bolam and Keith Baker (U.K.), one by Harold Eklund (Sweden) and one by Kenneth Howey (U.S.). Keith Baker reported on the resulting discussions. It pointed out, for example, that they were a small group who had severe difficulties with terminology. One difficulty pointed out by Baker was an unresolved disagreement on the meaning and importance of the term "needs-assessment" as it applied to the design and eventual assessment of school-focused INSET. The group did, however, agree on six principles for evaluating school-focused INSET. The following is a critical analysis of these six principles. The point of the analysis is to indicate what can happen if we limit our view of the context of an inservice education and training program to the setting without recognizing the existence of different reasons for choosing the inservice education and training programs.

Evaluation is essential to school-focused INSET. This principle does not generalize across contexts created by different purposes for school-focused inservice education and training. The evaluation of a school-focused INSET program is not essential when the purpose is to improve school practice. What is essential is an evaluation of school
practices and the relationship of these changes to the inservice education and training. The primary concern is the school practice; the secondary concern is the design of the program or how the design was implemented.

The essential nature of evaluation to school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development is a different matter. Evaluation of the inservice education activities may be an essential part of the instructional process. As a few of the case studies show, evaluation may be integrated into the educational activities where investigation and reflective analysis are the curriculum (e.g. Olsen, Larson, Elliott). When investigation and reflective analysis are the curriculum, the evaluation of a school-focused INSET program looks quite different from the ways in which most of us have conducted it. There are claims being made (e.g. by John Elliott) that if professional development is both the purpose and the aim of an INSET program, then evaluation may be a peculiar and not entirely helpful way to consider the relationship between professional reflectivity and professional practice. The essential nature of evaluation to INSET for professional development may be problematic enough where evaluation may become a less solemn and a more personal activity.

Evidence from the international case studies of school-based INSET intended to stimulate professional development and to improve school practice suggests that evaluation may be essential. The reason is found in the conflict within a program that is expected to be intrinsic to both the individual and to the institution. One solution to resolving the conflict is to show through the evaluation process that the program is responsive to the participating educators. Often, unfortunately, other conflicting characteristics in school-focused INSET programs intended to stimulate professional growth and to improve school practice (see Figure 1) are not addressed. There is a lack of vision expressed in these programs for what professional development is or what it can be. Related to that is the lack of attention given to resolving theories of professional development with theories of institutional change both in the design and in the evaluation of these multiple purpose programs. Thus, the principle may be a practical response to one conflicting characteristic, but it does not illuminate how other conflicting characteristics are to be addressed when evaluating school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional growth and to improve school practice.

In evaluating school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy, what is essential is the investigation of the social policy and its implementation; the evaluation of inservice education and training is not essential. A primary target in investigating the implementation of social policy through school-focused INSET would be the link between the school-focused INSET activities and the implementation of the policy. The investigation may also need to be comparative, not necessarily between inservice education and training strategies, but between inservice education and training and other possible strategies.
for implementing a social policy. This may include cost comparisons. In some contexts it may be essential to investigate how combinations of purposes (e.g. stimulating professional development and improving the school system) can be used to help achieve the aim of the school-focused INSET programs intended to implement social policy. Thus, stating that evaluation is essential to school-focused INSET is falling far short of what would be needed if we were to evaluate a school-focused INSET program intended to implement a public policy. Clearly the essential nature of evaluation is not in its usefulness to the inservice education and training activities but rather in its usefulness to those who formed the policy and to those who are responsible for seeing these policies articulated into school settings.

In short, the purpose(s) of a school-focused INSET program determine whether evaluation is or is not essential. Moreover, the general principle turns attention away from why evaluation is important or what is essential to a study of a school-focused INSET program. If school-focused INSET, for example, were intended to improve school practice, certainly essential features of an investigation into that program would be on the improvement of school practice and the relationships of the INSET activities to those improvements. Too much attention is being given by this principle to the inservice education and training activities; not enough attention is being given to the differing reasons for supporting school-focused INSET.

Finally, there is an inherent problem to a principle which states that evaluation is essential. Making evaluation essential to school-focused INSET is one way to reduce, not increase, the possibilities that evaluation may bring to the enterprise. It can become a routine requirement where the focus may be "did you do an evaluation or not?" The reason for evaluating, the focus of the evaluation, its major questions, the anticipated problems in school-focused INSET achieving its purposes and its aims, the opportunities for a creative response to capturing these problems, can become submerged under the essential nature of the undertaking.

The point is not that evaluation is not essential to school-focused INSET. However, experiences from the international case studies suggest it is problematic how an evaluation may serve the multiple purposes of school-focused inservice education and training programs. The essentiality of evaluation to school-focused INSET needs to be addressed according to the aims of the program, whether they be to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice and/or to implement public policy.

INSET evaluation is collaborative. The meaning of collaboration in an evaluation study differs significantly, given different purposes for school-focused INSET. Who may be involved in the evaluation, the extent of participation, the process of participation and the integration of participation in the program design as well as in the evaluation may
be decidedly different, depending upon the purposes for school-focused INSET.

In evaluating school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice, the principle has meaning because collaboration is being recognized as a viable strategy for getting educators to adapt new practices (see McLaughlin and Berman). In many of the international case studies, for example, collaboration in the evaluation of the programs was clearly intended to encourage those who were being changed to become part of the change process. The involvement, however, emphasized participating educators' analysis of the inservice education and training activities; it seldom meant a concentrated effort by the program designers, evaluators and participating educators to analyze the extent to which school practice was improved (or why). In addition, in evaluating school-focused INSET intended to improve school practices, there has been a limited view of who are to collaborate. There are few risks taken as far as including non-educators, community members and those who are normally not included in educational decision-making in our respective countries (women and minorities, for example). Furthermore, it seems that teachers, in evaluating school-focused INSET programs intended to improve school practice, did not readily accept their role as collaborators. Some case studies suggested that this may have been because the inservice education and training was quite obviously a means to an end that was seldom made explicit. In some cases, of course, it was difficult to address or acknowledge the participating educator as an equal partner. In many cases, it would have been inappropriate to assume that practitioners were equal partners, particularly when it was their practice that was being improved.

When the purpose for school-focused INSET is to stimulate professional development, collaboration in the evaluation makes sense for different reasons. Collaboration between program designer, evaluator and participating educators is especially relevant when professional development is interpreted as developing powers of self-observation and professional reflectivity. In these cases, the medium—evaluation and self-investigation—is the message. Evaluation is self-reflective inquiry and becomes the aim and process of the inservice education and training. In fact, the term collaboration limits rather than describes most practices of inservice education and training where the intent is to stimulate self-reflective inquiry in participating educators. We must remind ourselves, however, that in most cases professional development has been a purpose but not necessarily the aim of our school-focused INSET programs.

Collaboration in evaluating school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development and to improve school practice may have double meaning. It makes sense as a method to encourage participating educators to change their school practice. It makes sense as a method to instill self-reflective inquiry. How both these meanings become integrated into one style of collaboration is a problem. Usually the
style of collaboration emphasizes the need to open participating educators up to specific change in their practice rather than to self-reflective inquiry into their own assumptions, intentions, and practices for their own professional purposes. Unfortunately, given the dual purposes, the meaning of collaboration for stimulating professional development tends to be pushed aside.

When referring to school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy, collaboration is obviously more than teachers and program designers being involved in the evaluation. Collaboration in the evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy would necessarily be political. As a principle to follow, it would be ambitious, perhaps radical and probably the most significant of all the principles stated at the Bournemouth conference. There are some of us, for example, who are natural supporters of inservice education and training (e.g. university professors, teachers, school administrators). If collaboration only included us who support inservice education and training, an analysis of the viability of school-focused INSET to implement a social policy may not be expected. In practice, there is a strong tendency to reduce rather than increase the voices of those who may have a personal stake in the social policy but little stake in inservice education and training as the means to achieve that policy. Experience shows that collaboration in the evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy is difficult—perhaps more difficult than collaboration in the evaluation of school-focused INSET for professional development or for school improvement. The difficulties are found in finding how the many constituents of a social policy can participate in investigating the viability of school-focused INSET to implement a social policy. Here it is only too obvious that collaboration may become professional versus non-professional, enfranchised versus disenfranchised, where collaboration is rhetoric used to continue the unequal distribution of influence in judging the extent to which social goals are implemented.

In conclusion, there is probably no principle that is so noteworthy and yet so capable of being abused in practice and consequence. Experience suggests that specific examples of the meaning, performance, support and possible consequence of collaboration will be more useful to the profession than an ideal expressed as a single principle.

Evaluation is important to diagnosis, process study and outcome measurement. The significance of this principle changes according to the purpose(s) of our school-focused INSET programs. When school-focused INSET is intended to improve school practice, diagnosis, process study and outcome many be reasonable expectations from an evaluation study. Thus, it is interesting, when looking at examples of the international case studies, that seldom are the investigators analyzing the "outcome": improvement of school practice. Some state that they have intentionally stayed away from the analysis of school improvement. Two reasons are usually given. One reason is the ambiguous link between inservice education and training and school improvement (this was claimed even for some programs where a reason for supporting school-focused INSET
was to improve school practice. Another reason is a lack of faith in the measurement of outcome, particularly in the use of achievement scores. Except for some hypothetical models, the case studies suggest that this principle is either difficult to follow or reluctantly applied, even when the aim of school-focused INSET is to improve school practice. The source of the problem is not necessarily the state of the art in measuring school improvement. There were some case studies, for example, which challenged not only the use of achievement scores but even the possibilities for analyzing changes in teachers' practice. It is interesting when the purpose of school-focused INSET is to improve the school but the evaluators say that the best that can be done is to describe the training process.

It may be that the principle, especially in the inclusion of "outcome measurement", has been found to be most difficult politically in precisely those schools that have been targeted for change through inservice education and training activities. This suggestion from experiences of the international case studies is serious for those who may wish to see school-focused INSET used to achieve particular improvements in school practice. The case studies suggest that evaluation in school-focused settings will not be able to indicate to what extent school practices were improved, no matter how that improvement is "measured". Thus, although the principle seems to make some sense in school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice, examples from case study experience fall far short of the promise.

The application of the principle to school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development is more problematic from the start. The distinctions made between evaluation processes such as diagnosis, process study and outcome measurement are not relevant to the intent or practice of many of these inservice education and training programs. One irony in the international case studies was that the problem with this principle was not in the ability to interpret appropriate meanings of the word "outcome". The few case studies that did have professional development as their primary aim were able to articulate quite clearly particular features of professional development that were intended to be stimulated by the school-focused INSET activities. In fact, the aims of those few programs which were intending to stimulate professional development were more clearly stated than the aims of those which were intending to improve school practice. Thus, the problem with the principle was not that professional development is less able to be "measured" or described than school improvement. It is that the distinctions made between diagnosis, process study and outcome measurement as stages of an evaluation study conflict with the role and process that evaluation plays in those inservice education and training programs whose aim is to stimulate professional growth.

In school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy, the distinction between diagnosis, process study and outcome measurement as stages of evaluative study may be appropriate but they are not necessarily the most important features of an evaluation study. The focus on
the implementation of social policy (the "outcome") is essential. Diagnosis may or may not be important to evaluating school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy. Usually, for example, social policy has already been formed based on some previous indication of general need.

The problem with this principle, however, is that it does not refer to some of the most essential characteristics of an evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy. An evaluation of INSET designed to implement social policy, for example, would necessarily include comparisons with other means for achieving the policy. Cost-effective comparisons or cost-benefit studies may be required. For social policy, a process/outcome evaluation is not enough. An analysis of the outcome reached and the extent to which the process used is linked to that outcome is useful but it is less than a policy maker needs. The policy maker usually needs more information on the related benefits of the possible alternatives to the school-focused INSET strategy being used. Again, one basic concern of the policy maker is that INSET is only one way among many in which a particular social policy may be reached.

If we look at the few studies that were evaluations of INSET for social policy, they had similar characteristics to those which evaluated INSET for system improvement. There was an emphasis on the INSET used and its acceptance or rejection by the recipients, but comparatively little attention given to the outcome, the policy aim. When the outcomes were addressed directly, the possible alternatives to using INSET as a means or the relative merits of different means to achieve similar social policies were not addressed. The principle, then, may seem to apply to the evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy, but perhaps detrimentally to the investigatory and advisory responsibilities of the evaluation studies.

INSET evaluation is part of the teachers' professional responsibility. Teacher professional responsibility for evaluating school-focused INSET loses meaning and relevance depending upon the purposes of the inservice education and training. When school-focused INSET is intended to improve school practice, the principle offers an alternative to professional reward: make it a job responsibility. Experience is suggesting, however, that it may be more useful to improve school practice if the teacher were to be partly responsible for evaluating the extent to which the school has been improved rather than evaluate the process of the school-focused INSET program. An emphasis on teachers evaluating the inservice education and training is misplaced. Instead, if teachers analyze the influences of specific inservice education and training processes on their own practices, it may inadvertently improve their practice.
When stimulating professional development is the aim of school-focused INSET, the principle may be more applicable but less creative. As the one for whom the school-focused INSET is designed, part of a teacher's responsibility is to evaluate the extent to which the experience is enriching and personally satisfying. To this the principle adds little. A far more risky statement, but one with nearly the same meaning when applied to school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development, would be to state that professional development is part of a teacher's professional responsibility.

When applied to school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy, the principle is exciting and limiting. The excitement is that teachers are seldom, if ever, responsible for evaluating the extent to which a social policy is implemented (and why). The limitation is that teachers are not the only actors in school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy to whom this principle may be significantly applied.

Thus, the principle may be creative and exciting if it is applied to school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice or to implement social policy only if the responsibility focuses on the evaluation of school improvement or on the implementation of social policy. In school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development, the principle is redundant. Instead of this principle, more specific advice is needed on the resources and policies for supporting particular levels of teacher involvement in the evaluation of those school-focused INSET programs intended to improve schools or to implement social policy.

INSET evaluation is required at many levels within schools as organizations. This principle is the most generally applicable of the six formed at the Bournemouth conference. Emphasizing schools as organizations is particularly relevant to school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice. The school is organizational, has many levels of participants, is hierarchical and operates in routine procedural ways. School improvement may necessarily include changes in the organizational structure; changes in the routine or practice of one level in the school may be contingent upon the capacity of another level to change. It is reasonable to suggest that evaluations of school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice direct their investigations to the organizational systems of the school in which the in-service education and training is performed. Many of the international case studies said as much in their closing statements.

The many leveled features of schools as organizations provide a different set of problems to the evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development. When professional development is the aim of a school-focused INSET program, the organizational context in which the education and training occurs and in which the development may take place is often considered as extraneous noise and bothersome reality. On the other hand, the few case studies of
programs where professional development was the aim indicated that supportive resources of the organization were necessary if professional development were to be significantly initiated, maintained or encouraged to grow. Unfortunately, these observations were usually made at the end of the investigations and were not a part of the focus of the evaluation studies. The collective advice; however, is clear: if professional development is the aim of a school-focused INSET program, it would be useful to direct some attention to the organizational context (see Anglin et. al; Meyer).

The organizational context is particularly interesting when school-focused INSET is intended to implement social policy. Experience from the international case studies as well as other studies (see Corwin; Fox) of evaluations of inservice education and training programs intended to implement social policy suggest the crucial importance of the organizational contexts. Furthermore, experience shows how essential it is to analyze the extent to which a social policy is implemented from a perspective of what is organizationally possible. Studies that have investigated school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy take the school organization as being problematic, that is, as an influencing factor that can be changed. Investigations into school-focused INSET intended to improve schools or to stimulate professional development can do likewise.

Experience suggests that evaluations of school-focused INSET can benefit from an investigation of how the inservice education and training is influenced by, and influences, the many levels of school organizations. A major problem pointed out in the case studies, however, is not in the significance of the principle but in how the principle may be applied. The concern is how the organizational context can be critically examined in school-focused INSET programs intended to improve school practices or to stimulate professional development. It is a natural consideration in evaluating school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy.

INSET evaluation should be illuminative. In beginning our analysis of the general applicability of illuminative evaluation for different contexts of school-focused INSET programs, it may be well to remind ourselves how Parlett and Hamilton described illuminative evaluation and the context in which they presented their argument. "Illuminative evaluation" was directed towards the evaluation of innovative curriculum programs of designed interventions upon schooling practices. It was directed at one purpose of inservice education and training: to improve school practice. In focusing on innovative curricular interventions to improve the schools, Parlett and Hamilton described in quite explicit detail what they meant by the term "illuminative evaluation". The reports of an illuminative evaluation, for example, should make a program recognizable to others outside the innovation, where the conclusions may increase rather than lessen the sense of uncertainty, where theoretical principles underlying the investigation are made explicit.
and where evidence is presented in such a way that others can judge its quality and make alternative interpretations. They also articulated particular views of what is an educational program (e.g. a unique pattern of circumstances) and what is the purpose for evaluation (to understand the innovative process and its intended and unintended consequences).

Parlett and Hamilton were addressing the evaluation of those situations where curriculum programs are designed (usually outside of the school setting) and then placed into the schools. Their emphasis on process, reporting procedure, curriculum theory, ambiguity and dialogue assumed a situation in which school practice was being improved from external professional sources. Their argument was that in evaluating curriculum innovations, the professional respect for the educational milieu of curricular programs (the teachers, students, existing curriculum) and especially the intentions of all actors needed to be considered. The power of their argument was in the view that theoretical perspectives and instructional/curricular intentions were held by all actors in the innovative enterprise and that these perspectives, attitudes and responses (rational and emotional) to the innovation were significant factors in the performance and eventual successes and failures of particular innovative curriculum programs.

How does illuminative evaluation articulated for evaluating innovative curriculum programs become adapted to the evaluation of specific school-focused inservice education and training programs? The principle does not make that clear. If we look closer at the three purposes that can be held for school-focused INSET, it is apparent that the adaptation would be quite different depending upon the context created by our intentions for inservice education and training.

In applying a perspective of illuminative evaluation to the evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice, we have two choices. We can interpret the "curriculum innovation" to be the practices we intend to instill in the school. With this interpretation of the innovative feature in an INSET program, applying an illuminative evaluation would be comparatively straightforward. We would, as Parlett and Hamilton suggest, focus on the instructional milieu of the school, participants' theories of instructional practices, their perspectives on what is occurring in the INSET and the attitudes and responses to what occurs. The inservice education and training program would be only a part of the focus of the evaluation. It would be subsumed in a larger perspective of curriculum, one that was particularly related to the practices being intervened upon by the program. As rich a challenge as this interpretation brings to an illuminative evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice, no international case studies applied an illuminative perspective in this way. Instead, they interpreted the curriculum innovation to be the inservice education and training program itself. This choice resulted in placing the focus on the theories of teacher education and curriculum, on what occurred in the school-focused INSET activities.
and its impact on the participants. Illumination was sought for teacher education rather than for school change. Either choice is possible in applying the principle of illuminative evaluation to school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice. The latter, however, overinterprets the degree to which participating educators have a theory of teacher education. Stating that an evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to improve school practice is to be an illuminative evaluation does not clarify what will be done, nor even what will be interpreted as the intervention.

Applying an "illuminative" perspective to the evaluations of school-focused INSET intended to stimulate professional development is no problem. Clearly the innovation is the INSET program. Thus, most of the features of the illuminative perspective described by Parlett and Hamilton are consistent with most aims for professional development. Implicit theories of professional development, for example, are held by all participating educators, what occurs in the inservice education and training and its intended and unintended consequences are unquestionably relevant to the intent and purpose of the school-focused INSET programs. In circumstances when school-focused INSET is intended to stimulate professional development, the critical views to understanding the program are those views about teacher education. The few international case studies that focused on programs aimed at stimulating professional development show how an illuminative perspective can be readily applied to evaluating these inservice education and training programs.

Apparent from other studies, however, is the problem in trying to apply an illuminative perspective to INSET programs that are intending to improve school practice as well as to stimulate professional development. In evaluating these programs, the unfortunate tendency has been to focus only on the illumination of the inservice education and training and its stimulation of professional development to the detriment of the added purpose: to improve school practice. To adapt an illuminative perspective to school-focused INSET with multiple purposes is a very difficult undertaking because it places the program into more than one context. Each context has a different theoretical base; each context has differing spheres of influence and consequence.

An illuminative evaluation of school-focused INSET intended to implement social policy is interesting to imagine. Clearly it would place the inservice education and training in a milieu that is wider than the school or than the field of teacher education. The implicit theories held by participants may be more difficult to ascertain as well as more couched in everyday language. Moreover, the range of participants would be greater, including, of course, the policy makers and the intended beneficiaries of the social policy. The challenge is interesting but the principle gives no insight into how an illuminative investigation of a school-focused INSET program intended to implement social policy would be designed or carried out. (There is one study currently being tried in the U.S., a three to five year study of the Teacher Corps program that is trying to adapt an illuminative perspective. The difficulties,
particularly in terms of illuminating social policy, have been enormous."

Thus, as attractive as the illuminative perspective is to many of us policy makers, program designers and evaluators, the principle is not nearly as helpful as we would like - or need. It is not apparent from the principle how the notions of illuminative evaluation will be applied to inservice education and training programs aimed at improving school practice or at implementing social policy. Particularly for those two purposes of school-focused INSET, there may be far more groundwork, preparatory dialogue and maintenance needed to initiate, implement and sustain an illuminative evaluation of school-focused INSET programs than is suggested by the stated principle.
C. Conclusion and an Optimistic Solution

The six principles formed in the Bournemouth conference indicate a refreshing sensitivity to the adult world of inservice education and training and an uncommon zeal for insightful evaluation. However, they may restrict the creativity of evaluation and reduce its power to inform. Even though the settings were similar (school-focused INSET), the principles formed at Bournemouth take on different meanings and levels of significance depending upon our purposes for inservice education and training. What is needed are more detailed guidelines for specific contexts and more direct attention to specific problems affiliated with particular contexts.

If we begin to look at the purposes of school-focused INSET, where do problems in evaluation occur? This analysis of the international case studies suggests that one obvious situation fretted with problems in evaluating inservice education and training is when more than one purpose is intended. Most of these principles, for example, are difficult to interpret or apply in programs that intend to improve school practice and to stimulate professional development. That does not necessarily imply that we should not or cannot have more than one purpose for our inservice education and training programs (or have multiple purposes and aims). In fact some of the most interesting programs evaluated and some of the most creative approaches to evaluation are found in three international case studies where multiple purposes were intended. It does suggest, however, the seriousness of the rhetoric we use as reasons for supporting an inservice education and training program. Our rhetoric creates part of our context and we may be creating a context that is more complex than necessary.

Another conclusion is implied as we consider inservice education and training intended to implement social policy. The analysis of the principles formed at Bournemouth indicates just how much work needs to be done if we are to evaluate our programs in this context. There are relatively few examples of evaluations of inservice education and training programs intended to implement social policy. In addition to there being little experience, the analysis suggests just how different an evaluation in this context would be from evaluations of programs intended to improve school practice or to stimulate professional development. Theories of social reform, the perspectives used for analysis, the focus on the policy and the policy making process, the embeddedness of educational practice in our respective societies become central to evaluations of inservice education and training intended to implement social policy. There are some of us who suggest that all programs are intended to implement social policy. If that is our intention, then our evaluations of inservice education and training would necessarily be conducted with far more intention to social policy, its formation and its context than we have given in most of our past studies of inservice education and training.
Our intentions for inservice education and training can be just as significant in ad-hoc groups and multiple school settings as well as in school-focused settings. The setting, after all, is part of the strategy used to reach our intentions for inservice education and training. Whether we intend to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice or to implement social policy, there is no foregone conclusion which setting may be most viable. The choice of setting does not imply purpose. Thus, we need to analyze our actions and learn our lessons not only in light of the settings we perform in but also in light of the intentions we hold.

The conclusion is simple. If our basic intent is to improve school practice, say so; if it is to stimulate professional development, say so; if it is to implement social policy, say so. If we want to combine more than one purpose for our inservice education and training, do so with the knowledge that we are creating a significant challenge to evaluating these programs. The worst possible situation, however, is one that has happened too often in these international case studies: that is when we take our rhetoric more seriously than we intended. Too often, for example, "professional development" became a slogan we used to gain support of an inservice education and training program that was intended for quite a different purpose. That is not necessarily all bad but then we evaluate the program as if it were primarily intended to stimulate professional development. If we are more careful about the rhetoric we use in supporting inservice education and training programs and less inclusive in some of our stated intentions, perhaps our inservice education and training programs can be more effective. Certainly the evaluations of these programs would be more realistic and perhaps eventually more illuminative to us policy makers, program designers and evaluators.

The solution? Articulate the reasons we hold for supporting inservice education and training. Consider the setting (e.g. school-focused) as one strategy for meeting our purpose(s) for inservice education and training. Analyze our experience in terms of the context we have constructed by our intentions for performing inservice education and training and by the chosen setting, and then determine what we have to do to evaluate our programs better given our intentions. To disregard our intentions for inservice education and training is to limit reflection upon our experience and to impair our ability to do better next time.
III. Issues to Confront When Reflecting Upon The Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training

A. Confronting Mundane Realities to Evaluating Inservice Education and Training

Further reflection on evaluating inservice education and training needs more than has been provided thus far. The six principles from the Bournemouth conference serve only as a starting point for dialogue. The international case studies are too tame and too cautious to stand alone as primary sources for candid discussion. Future references to our intentions for inservice education and training (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy) are likely to be hollow if they do not refer to the irascible and the difficult in our performance. What is needed is to place our past performance into a realistic and grounded perspective. If we are to use our past performance in INSET evaluation for redeveloping future performance, a way is needed to bring up for public inspection the challenging and peculiarly exasperating features of what we do when we evaluate inservice education and training.

This is not as easy as it may sound. Telling stories of our past performance, for example, is not enough. As we tell our stories, we are sure to "make sense and lose meaning" (as Walker reminds us), not because we necessarily embellish our performance but just the opposite, we necessarily leave out those portions of what we did that do not make sense. In recreating our actions, our understanding gets in the way of our experience; we reduce the range of recollection to the sense of the story that we can tell others. There are ways to urge experience to be recalled. One way is to create fictional accounts that place disparate features of experience together in order to stimulate new understanding. (Walker tries this in a 1979 NSF case study.) There are other ways. Many are creative in their approach to inducing recollections, begging for reconstructions of personal knowledge. Simulations, photography, music, poetry, highly personal vignettes and directed challenges from "foreign" perspectives (e.g. teacher vs. student) all have been used to stimulate us to bring up for inspection previously unnoticed features in our work. In a recent OECD conference, there was a more common method used to stimulate the recall of the peculiar, challenging and surprising aspects of our work in evaluating inservice education and training. That method was the raising of issues from personal experience.

Experience began to surface in a two day meeting between the writers of the international case studies on the evaluation of inservice education and training, managers of OECD, the reporter of the Bournemouth conference and this writer. The issues were formed, related and discussed in terms of personal professional experience. Questions were raised. Problems were exemplified. Old issues were redirected by participants'
more recent experiences in evaluating inservice education and training. All participants had performed INSET evaluations themselves. Most had written reviews of some of their compatriots' efforts and felt comfortable that they could represent more than their own views on evaluating inservice education and training. Most had attended previous OECD sponsored conferences on inservice education and training; some had arrived at the working principles at Bournemouth. The resulting two days of discussion, then, could be considered as an extension of the experience begun by the writing of the international case studies and the discussions of previous OECD conferences on evaluating inservice education and training. Issues were raised from members' direct experience gained in evaluating inservice education and training as well as from vicarious experience gained from reviewing others' evaluations. Members had been policy makers and program designers as well as evaluators in their respective countries.

Of course the two day conference must also be judged and understood as an international two day meeting directed towards raising significant issues. Ten individuals from different countries, holding similar professional concerns and building parallel careers, were expected to reconsider their experience and open their views for analysis in a spirit of professional dialogue. We know this seldom happens whether it is in a national or an international context. In such settings, the natural process is first to carve out one's own professional image, then, if time is left, to engage in some dialogue from the positions that have been created. This process occurred and professional images were formed before much dialogue began and were sustained as issues were being raised. I have tried to capture the irascible problems that the ten members at the conference considered significant as they recalled their experience in performing and reviewing evaluation of inservice education and training in their respective countries.

It is important to realize that the procedural intent to raise issues from experience was different from previous OECD conferences on inservice education and training. The intent was not to arrive at principles for evaluating inservice education and training, nor was it to come to a consensus on what made good evaluations. Instead, the intent was to raise what from their own experience seemed to make evaluating inservice education and training challenging, frustrating and difficult. Although there was a lack of reference to the intentions of inservice education and training, there were occasional outbursts requesting more clarity of the special problems faced in evaluating an inservice education and training program that is intended to stimulate professional development and to improve school practice. That concern was understood but not addressed.

What was addressed were three mundane realities of evaluating inservice education and training. These realities are:
1) the bureaucratic context of evaluating inservice education and training;

2) the choice of methodology for evaluating inservice education and training;

3) the many meanings of "participation" when evaluating inservice education and training.

Although the phrase "mundane realities" may be redundant (mundane being worldly), it is meant to denote our understanding that a) we all know that these features of our work exist (that is, they are part of our world in evaluating inservice education and training) and b) they seem to be distinct where we tend to float in and out of them at will but seldom stay in two at once (thus "realities"). Most of the issues raised emanated from these realities.

The intent of the following is to point to the rich fabric of our experience. Considering the profane nature of these realities and the limited representation of ten persons from six different countries, the issues are dense, lively and worthy of our consideration. They may help those of us who have past experience in evaluating inservice education and training to recall significant features of that experience that we may have forgotten. They may help those of us who have little experience to anticipate what may be significant if we become involved in evaluating inservice education and training. The variety of issues is not exhaustive, nor are the three realities. The following issues were raised as lessons learned from individual experience. They were not generalizations, they were not intended to be corroborated through consensus. Instead, they were to be understood as reflective observations formed in limited contexts. The significance of these observations to other specific contexts is expected to vary and to be established only through analyses from other experiences (such as those of the reader).

B. Issues Proceeding From The Bureaucratic Context

Bureaucracy is not used here in a pernicious sense. A modern bureaucracy is staffed by persons who have been educated to a degree not anticipated by most critics of bureaucracies. Simple stereotypes do not hold. Ignorance, misunderstanding and limited perspectives are no more descriptive of the modern bureaucrat than they are of the evaluator or teacher educator. In education, of course, almost all of us are bureaucrats, funded by public monies to perform public services. Institutional routine and regimented rules of procedure are well understood by all of us, no matter what our positions in our respective educational agencies or institutions.
Bureaucracies are a nearly universal phenomenon in modern Western cultures. They exist as practical agencies to deliver public services. They are to ensure that policies made by our elected officials are implemented. The difference between the policy as intended, as written in legislation may become quite distinct from the policy as interpreted by the bureaucrat (see Edelman). This is where bureaucratic power may be overinterpreted by either the bureaucracy, the client, or, as is sometimes the case, those who are contracted by the bureaucracy to perform a service (like evaluation). They are, however, interpretive bodies with a range of decision-making responsibilities that may go beyond their authority. They are usually hierarchically organized with distinct levels of responsibilities formally maintained. This hierarchy is often compressed into a horizontal view of the agency by those who are receiving the direct services (see Lipsky). The modern bureaucrat, then, is comparatively well educated, may have some flexibility in interpreting policy and making decisions, exists in a hierarchical organization but is considered by the clients to be singularly responsible and authoritative. In short, the context in which a modern bureaucrat works is very complex.

In the complex context of the bureaucrat, a view towards science as positivistic, empirical inquiry, capable of universal acceptance and recognized as legitimate sources for particular decisions can be understood. The need of most bureaucracies is to reduce their complexities, making their decisions appear more rational and reasonable to internal critics as well as to external clients.

Inservice education and training is almost always embedded in a modern bureaucracy. It is and has been very often designed as the means through which an educational policy shall be reached or a social aim may be implemented. Regardless of the setting or who initiated the inservice education and training, its evaluation is nearly always sponsored by a bureaucratic, governmental agency (local, regional or national). This mundane reality that a bureaucratic context exists raises a number of issues about the performance, perspective, purpose and audience for the evaluation of inservice education and training. The following are only some of the issues which were expressed at the international conference on INSET evaluation by those who had performed and analyzed evaluations of inservice education and training in their respective countries.

Bl. There may be nothing as "political" to a bureaucrat as the evaluation of inservice education and training. A crucial difference between the bureaucracy which interprets public policy into action and the legislature which creates public policy is the meaning of "political". To an elected official, "political" may refer to party affiliations and active electoral constituencies. The political process of collaboration, involvement and negotiation has everything to do with representative democracy and little do do with constituencies' professional status. In a bureaucracy, "political" may have a quite different meaning. Collaboration and negotiation may first relate to dealing with the internal
relationships which make up much of the office reality of a bureaucrat. Furthermore, the political process in a bureaucracy is focused on how to deal with professionals who represent conflicting but powerful interests. In evaluating inservice education and training, a variety of conflicting professional interests may be affected and many bureaucratic levels may be involved. Thus, from a bureaucratic viewpoint, the evaluation of inservice education and training is a highly political activity. To an elected official, however, the evaluation of inservice education and training may not be political because of the relatively small constituency directly involved.

B2. There is a respectability and a legitimacy to pseudo-scientific results. Bureaucratic sponsorship of evaluations of inservice education and training need objective accounts and judgments that can reduce the amount of conflicting professional opinions and can increase the legitimacy of their own interpretations of what is appropriate action in implementing public policy. Since there is no science that can provide such certainty, a pseudo-science is nearly as effective. Results that look objective and free of bias, results that look like they must be universally accepted and cannot be challenged are what a bureaucrat can use most efficiently. The efficacy and desirability of a needs-assessment and of a process-product approach to evaluating inservice education and training are examples of pseudo-sciences. This respect for pseudo-science may also be supported by some members of the academic community who hold narrow professional views of what "science" is when applied to the investigation of educational programs. Phenomenological views of science such as those of Toulmin or Feyerabend are seldom entertained.

B3. Information from evaluations of inservice education and training may be minimally related to bureaucratic policy making procedures. Policies may be made at a legislative level for one set of purposes for supporting inservice education and training and interpreted at various bureaucratic levels for quite different purposes. This causes problems. One problem is who is the audience (it is usually the bureaucracy but not always). A second is what kind of information could be relevant to particular decisions. For whom are the reports designed? Not only may a bureaucrat's need for information be different from a legislator’s need but different bureaucratic levels may require differing kinds of information. The fragmentation of decision-making may itself have serious implications to the conduct of the study. It has been noted by many investigators of policy making that evaluative information may have little relation to specific policy making procedures (see Lindbloom and Cohen, Weiss). Experience in evaluation suggests a more problematic relationship between evaluative information and policy than has been articulated in the literature.

B4. The bureaucratic context may determine some of the most crucial problems faced in the reporting of results. One view of the international case studies, shared by the writers and readers on the reports, is that they seem to be written from a singular context. The cultural differences are not readily apparent, a singular culture of Western bureaucracy is implied. It is the bureaucratic political milieu which may make these
reports much more mundane than the actual experiences. In addition, the fragmentation of responsibility, the many levels of decision making that are part of the bureaucratic organization make reporting from INSET evaluations either a nightmare or impossible. Even within the sponsoring bureaucracy a singular report is inappropriate. The most serious issues, however, are those that ask how more candor, honesty, humor, pathos and passion can be included in the evaluation reports of inservice education and training. One would think that investigations into the work of adults educating adults may be particularly capable of producing creative reports that touch many of our personal and professional nerves. We may need to be careful in selecting how we portray children but need we be so timid about our own portrayals? (see MacDonald) The claim here is that many of the inadequacies in what we report emanate from the bureaucratic context of INSET evaluation. If our reports are to be more adequate and lively, they will have to be made so within their bureaucratic contexts.

B5. We who evaluate have our own bureaucratic context. Increased tendencies towards specialization and certified professionalism of the evaluator suggest that the bureaucratic context of the evaluator may be significant to evaluation of inservice education and training. The choice of evaluation design or the nature of the questions to be asked may be determined by the evaluator's past and place in a bureaucratic hierarchy. The flexibility of evaluators to respond creatively to challenges in evaluating inservice education and training may depend upon the evaluators' abilities to manipulate their own organizational contexts.

B6. A theory-practice dichotomy is reinforced, if not created, by the bureaucratic context. From a bureaucratic viewpoint, a role responsible for producing theory about an educational practice is considered to be higher than the role performing the practice. If A is theorizing about an educational practice (e.g. teaching mathematics), A is nearly always in a higher and different position than the person performing the practice. Hierarchical distinctions between practitioners and theoreticians result in unnecessary implications. A hierarchical distinction suggests that practitioners' theories about their own practices are insufficient for investigation. What is worse, it suggests that the practice of theoreticians may be too difficult to pursue, even when it may be particularly relevant to an evaluation of inservice education and training (e.g. who is to evaluate the professional development of professional developers?) Another implication is that a person lower in the hierarchy cannot be an effective evaluator of functions performed by those higher in the system. The reason given is that they do not have theories of these functions. Teachers, for example, do not have theories of development or theories of school improvement or theories of social reform that would make them appropriate investigators. Thus, the question of who should evaluate inservice education and training and what should be investigated is often limited by the theoretician-practitioner dichotomy supported by bureaucracies involved in the investigation. These problems are acute whether it is professional development, improved school practice or the implementation of social policy.
that are being evaluated.

B7. The bureaucratic context is particularly significant when evaluating the role of inservice education and training in the redistribution or maintenance of power. When the intent of the inservice education and training is to implement social policy (for example, to redistribute educational opportunity), it is necessary to penetrate and analyze the bureaucratic context itself. The reason is obvious. The bureaucratic context may be a significant determinant of the successes and failures of these socially oriented programs. This would include an investigation into the bureaucratic context of the client agency, the sponsoring agency and the evaluators, all of which are not usually performed. Some of the most penetrating perspectives that may be used to investigate the role of the bureaucratic context in the implementation of social policy have political ideologies that look risky in the bureaucratic context. Analyzing inservice education and training as a process of cultural reproduction (e.g. Lundgren and Petterssen; Bernstein) or as the unequal distribution of economic opportunity (e.g. Apple) may be particularly insightful but are seldom considered. Even MacDonald with his emphasis on democratic ideals is seldom referenced. In cases where inservice education and training is performed to implement social policy, ideology as a personal construct of political meaning may be significantly related to what is and what is not done in these programs.

In summary, the bureaucratic context of the evaluation of inservice education and training may be the source of a variety of crucial issues that need be addressed by policy makers and designers as well as by evaluators. Many of the most difficult questions about evaluating inservice education and training arise from its bureaucratic context and must be addressed as they relate to that context. Further understanding of the difficulties in implementing and assessing our performance in evaluating inservice education and training will require reflective inquiry by all involved parties into how the reality of their own bureaucratic context impinges upon the intent, design, conduct, communication and consequences of their investigations. One problem is getting persons who do not normally consider themselves as bureaucrats (e.g. the evaluators, the trainers, the designers) to understand their own bureaucratic context. What is important to consider is that the bureaucratic context is a self-created reality. Those features of this reality that we think are least desirable or too influential on certain issues can be changed. It is not only those issues that emanate from the bureaucratic context that may need to be addressed as we evaluate inservice education and training, it may be the source itself.

C. Issues Proceeding From the Choice of Methodology

A second reality from which emanate a variety of issues on the evaluation of inservice education and training is the choice of methodology for the evaluation. The reality is the need to choose a method for investigation. The methodology used is not automatic, it
is not determined by context; it is determined by us. Thus, the method used to evaluate a particular inservice education and training program may be eclectic and heuristic on rational grounds. The choice of investigatory method may also, of course, be influenced by the bureaucratic context, the bureaucratic contexts of the sponsoring (and client) agencies and of the evaluators. A legitimate reason for selecting one method of investigation over another, for example, is the nature of information that is considered to be most related to the view of the inservice education and training policy makers (e.g., middle level managers in an agency). Another is what the bureaucratic context of the evaluator will allow.

The issues that emanate from the reality of having to choose a particular evaluation methodology refer to what designs and procedures are available and in what circumstances they have proven useful or not useful. They may also refer to the process used to choose a methodology. It may be necessary to note that in evaluating inservice education and training these issues are not only problems to the evaluator but to the policy makers and designers of inservice education and training. The following are some of the issues which were raised by those who had recently performed and analyzed INSET evaluations in their respective countries.

C1. Case study, as a focus on particular instances, has inherent strengths and weaknesses for evaluating inservice education and training programs. One strength of case study is the flexibility in traditional uses. It can mean naturalistic portrayals, theoretically inspired investigations or historical analysis and aggregations. Each has a strong tradition, is grounded in a different set of underlying assumptions and may be used in quite different contexts or circumstances. Naturalistic portrayals are stories told to capture what happened and what it felt like to the participants. The challenge is to tell it like it is, like it was felt to be. It is the imaginative recreation of natural events. Robert Stake, Barry MacDonald and Stephen Kemmis have provided significant examples of and rationales for naturalistic portrayals. Theories, if there are any, are implicitly contained in the stories and are open to multiple interpretations by the readers of naturalistic portrayals. Theoretically inspired investigations, on the other hand, are focused on the formulation and/or analysis of particular theories. The challenge is to make the theory explicit and grounded in the reality of specific circumstances. Glaser and Strauss describe how grounded theory may be generated through case study; Parlett and Hamilton suggest how case studies can be used to illuminate the relative successes and failures of competing educational theories. Stenhouse describes the historically inspired case study and the aggregated forms of case study: the historical survey. The challenge of the historical case study is to capture particular decisions and their consequences in light of specific contingencies. In evaluating inservice education and training, capturing what happened, illuminating the underlying theories of why it happened and relating how decisions are made in light of contingencies all make a great deal of sense. One issue
is which tradition to use. If more than one tradition is appropriate, can they be used simultaneously?

Many other issues emanate from the intent to focus on particular cases. The aggregation of case studies is still a problem (not solved, for example, by Stake and Easley). So, too, is the acceptability or legitimacy of case study to decision makers (e.g., the bureaucratic policy maker or the elected officials who have chosen inservice education and training for a reason). This is becoming less a problem as more examples of how case studies can be applied to policy decisions are produced (e.g., MacDonald, Rist). I have been told, for example, that in the U.S., the reviewers of a proposal for an investigation now going on (Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel) had no trouble with the case study features of the study design but they had, with the same study design, an almost fatal aversion to the participatory features of the design. Since case studies can not be considered to be representative instances of a particular class, the acceptance of case studies suggests that it is the unique situation that is being accepted by bureaucratic policy makers. In the context of specialization of responsibilities, it may be the unique case study, both naturalistic and theoretically inspired, that is most valuable. For a middle-level policy maker, circumstance, contingency, underlying assumptions and consequence may be remarkable in their power to provide insights from a single case.

Generalization becomes an issue to case study, sometimes as a result of the misinterpretations of what can be generalized from quantitative studies (see Levin, Hamilton). The distinctions made between generalization to (from instance A to instance B) and generalization from (from a collection of instances to a generalized case) are helpful in describing how case studies may be considered to be generalizable (see Hamilton). Also helpful are the stated intentions of naturalistic studies (where generalization is the responsibility of the audience) and grounded theory case studies (where a comparison and contrasting of instances helps develop hypotheses).

Some maintain that the case study method is too reflective for the INSET policy maker, others maintain that the term "evaluation" is itself shorthand by policy-makers (both bureaucratic and elected officials) for a spirit of reflectivity towards policy and public action. There were other concerns expressed such as the abuse of case studies for personal ends and the related problems of how to use case study as a tool for professional dialogue and communication between various actors in the inservice education and training. Clearly case study is gaining an unusual amount of interest as a method for evaluating inservice education and training. Just as clearly, there are a number of issues which emanate from a consideration of its use.

C2. The role and potential of new quantitative methods to evaluating inservice education and training is problematic. Traditional quantitative methods based upon experimental designs and matched samplings (Campbell and Stanley) are little help in evaluating inservice
education and training. But that is not all there is (see Fox; Guba). Furthermore, the problem is not necessarily whether one should use a qualitative method (e.g. case study) or a quantitative method (e.g. survey) to investigate inservice education and training. Instead, the challenge is to find appropriate quantitative methods and, in particular, a hope (raised in Parlett and Hamilton) that there may be some way to integrate quantitative methods and qualitative methods of inquiry.

One considerable aid in resolving the quantitative/qualitative debate is the realization that the outcome or consequence of an inservice education and training program need not be measured quantitatively (be it to improve a system, develop a professional educator or reach a social aim). Qualitative investigatory procedures such as portrayals of impact and in-depth witness accounts of the consequences and impinging factors of being in an educational program are recognized by many program designers and policy makers as legitimate accounts of the intended and unintended outcomes of an INSET program. Just as apparent is the possibility that quantitative investigations can provide illuminatory evidence of the instructional process used in inservice education and training. Time-series is one quantitative method that has been used in investigating some inservice education and training programs (e.g. Fox; Anglin et. al). Other stochastic procedures (i.e. quantitative methods to analyze dynamic change and process) are available for use in investigating inservice education and training. These include cluster analysis, catastrophe theory and system models that invite a dialectical interpretation of behavior. Some of these methods, in particular time-series, require concommitant qualitative investigations such as case studies to help interpret the results (see Glass et. al; Fox et. al). Other stochastic procedures such as cluster analysis and catastrophe theory are consistent with the phenomenological basis for much qualitative investigation into human behavior and thus are capable of being integrated into case study investigations.

Furthermore, developments and refinements in the quantitative analysis of "single-subject research" make it possible to perform appropriate quantitative analysis on particular cases over time (see Kratochwill). There are legitimate, highly sophisticated but easily understood methods of analysis where the "subject" (e.g. individual, class, school) can be analyzed and compared to itself rather than to a control group or to matched samples. What is needed is "base-line data," that is, a description of the subject before an intervention (such as inservice education and training) takes place.

Thus, the issues are not whether there are available quantitative procedures consistent with phenomenological perspectives of inquiry. Instead, the issues are more practical. Can these quantitative procedures be learned? (The answer in many cases is yes, easily, see Fox et. al). What is their relative cost in terms of time, money and technical support? (see Hamilton) What do they offer to policy makers and program designers of inservice education and training? The answer
to the last question is that some quantitative methods can help illuminate our understanding of the process and impact of inservice education and training. They cannot, however, be expected to provide unassailable or indisputable results.

C3. The link between the process of inservice education and training and its "product" (improved school practice, implemented policy or professional development) needs special investigatory attention. Traditional process/product studies assume that the linkages are known on obvious, logical grounds. Experience is suggesting that the relationship between the inservice education and training experience and eventual school practice (or implemented policy or professional development) is not well understood and needs to be investigated directly. This is a different problem from those raised by the debate on quantitative or qualitative investigations. Instead the issue rests upon what would be acceptable evidence that a particular inservice education and training program produced the effects captured. The problem in investigating the link between the inservice education and training is so great that some evaluators are arguing against any "product" or impact assessment. Others, while noting the inconsistencies between what we thought we knew and what happens, are suggesting that more investigatory attention be given a) the supposed linkage (e.g. Scriven's "modus-operandi" method), b) an unencumbered view of process and product (e.g. Scriven's "goal-free" method), or c) detailed investigations of the recipients of the program, the action of the program and the events after a program from a variety of differing theoretical and experiential perspectives. Process/product approaches, then, are being questioned not on quantitative/qualitative grounds but rather on grounds that the link between process and product in inservice education and training is still not well understood.

At the same time a process/product approach to evaluating inservice education and training is very attractive in its bureaucratic context. It can help simplify the bureaucratic decision-making process and reduce the political nature of inservice education and training. If a process/product linkage is held problematic, then the arguments for or against particular policies on inservice education and training are even more subject to pressures from professional interest groups. Alternatives to process/product designs may require more trust between professional groups and more respect for the potential of professional dialogue than many policy makers are able to muster. Demands for process/product studies of inservice education and training, however, restrict the choice of an evaluation methodology (both quantitative and qualitative methods of investigation). Moreover, it avoids some of the most difficult questions that must be asked in an evaluation of inservice education and training.

C4. Many of the distinctions we have formed about "formative" and "summative" methods of evaluation do not apply to the evaluation of inservice education and training. Although these two terms were originally formed by Scriven for evaluating curriculum programs, they
have often been used to refer to evaluations of inservice education and training as well. Formative evaluations have been referred to as diagnostic accounts of the program in operation with "feedback" to the program designer; summative evaluations place the program into a larger context with final reports fed to policy makers outside of the operational program. This distinction makes more sense to evaluating curriculum programs than it does to evaluating inservice education and training. An analysis of the program in its larger context is just as crucial to the designer of inservice education and training as it is to the policy maker. An investigation into the on-going process of inservice education and training is just as crucial to the policy maker as it is to the program designer. Thus, the distinction between formative and summative evaluation is not helpful if it is used to separate the needs of the designer of inservice education and training from the policy maker. Both can use descriptions and analyses of the educational process, unexpected turn of events and their consequences to the program (i.e. formative evaluation). Both can use descriptions and analyses of the program and its consequences in a context larger than the program (i.e. summative evaluation). Such information is useful to program designers and policy makers before, during and after an inservice education and training program.

To summarize the issues emanating from the choice of evaluation methodology, there are many ways in which an inservice education and training program can be investigated. There are a variety of case study traditions. There are quantitative methods that can illuminate the process and impact of inservice education and training programs. There are quantitative methods of inquiry that can be integrated with case studies to form singular, comprehensive investigations of inservice education and training. Process/product evaluation and other traditional evaluation methods borrowed from curriculum evaluations (such as formative and summative) are insensitive to the challenges of evaluating inservice education and training. Thus, the essence of this reality that a methodology needs to be chosen is that a) there are many appropriate methods available and b) the best of traditional approaches to evaluating curriculum reform may not be applicable. This puts an unusual amount of responsibility on those who are faced with evaluating an inservice education and training program in a particular context. It implies that we need to know the available options as well as the context in which the inservice education and training program is to be conducted. Since these options are not yet a part of our respective professional backgrounds, the choice of investigative method is not routine. It suggests we may need to educate ourselves about the available options, but it also suggests that "experts" in curriculum program evaluation can not be left alone with evaluating our inservice education and training programs. This brings us to the third reality: the many meanings of "participation" as it is applied to evaluating inservice education and training.
D. Issues Proceeding From The Many Meanings of Participation

Collaboration, involvement and who should participate in evaluating inservice education and training are major concerns of those who design the programs or must evaluate their performance and effectiveness. If there is one concern that has been consistently raised about the evaluation of inservice education and training since the first international conference (Philadelphia, July 1976), it is the necessity to make an evaluation more than an autocratic enterprise (see MacDonald and Walker). Participation in the evaluation of inservice education and training is addressed more as a reality that needs to be responded to than as an ideal aim to be reached. Just as clear is that issues relating to participation in the evaluation of inservice education and training are partly resolved in their bureaucratic context and by the evaluation methodology chosen. Nevertheless, the issues have been constantly referred to in discussions on the evaluation of inservice education and training as major problems that had a life of their own independent of the bureaucratic context or of the chosen investigatory methods. The following are some of the issues raised about participatory involvement by those who have performed and analyzed the evaluation of inservice education and training in their respective countries.

D1. The evaluation of inservice education and training programs is a special case for educational investigators because all participants are adults and all are educators. Those who participate in inservice education and training (for whatever purpose) have obvious rights and obvious powers as citizens and as organized professionals in OECD member countries. No participants can be considered as passive recipients or treated as powerless clients. In this sense, participation in the evaluation of inservice education and training is a political response to the reality. To be more specific, it may be political in a bureaucratic sense, where a variety of professional interests need to be appeased if a particular inservice education and training program is to be put into action. This political sensitivity to the views of participating educators is even present when inservice education and training is intended to implement social policy. Because of participating educators' lack of understanding of the intent or the context of social policy, the policy can be significantly altered by their participatory involvement. Likewise, issues were raised about how to encourage participant involvement when the participating educators were not fulfilling their responsibilities (e.g. when improved school practice of participating educators was the aim of the inservice education and training). Participation was suggested to be a viable strategy for encouraging professional reform in those who were considered to be "deficient". Other issues were directed at the possibilities for participation in large-scale settings. As an example, it was suggested by some that it may not be possible (by others that it may be possible) to include representatives of participating educators in the evaluation of large-scale national programs in inservice education and training.
The concern in all these issues is the fact that those participating in inservice education and training are adult educators and must be acknowledged and respected as such in the evaluation process. It is also clear that the purpose, the setting, the bureaucratic context and methodology chosen all play a part in determining the range in meaning of the phrase "participatory involvement" when referring to the evaluation of inservice education and training.

D2. The many roles of educators participating in inservice education and training programs make it very difficult to be certain about who should be involved. Educators participating in inservice education and training may include teachers, administrators, classroom paraprofessionals, program evaluators, middle-level agency managers, or combinations of these educational roles. This makes questions about who should be involved in the evaluation of inservice education and training seem more meaningful in a group where different members are referring to different programs. (Conflicting answers may only indicate that there were different educational roles involved in the different programs.) The identification of participants in inservice education and training is sometimes more difficult than identifying the participating investigators. Inservice education and training can be intended to benefit other than the participating educators. When the intent is to improve school practice, for example, there may be one set of participating educators (e.g. the administrators) but the intent is to benefit the work of others (e.g. the teacher and the student). In this example, who should participate in the evaluation of the program? When the intent is to implement social policy, there is even a wider range of those who may evaluate the performance and effectiveness of inservice education and training. A list of possible participants in the evaluation of these programs is nearly endless. Who may be involved in the evaluation of inservice education and training programs intended to improve school practice or to implement social policy may be more difficult to answer than in those programs intended to stimulate professional development. Thus, the many roles of educators participating in the inservice education and training make it necessary to address the issue of who should be involved in terms of the purpose(s) and setting of programs as well as the bureaucratic context and the investigative method chosen.

D3. When participation in the evaluation of inservice education and training is interpreted from a bureaucratic perspective, it may merely perpetuate already existing uneven power relationships. A bureaucratic perspective of participation may be "political" in the sense of responding to competing professional perspectives. This perspective of "political" is particularly unfortunate when inservice education and training is intended to improve school practice or to implement social policy. Professional interests may receive attention to the detriment of others such as citizens and students. Even within the profession, the case studies indicate how difficult it is to work across already existing power relationships. Teachers working with administrators, school personnel with university based trainers,
certified evaluators with the uninitiated seldom reduce the organizationally created distances between the "lower" and the "higher" positions. Understanding can occur, respect sometimes, but power is seldom redistributed in our evaluations of inservice education and training programs. A few have tried and may begin to show the way (e.g. in the case studies, Elliott and Olson; in the U.S., Ward and Tikunoff; Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel). In Australia, considerable attention has been given to redistributing school decision making responsibilities through inservice education and training (see Batten). For practical reasons, the large-scale evaluation of this enterprise did not reflect the same spirit of involvement and perhaps that is why the evaluation was so successful. (This did not seem to affect the spirit of the inservice education and training.) The suggestion from experience in evaluating inservice education and training is that as enlightened as we bureaucrats may be and as concerned for participatory involvement in the evaluation of inservice education and training, there exist insidious uneven power relationships. More just rearrangements of power in the assessments of our programs may not be hopeless but they certainly are not achieved through rhetoric.

D4. Uneven professional experience and unequal stages of preparation for the evaluation of inservice education and training can make participation a cursory activity. We may be sincere about encouraging participation of the professional underdog or the economically disenfranchised in the evaluation of INSET programs. Honesty, however, and a candid review of our experiences suggest how serious is the lack of preparation for the more significant evaluation functions by those we are trying to involve. Preparation can be accomplished, participation can be significant and substantial but it takes time, support, attention and patience. Some are suggesting initial training, some are suggesting initial periodic support gradually diminishing, others are suggesting different levels of participatory involvement depending upon previous experience. All suggest a realistic attitude towards participatory involvement in the evaluation of inservice education and training. Part of this realistic attitude is to make public the strengths and weaknesses of the professional evaluator and use them accordingly. The eventual success of an evaluation, however, may depend on how feasible can the evaluation responsibilities be carried out by the various participants. Most successful evaluations of inservice education and training programs include a significant support system for encouraging participatory involvement.

In summary, the need to address participatory involvement in the evaluation of inservice education and training is real, and seemingly crucial issues may be raised around who should be involved. Upon reflection, however, the issue may be receiving more attention that it deserves in discussion sessions between educators who may be unconsciously referring to quite different contexts of inservice education and training. For continued discussion on participation in evaluation to be valuable, it may be necessary to have it far more grounded in specific contexts. Some issues are general, such as the need to address
the participating educators as adults and career professionals when evaluating the effectiveness of the inservice education and training on their own performance. Problems in dealing with traditional, organizationally supported, uneven power relationships also is shared across many contexts. Other issues are very context bound such as the differing interpretations of who are the participating educators or who are the beneficiaries of the inservice education and training. Likewise, the discrepancies in evaluation experience between the chosen participants in the evaluation may be more or less significant depending upon the purpose of the inservice education and training program. For greater understanding of the meanings of participatory involvement in INSET evaluation, more attention needs to be placed on the contexts in which particular evaluations of inservice education and training occur.

E. Summary: The Embedded Nature of the Mundane Realities

Issues have been redirected by those who have recently performed and reviewed evaluations of inservice education and training in their respective countries. These issues have emanated from three different mundane realities: the bureaucratic context of evaluating inservice education and training, the choice of evaluation methodology and the meanings of participation. Each of these realities was experienced by the case study writers in their respective countries. Many of the problems that case study writers felt were significant and irascible in their (and their compatriots') attempts to evaluate inservice education and training proceeded from these three realities. They felt that future performance in evaluating inservice education and training will depend upon our resolutions of issues like the ones they raised from their past experience. Although no issues raised were expected to be universally applicable to all evaluations of inservice education and training, the three mundane realities were suggested to be shared by all of us who evaluate INSET. Furthermore, future performance in evaluating inservice education and training can in part be improved through an analysis of our bureaucratic contexts, our choices of methodology and our meanings of participation. Finally, the discussions on the issues have implied that these three realities are related.

Figure 5 shows the three realities as three levels, each successive level being embedded in the previous one. The primary level is the bureaucratic context in which a particular evaluation of inservice education and training is conducted. Embedded in the bureaucratic context is the choice of methodology used to investigate the program and its impact. The meanings of participation applied to evaluating a particular inservice education and training program are embedded in the choice of methodology and in the bureaucratic context. Each level is a source of many issues. Each reality is capable of being addressed on its own as if it were not embedded in another. In fact, this is what happened in previous discussions on the evaluation of inservice education and training. Issues were not analyzed as emanating
Figure 5. The Embedded Nature of Three Mundane Realities in the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training (including three different methods for analyzing issues proceeding from these realities)
from a reality that was embedded in other realities. The issue of who should participate in the evaluations of inservice education and training, for example, has too often been raised as if it were not related to the bureaucratic context and the choice of methodology. Figure 5 suggests that it may be necessary to analyze the issues of participation in evaluating inservice education and training as they are embedded in other mundane realities as well.

Figure 5 also shows three ways in which to examine the issues we raise from our experience in evaluating inservice education and training. First, each issue could be examined separately. The meanings of "political" in a bureaucratic context, for example, could be analyzed from the perspective of different contexts in different countries. In Figure 5 this possibility is shown by the arrows at the bottom of the figure. This strategy describes most discussions on the evaluation of inservice education and training prior to the seminar of the case study writers. Second, the set of issues emanating from a particular reality could be examined together. A better understanding of the issues and of the reality from which they proceed may result from such an analysis. In Figure 5 this possibility is shown by the arrows within the levels. Discussions in the seminar of the international case study writers is an example of this form of analysis. A third form of analysis is to relate a particular issue emanating from one reality to issues emanating from other realities. This is shown in Figure 5 by the arrow running through the levels. No consideration of the challenges in evaluating inservice education and training would be complete without this third method of examination being included in our deliberations. Although this has not yet been done, it is possible to imagine how such an examination would be performed.

The intent of Figure 6 is to indicate how issues in one level of reality can be related to issues from other levels of reality. Figure 6 summarizes the issues raised by the international case study writers. Each issue can be examined alone to determine its significance to other evaluations of inservice education and training. The issues of each column in Figure 6 may also be examined together (along with other issues the reader wants to add) to further our understanding of the realities we face in evaluating inservice education and training. The most important implication in Figure 6, however, is that each issue in Figure 6 may be examined as it relates to the issues in the other realities in which it is embedded. Thus, if we considered an issue from the meanings of participation (e.g. the variety of participants), that issue can be analyzed by relating it to issues raised from the choice of methodology (e.g. case study method, use of quantitative methods, integration of quantitative with qualitative methods) and to issues raised from the bureaucratic context (e.g. respect for pseudo-science, mundane reports, the bureaucratic meaning of political). If we began to perform such an analysis, it is clear that our resolutions of issues of participation or of methodology are not particularly meaningful until we consider them in terms of our resolutions of the issues raised by the bureaucratic contexts of our INSET evaluations.
ISSUES PROCEEDING FROM THE BUREAUCRATIC CONTEXT

There may be nothing as "political" to a bureaucrat as the evaluation of inservice education and training.

There is a respectability and a legitimacy to pseudo-scientific results.

Information from evaluations of inservice education and training may be minimally related to bureaucratic policy making procedures.

The bureaucratic context may determine some of the most crucial problems faced in the reporting of results.

We who evaluate have our own bureaucratic context.

A theory-practice dichotomy is reinforced, if not created, by the bureaucratic context.

The bureaucratic context is particularly significant when evaluating the role of inservice education and training in the redistribution or maintenance of power.

ISSUES PROCEEDING FROM THE CHOICE OF METHODOLOGY

Case study, as a focus on particular instances, has inherent strengths and weaknesses for evaluating inservice education and training programs.

The role and potential of new quantitative methods to evaluating inservice education and training is problematic.

The link between the process of inservice education and training and its "product" (improved school practice, implemented policy or professional development) needs special investigatory attention.

Many of the distinctions we have formed about "formative" and "summative" methods of evaluation do not apply to the evaluation of inservice education and training.

ISSUES PROCEEDING FROM THE MANY MEANINGS OF PARTICIPATION

The evaluation of inservice education and training programs is a special case for educational investigators because all participants are adults and all are educators.

The many roles of educators participating in inservice education and training programs make it very difficult to be certain about who should be involved.

When participation in the evaluation of inservice education and training programs is interpreted from a bureaucratic perspective, it may merely perpetuate already existing uneven power relationships.

Uneven professional experience and unequal stages of preparation for the evaluation of inservice education and training can make participation a cursory activity.

Figure 6. Summary of Issues Proceeding From Three Mundane Realities in the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training
In short, Figure 6 suggests that there is much yet to be done in the analysis of our experience in evaluating inservice education and training as we determine how we can do better next time.

Greater understanding of the realities we face in evaluating inservice education and training will need more reflective inquiry, more professional dialogue and more cultural challenges to what we have supposed was certain. The hope to be found in this report of the issues raised by the international case study writers is that reflection upon our professional experience is possible, even in international settings. Meetings like the one reported here can contribute to better performance in the future, however, only to the extent that our reflective inquiry is continued and applied.
IV. Reflecting in Context: Confronting Wisdom and Ignorance in Ourselves and in Our Colleagues

A. Preparing for Dialogue Between Policy Makers, Program Designers, and Evaluators

"Dialogue is not discussion or debate. It is not a talk show or a brain game or a display of expertise—or esoterica—or urbanity. It is not a demonstration or an exchange of information. It is, to paraphrase Joseph Schwab, a cooperative inquiry directed at (1) the formulation of a problem which is not susceptible of convincing empirical demonstration; (2) the statement of its possible solutions; and (3) the methodical consideration of those solutions in terms of both common and particular circumstances. It is an instrument—possibly the instrument—for continuing investigation of matters which lie outside the realm of positive proof."

Milton Mayer (1978)

Deciding how to evaluate inservice education and training will seldom be routine or automatic. Whether to evaluate, why to evaluate, how to evaluate, by and for whom must be considered carefully. Few choices are predetermined by the context of the program; no choices are possible to leave to impartial, scientific judgment. Most significant issues that need to be resolved when evaluating a particular inservice education and training program will be resolved only through personal judgment. In evaluating inservice education and training, there are simply no attractive alternatives to dialogue. It is a problem, in Milton Mayer's words, that is not susceptible to convincing empirical demonstration.

Consider the three features of dialogue described by Mayer: 1) the formulation of the problem, 2) the statement of its possible solutions, and 3) the methodological consideration of the solutions in terms of common and particular circumstances. The first and second features have been referred to in previous sections. Rudiments in forming the problem of evaluating inservice education and training are contained in the discussions on our reasons for supporting inservice education and training. Figure 4, was suggested as one reasonable way to form the problem of evaluation according to the three different reasons we use to support inservice education and training (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy). The discussion on the mundane realities of INSET evaluation and the issues proceeding from these realities is a way to state the possible solutions. Figure 6, suggests the range of possible solutions to the evaluation of inservice education and training. This brings us to the third feature of Mayer's description of dialogue, the methodological consideration of solutions in terms of both common and particular circumstances. If we are to arrive at solutions to evaluating inservice education and training, this is where the most important work
Experience is suggesting that our greatest problem in investigating inservice education and training is in finding ways to consider the solutions. Our greatest challenge is not necessarily in formulating the problem or in stating the possible solution; it is in how dialogue between policy makers, program designers and evaluators can be respected, encouraged, supported and maintained in such a way that inservice education and training can be a topic of cooperative inquiry. Forming the problem or stating the possible solutions is important but it is simply not the only or the major challenge to dialogue. Just as crucial is the need to find a way in which cooperative inquiry and methodological consideration can take place. If that happens, of course, the problem may be reformed and the possible solutions may be restated. Thus, I have chosen to make recommendations on how policy makers, program designers and evaluators can better prepare themselves for dialogue. Given the attractive possibilities for recommending alternative methods for investigation, perhaps I should explain why I consider dialogue to be of such significance.

Previously I had investigated a number of evaluations of a national program in inservice education and training (Teacher Corps) with the intent to recommend how to do a better evaluation next time. In that report I made six recommendations:

1. Have professionals evaluate the inservice education and training program who themselves are responsible for determining or carrying out similar programs.

2. Expend as much effort in making the reports clear, interesting and useful as there is expended in collecting, analyzing and interpreting the results.

3. Continually, or at least periodically, include client policy makers in on the interpretive process.

4. Consider the needs of the teacher education profession for unique information or unusual perspectives and interpretation of their practices along with the needs of the policy makers.

5. Choose investigative procedures that can capture growth, dynamic interplay, liveliness, and impact (as well as the absence of these qualities).

6. Conduct evaluations of inservice education and training as interpretive efforts rather than research results.

It is the best advice I have given. A new evaluation of that program is now underway, however, and these recommendations are proving to be incapable of being put into action because of two illusions I held.
The first illusion was that the most difficult audience to convince in suggesting an alternative approach to evaluating inservice education and training were the policy makers. Thus, I wrote the analysis and made the recommendations to the bureaucratic managers of the agency (Teacher Corps) who would have the authority to choose whether to support another evaluation and, if so, to request a new kind of study if they felt that was appropriate. I had erroneously assumed that if the recommendations were convincing and clear to the policy makers, they would be understood and capable of being responded to by the eventual evaluators. This has not been the case. Even the recommendation to choose investigative procedures that capture the growth and liveliness of impact has been understood more by the bureaucrats than the evaluators (i.e., it is the bureaucrats who are looking for appropriate and challenging investigative procedures). Likewise, the recommendation to consider the evaluation as our best interpretations rather than unassailable findings was understood better by some managers of the agency than by the evaluators or, for that matter, by the university based designers of the inservice education and training.

As wrong as I was to assume that evaluators could understand and respond if agency bureaucrats could, I was even more mistaken in the second assumption. As the first recommendations clearly indicate, I had assumed that professional dialogue, although it may be difficult, was respected. I had the illusion that once policy makers (mainly agency heads and middle level managers), program designers and evaluators got together, professional dialogue on the study, procedures, settings, basic questions and the interpretation of results was natural. That illusion has proven to be an even greater disaster than the first. It was simply wrong (or, if you prefer, ignorant) of me to assume that dialogue on an evaluation of inservice education and training was respected by professionals representing differing interests. Suggesting that policy makers be involved in the interpretation, for example, was assuming that evaluators would respect the interpretations and the experience that agency managers were using to make their interpretive judgments. Likewise, suggesting that the needs of the teacher education profession for illuminative information from evaluation of inservice education and training programs was based on similar ignorance about how the competing ambitions of program designers and the evaluators make dialogue between them extremely cautious. Furthermore, suggesting creative reports to policy makers and practitioners of inservice education and training assumed a respect for teacher education that is apparently shared by relatively few of us.

The easiest recommendation to apply in specific circumstances of inservice education and training evaluation is the one referring to investigative methodology. There are many approaches being developed that expect dynamic change to take place, are created to capture change, and, in particular, are designed (or can be adapted) to be appropriate to the realities we face in evaluating inservice education and training. The democratic evaluations of the SAFARI project (MacDonald and Walker), the responsive evaluations of Stake, the hypothesis generating approach of Elliott, the interactive approach of Patton, the documenting approach of Perrone, the process-impact approach of Fox et al,
as well as the illuminative attitude of Parlett and Hamilton all are possible methods for capturing the dynamic interplay of inservice education and training. In short, the need is not for new methods but for reforming the ways in which we speak to one another across professional contexts. Our collective wisdom right now is in methodology, our ignorance is in how to engage in reflective dialogue with our colleagues.

The following recommendations, then are addressed not to the choice of investigative method but rather to the preparation needed to engage in professional dialogue. Instead of assuming that dialogue is natural, I will begin with the understanding that we need to prepare ourselves if dialogue across our contexts is to occur. To take our professional dialogue on inservice education and training seriously, however, there is one underlying assumption that is crucial: What we do as policy makers, program designers and evaluators of inservice education and training is a significant portion of what schooling is. In short, the assumption is that schooling is what we adults do. The reason why this assumption is important to dialogue on the evaluation of inservice education and training is that, unless we take our theories, actions, assumptions and beliefs seriously (that is as if they mattered), then all discussion on inservice education and training is, by definition, trivial.

Let me explain this assumption further. Those who ask if teachers make a difference are fooling no one. Of course teachers make a difference, they are an integral part of what schooling is. So, too, do principals and headmasters make a difference and (along with other school administrators) make schooling what it is in our respective countries. But this assumption goes further than that. The analysis says that teacher educators (those who design inservice education and training) make a difference. The claim is that what is or is not done in teacher education may be more influential to what schooling is than most of us (teachers or teacher educators or bureaucrats or evaluators) are admitting. In addition, the assumption says that what agency heads and middle level managers of governmental educational bureaucracies do in inservice education and training is significant to what schools are. The rules and regulations formed by governmental bureaucracies, whether they are conformed to or not, are a significant factor in making schooling what it is today. (Meyer suggests that our rules are one especially cogent feature of schooling when they are not enforced.) Furthermore, the assumption claims that elected representatives who make decisions on inservice education and training are significantly responsible for what schooling is. It is policies made by our elected officials that affect the actions of teacher educators and of school personnel that are significant in making schooling what it is. Essential to our engaging in dialogue on the evaluation of inservice education and training is the view that what we do is what schooling is. If we do not consider what we do as being significant then there is no reason for dialogue on our actions. Instead, we would have to continue dialogue only on what others do (for example, on what students
and teachers do) rather than on our own actions. What we think, believe, know, have experienced or plan to do next time would make little difference and would not really be worth much of our attention.

What I am claiming, then, is that schooling is an adult activity. Furthermore, few of us, whether we be policy maker, program designer or evaluator, are very far removed from making the adult aspects of schooling what it is in our respective countries. Teachers are important; but so are we. If this seems outrageous to us, I am suggesting that that is why we have not taken dialogue on the evaluation of inservice education and training seriously. We do not take ourselves seriously. We have little respect for our influence. We do not think that reflection into our own behavior and beliefs really much matters. If we thought that what we do as policy makers, program designers and evaluators was really important, do you think we would be doing what we are doing? Much of what we do is so somber, so devoid of liveliness and concern and substance because the only meaning in professional conflict is to protect our own turf—the importance of what we do or what we think is minimal. Let me give an example. I am going to recommend that policy makers reflect about their own views of social science and, if it is only a Newtonian, positivistic view, then they should consider some alternative views of science. The only way that a recommendation to policy makers' views of science makes any sense at all is to assume that it really matters what we as policy makers do and what we as policy makers hold as theories, beliefs or amorphous ideologies.

If we assume that what we do and think is significant to what schools are, then it is natural to place some importance to investigating ourselves. Whether we be policy maker, program designer or evaluator the understanding we bring to evaluating inservice education and training includes our theories about instruction, our theories about school change, our theories about professional development, our theories about the role of education in our respective social and political contexts, our theories of social reform, our theories about evaluation. These theories are worthy of our reflective inquiry to the extent that what we do matters. Furthermore, our ignorance and misunderstandings in these areas are significant only to the extent that what we do matters. As we disregard our own work and our own progress as being worthy of serious inquiry, then we disregard not only what we know but what we do not know as well. We become embarrassed by our ignorance instead of interested in it.

The following recommendations assume that there is reason to be interested in both the wisdom and the accompanying ignorance we hold as policy makers, designers and evaluators of inservice education and training. The reason is that the wisdom and ignorance that makes up our brands of professional work matters to what schooling is. To the extent that this assumption is natural and easy to take, these recommendations may appear superfluous. They are not, for example, meant to be given to teachers or even to local school administrators such as principals and headmasters. For them, there is already a
respect for their influence on schooling and thus, there exists a
variety of sophisticated methods for encouraging reflection on their
theories and actions and for supporting their professional dialogue.
The recommendations are to the rest of us, we policy makers, program
designers and evaluators of inservice education and training who are
removed more physically from classroom practice and to whom this as-
sumption has seldom been applied.

In short, these recommendations are given for those of us parti-
cipating in "backroom decision-making," where decisions about inservice
education and training and its evaluation are made away from the class-
room. My experience suggests that this not only happens, but can happen
for good reason. My experience also suggests that it is in these cases
that reflectivity and professional dialogue are very difficult, signif-
icant to the performance of the evaluation and can use some suggestions
for engaging in cooperative inquiry. The following recommendations,
then, are made to policy makers, program designers and evaluators in
order that they can be better prepared to confront themselves as well
as one another as they undertake the evaluation of inservice education
and training. The recommendations refer to ways in which the inservice
education and training program and its evaluation can be placed into
context by the policy makers, program designers and evaluators. Just
as important for preparing for dialogue and the consideration of possi-
ble solutions, are recommendations given to the three parties for
reflecting upon their own wisdom and ignorance that is significant to
the evaluation of the inservice education and training and for confront-
ing the wisdom and ignorance that others may bring to the same enter-
prise.

B. Recommendations for Preparation by Policy Makers

A policy maker of inservice education and training is responsible
for identifying why inservice education and training is to take place
and whether an evaluation study is appropriate. Thus, it is up to the
bureaucrat or elected official to articulate why an evaluation is or
is not being conducted. If a policy maker chooses not to make that
decision, (s)he determines who will (e.g., the designers of the inser-
vice education and training). Most important, a policy maker must
articulate how an investigation is to relate to policy. In short, a
policy maker is responsible for placing the problem of evaluating in-
service education and training into context in any continued dialogue
with program designers and evaluators. This includes making it clear
to all participants in an INSET evaluation why inservice education and
training is taking place, why there may be an evaluation and what makes
the evaluation important to the aims of inservice education and to other
social or educational policies. While placing the opportunities for the
evaluation into a realistic context, the policy maker may be particularly responsible for encouraging risks to be taken in the evaluation enterprise.

The following are recommendations for policy makers who expect to have dialogue with program designers and evaluators about the evaluation of particular inservice education and training programs. The purpose of these recommendations is to make it more possible for a policy maker to participate in a focused and illuminative consideration of the evaluation of inservice education and training. In preparing for dialogue with program designers and evaluators, it is recommended that policy makers a) place the evaluation of the inservice education and training into context, b) reflect upon their own understanding of evaluation and, in particular, of how evaluation may or may not be used in this context and c) how to confront the understanding, the wisdom and the ignorance of those who may be expected to evaluate inservice education and training. The eventual success or failure of an evaluation of inservice education and training may depend on the extent to which a policy maker has prepared for dialogue with the program designer and evaluator.

The following recommendations are suggested to policy makers for placing the evaluation of the inservice education and training in its context:

B1. Articulate the reason you support inservice education and training (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy). Determine if there are different purposes and aims of the programs. Use Figure 4, to place your view of the particular inservice education and training program in comparison with other possible programs. If possible, describe the probable setting (e.g. single school, multiple schools, ad hoc). In short, be as specific and articulate as possible about the context of the inservice education and training as you see it.

B2. Consider the efficacy of the evaluation to the inservice education and training context. If the intent of the inservice education and training is to improve school practice, remember there are many examples of previous successes in evaluation. If the intent is to stimulate professional development, experience suggests that evaluation should not be an independent function. Instead of funding for evaluations, it may be better to fund the creation of better visions of what professional development may mean and on creating ways of reaching these visions. If the intent is to implement social policy, the evaluation will be costly. Costly because so much needs to be done and so many creative energies need to be expended to make an evaluation of inservice education and training intending to implement social policy useful and insightful.
There are few models of success in evaluating inservice education and training programs intended to implement social policy but it is here where some of the most crucial questions for a policy maker are answered.

B3. Consider the issues emanating from the realities of an evaluation of inservice education and training. Refer to the issues raised in Figure 6. Analyze your views of the issues. Determine which issues you think are top priority, which need to be resolved and how they may be related to one another. Determine which issues may be most risky, given the context of the inservice education and training and your understanding of the bureaucratic context of its contemplated evaluation. Decide which risks you are most willing to undertake (by considering their priority). Try not to make quick generalizations on issues emanating from the choice of methodology or participatory involvement. For example, do not expect all quantifiable analyses to be convincing nor all qualitative descriptions to be sympathetic to the participating educators. Do not feel you have to rely on quantitative analysis for analyzing outcome and qualitative analysis for analyzing process. Leave those issues open for later dialogue.

B4. Determine where your responsibilities and continued involvement may be the most useful in the analytic process of the evaluation and in the resolution of issues emanating from the realities of the evaluation. For example, when the intent is to implement social policy, your involvement may be crucial; when the intent is to stimulate professional development, it may not be so crucial. In resolving issues emanating from the bureaucratic context, your views may be essential. In resolving issues emanating from the choice of methodology, your views are relevant but open for challenge and debate.

The following recommendations are made to policy makers for reflecting about their own understanding, experience and ignorance about inservice education and training:

B5. Ask yourself what would happen if you suspended your belief in science and increased your belief in a process whereby information is negotiated. Determine to what extent you could accept and would use an investigator's best judgments rather than absolutely convincing empirical evidence. Identify your own assumptions about evaluation. Decide what assumptions and views you may allow to be questioned, what may not be questioned. Be able to articulate your answers in some detail.

B6. Construct your own view of policy and the relationship of information to policy. Recreate, as best you can, the policies made that relate to your consideration of inservice education and training.
and training. Determine what policies are still open for consideration, what the options may be and what a reformulated policy might look like. Describe the process used to change policy and the nature of the evidence that may be acceptable in that change process. Be candid and very clear about the timing necessary for that evidence and its interpretations.

B7. List the alternatives you see to inservice education and training. Determine how important the inservice education and training is in terms of its purposes and in terms of the alternatives. List the alternatives you see to evaluating inservice education and training but still gaining the kind of information you may need. Using the above as a basis for consideration, analyze the funds available for reaching the purpose, for performing the inservice education and training and for evaluating the inservice education and training. Never make decisions on funding INSET evaluation on any rule of thumb (e.g. 10%). Always judge the significance of an evaluation upon its usefulness to the aims of the inservice education and training.

B8. Ask yourself if you can doubt your own rhetoric for choosing inservice education and training. If not, do not evaluate.

The following recommendations are suggested to policy makers for confronting the evaluators and determining whether an evaluation can be done properly:

B9. Be very selective in who is chosen to evaluate inservice education and training. Remember, you are asking for an evaluation of a program where adults are the major recipients. Evaluators must be able to work on an adult to adult level.

B10. Look at what the evaluators have done in the past. See if their reports and reporting procedures make much sense to you. If they are difficult to understand, you will want someone else.

B11. Do not accept all the solemn pronouncements of evaluators towards their methodologies. Methodology is important but it is not always as important as evaluators contend. Figure 5, page 33, suggests that more important than methodology is the bureaucratic context in which the methodology is embedded (both the bureaucracy of the INSET and the bureaucracy of the evaluation team). Be prepared to discuss methodology in terms of the inservice education and training context (purpose and setting) and the evaluation issues. In short, be prepared to doubt the rhetoric of the evaluator just as you should be prepared to doubt your own rhetoric. If you are intimidated and cannot confront the evaluators on their own level, the evaluation should not be performed.
B12. If social policy is to be implemented through inservice education and training, make policy an obvious part of the formal request for an evaluation design. Do not ever leave an evaluator alone to design, implement and report an evaluation relevant to social policy without your periodic involvement. It is necessary that you be involved and crucial if you are to gain information relevant to social policy. Require evidence that the evaluator can work in a policy relevant situation and, in particular, can produce in a bureaucratic context.

B13. Make sure that others, both INSET designers and evaluators, are willing to address some of the harder questions that you would like asked. The more risks you are willing to take in the INSET evaluation, the more crucial your choice of evaluator. The creative gathering of data, the creative use of analysis and interpretations and a creative approach to reporting in large part depend upon previous experience and the power of the investigator, not the power of the design. Get to know your investigator. Ask for samples of the person's previous work. Ask for evidence that the risks you are willing to take are also risks that the investigator is willing to take, has taken or can be expected to take with a fair degree of success.

A policy maker's role in a continued dialogue on the evaluation of inservice education and training will depend on how well they have analyzed their own views and can articulate them to the program designers and the evaluators. It has been suggested that this articulation can be helped by referring to the intent of the inservice education and training and how the INSET purposes relate to other policy. It has also been suggested that identifying evaluation issues according to their priority and to the degree of risk that is expected will be helpful to the articulation of a policy maker's intent. In addition, healthy skepticism towards the claims of any evaluator may be necessary in the consideration of what can be done. The more the policy maker can challenge evaluators on methodological and participatory issues, the more that evaluation may eventually be useful. Professional dialogue and mutual understanding on the evaluation of inservice education and training will depend upon the ability of policy makers to confront evaluators on issues that have previously been considered to be the evaluators' professional domain. Likewise, it will depend upon the possibilities that enough has been shared by the policy maker for his or her own domains to be understood and critically analyzed by the program designers and evaluators.

C. Recommendations for Preparation by Program Designers

A designer of an inservice education and training program is responsible for seeing that the instructional intentions of a program are reached.
What is important to the teacher educator or staff trainer is that the evaluation be as applicable and useful to the instructional intentions as is possible. To do this, the design of the program needs to assess the relationship between the instructional intent and the ultimate aim of the inservice education and training. When, for example, stimulation of professional development is the aim, the program designer may be intimately involved in identifying the hard questions to be asked in the evaluation. When the intent is to implement social policy, however, the program designer's instructional purposes are necessary to consider but are less crucial to the more fundamental questions to be asked in the evaluation (such as who is benefitting?).

In preparing for dialogue with the policy makers of inservice education and training (usually middle level agency managers) and the evaluators, it is important that the designers can articulate their instructional intentions and can identify where an evaluation study may provide insight to those intentions. This implies that INSET designers must be able to articulate their theories of professional development and their operating assumptions being used to design the instructional features of the inservice education and training. Thus, just as was suggested for policy makers, the program designers need to understand their own positions, intentions and context well enough to articulate them clearly to policy makers and evaluators. They must also be able to understand the unique character, demands and possibilities of evaluating inservice education and training well enough to relate these possibilities to the educational intentions.

The following recommendations are made to program designers preparing to answer questions about the role of evaluation in the inservice education and training design. As was the case in the recommendations made to the policy makers, it is recommended that program designers a) place the evaluation of the inservice education and training into context, b) reflect upon their own understanding of evaluation and, in particular, of how evaluation may or may not be used in this context and c) consider how they will confront the understandings of policy makers and evaluators when the investigation of the inservice education and training is being determined. The extent to which an evaluation of inservice education and training will be useful to the instructional intent will depend on the extent to which the program designer prepares for dialogue with policy maker and evaluator.

The following recommendations are suggested to program designers for placing the evaluation of inservice education and training in its context:

Cl. **Identify the intent of the inservice education and training** (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy). Determine whether you see different purposes and aims of the program. Using Figure 4, indicate where you think the inservice education and training program is located. Consider the implications
of this location (refer to Figure 1). Make sure your instructional intentions and the theoretical context of your instructional design are considered and can be articulated to others. Describe what you think is the optimum setting for inservice education and training, given the context that you have just described.

C2. Consider the efficacy of evaluation not only to the instructional design but to other issues suggested by the INSET context. If the instructional intentions are to stimulate professional development, for example, and the aim of the inservice education and training is for that purpose, then evaluation can be singularly focused. If, however, the instructional intentions are towards one end (e.g. to improve school practice) and the ultimate aim is toward another (e.g. to implement a social policy), then there is a question of evaluation focus. Should it be on the instructional design or the social policy? It is up to the designer, then, to identify clearly the instructional priorities for evaluative information and to be practical about the resources necessary to provide this information. The designer must help create an understanding of the feasibility of an evaluation to be both policy relevant and professionally illuminative. This is particularly important when the instructional intent of the inservice education and training is towards one purpose and the ultimate aim goes beyond that. The program designer should entertain alternatives for gaining information needed for implementing that design other than through an evaluation study.

C3. Consider each of the three levels of evaluation reality: its bureaucratic context, its methodology and participatory involvement. Analyze your views of the issues emanating from these three levels. Perhaps you will need to give special attention to participatory involvement since those issues will relate directly to the instructional intentions and the theoretical context of the INSET design. Be prepared to discuss issues emanating from the bureaucratic context of evaluation and the methodological considerations as well. Those issues, too, may be related by you to your priority areas for investigation. For example, to what extent can you see quantitative, qualitative or an integration of different analytic techniques relating to your theories of inservice education and training instruction or your plans for implementing these theories?

C4. Determine what your involvement in the evaluation may be. Consider your needs for investigative inquiry and the possibilities that your involvement in the evaluation can be useful. For example, your involvement in the evaluation of a program whose aim is professional development may be particularly significant. Your involvement in an inservice education and training evaluation intended to implement social policy may not be as significantly felt by you or by the policy makers.
The following recommendations are made to the program designers for reflecting about their own wisdom, experience and ignorance in evaluating inservice education and training:

C5. **State your assumptions about the instructional aspects of inservice education and training.** Be articulate about the theory you hold about professional development and how inservice education and training relates to that theory. Identify, if appropriate, your theories of school change and your theories of social reform. In particular, state how inservice education and training may be related to either aim. Be candid. If you hold competing theories of professional development, let that be known. If you are not comfortable with your theories of school improvement or of social reform, make that clear. Your placement of inservice education tradition may be necessary to continued dialogue. Although policy makers and evaluators will have their own assumptions about inservice education and training, it is your assumptions that will most likely be the focus of the dialogue.

C6. **If professional development is an intent of the inservice education and training, state your visions of what professional development may be.** There are many possible visions of what a teacher can be developing towards (e.g. an action-researcher, a developer of instructional theories, an implementer of research and development conclusions). Be articulate about which visions you hold and how the instructional intentions of the inservice education and training are related to those visions. Be candid about the ambiguous links between the instructional intentions and the vision(s) for professional development. Be creative in constructing your vision and linking the inservice education and training to the vision. Be practical about the resources necessary to reach the vision. Resources may be more than instructional. Necessary resources may include policy such as professional time.

C7. **State the educational theories that influence your inservice education and training design.** Place the design and its procedural components into an educational theoretical context. If you see alternative theories, competing theories or alternative implications for practice, state these clearly. The evaluation may be most illuminative to the theoretical basis for the educational design of the inservice education and training. Give examples of lessons you have learned in the past and how these have helped you refine your theoretical perspective.

C8. **State your own theories of how educational evaluation relates to instructional design.** What evidence is most persuasive to you? What investigative processes do you see best relating
to your educational design and instructional intentions? What investigative procedures do you see stretching your own understanding and perspectives of inservice education and training? What do you see as the most convincing kinds of evidence for influencing the instructional design? Is it other participants' points of view, is it the recipients' performance, is it the link between the aims of the inservice education and training? Answers to these questions will specify what you see as important features of an evaluation study if it were to aid you in designing inservice education and training.

C9. **Be articulate and clear about what you may need to know to design inservice education and training better.** Is it to have more clearly articulated theories? Is it to consider more exciting ways of knowing? Is it to have more precise, detailed and candid descriptions of the actual instructional process? Is it to have more views of what the developmental process may be? Your answers to these questions will have significant implications to what you want from an evaluation study. Moreover, it would help to state how you think you can best be stretched in those areas where you have the most concern. For example, would you be stretched by an unusual reporting style or by the data itself? Would you be stretched by a creative interpretation of the data or a significant review of the literature? Eventual usefulness of an evaluation study to the construction of your inservice education and training program will depend upon your abilities to articulate these concerns.

The following recommendations are suggested to program designers for confronting the policy makers and evaluators and determining if the evaluation study may or may not be helpful to your instructional intentions:

C10. **Be prepared to address other than your instructional intentions.** Do not assume that the major purpose of an inservice education and training evaluation is to help the instructional design. There may be other priorities (e.g., policy issues) for investigation. Make sure you can talk to policy issues and to specific methodological issues as well as to the instructional design.

C11. **Relate your priorities for information to those of the INSET policy maker.** Assess the policy maker's needs for evaluative information. Assess also the policy maker's openness to and understanding of your priorities. For example, if you determine it is your theories of instruction that need investigative attention, to what extent might this need be shared or understood by the policy maker? To what extent can you help in relating instructional needs to other policy needs? What instructional theories are held by the policy makers?
C12. **Assess the potential evaluators.** What kind of work have they done in the past? Is there a possibility for their addressing your priorities (e.g. theoretical basis for INSET design)? What chances do you see that the procedures used in the past by the evaluators can be useful to you (e.g. data gathering, analytic procedures, interpretation, reporting)? What theories of inservice education and training are held by the evaluators? To what extent can you influence the assumptions and viewpoints of the evaluators so that they can better understand and relate to your intentions? Determine what you think is a realistic relationship between the evaluators and the program you designed. Should they ideally be part of the instructional program or can they more usefully perform their investigation as outsiders? To what extent do you see the evaluators being able to address some of the harder questions that you would like asked?

The usefulness of an evaluation to the designer's instructional intentions will depend upon the abilities of the designer to articulate his or her intentions and the theoretical basis from which they come. Knowing the relation you draw between professional development and the improvement of school practice, for example, may improve the consideration of what to investigate. Knowing the educational theories that are guiding your design or the conflict and ambiguities that you feel in applying these theories is essential if an investigation is to provide you insight. The usefulness of an evaluation for the INSET designer is determined upon its potential to address the instructional vision of the design. This is a particular challenge to the designer, especially when professional development is the purpose of the inservice education and training. The visions now held for professional development are seldom articulated, making our creation of better visions, our lessons learned from experience or our ability to share across experience that much more difficult. In short, the role of the program designer to the evaluation of inservice education and training is very similar to that of the teacher to classroom research. It is up to the practitioner, the designer of the inservice education and training, to help policy makers and investigators understand the theoretical basis for the inservice education and training practice. Professional dialogue with policy makers and evaluators will also depend upon the ability of designers to confront the policy and methodology from an educational perspective. This will include the necessity for the designer to open up his or her domain of instructional practice for critical analysis by policy makers and evaluators. Dialogue will depend upon the possibility that other than the program designers can address critical educational issue related to the instructional design of the inservice education and training.

D. **Recommendations for Preparation by Evaluators**

An evaluator is responsible for identifying possible evaluation
strategies and their relative strengths and weaknesses when considering
the evaluation of a particular inservice education and training program.
An understanding of the underlying assumptions of a variety of evaluation
alternatives will usually have to come from the evaluator. Likewise,
a realistic attitude towards what may be feasible and what may not be
feasible in the evaluation of a particular inservice education and
training program is the responsibility of the evaluator. This means
that an INSET evaluator must understand many evaluation methodologies
and not just be one kind of evaluator as was once implied by Stake
(OECD, 1976). Understanding a methodology includes being able to articu-
late the underlying assumptions, operating procedures, necessary re-
sources and viable contexts in which it can be conducted. It will be
the evaluator's responsibility to see that the efforts made to investi-
gate an inservice education and training program are well spent; that
the risks identified by the policy makers and theoretical ambiguities
and contradictions noted by the program designers can be addressed.
Not only is the evaluator responsible for having a range of craft options
available to use in a particular context, it is also necessary that these
options be understood, be confronted and be considered by the policy
makers and designers of inservice education and training.

A successful dialogue on INSET evaluation will depend in very
large part on the ability of the evaluator to speak in plain language
about a variety of evaluation methodologies. The INSET evaluator must
ensure that methodology can be a natural common ground for discussion
where the theoretical bases, conceptual intents and requirements for
practical resources of a variety of methods become part of the shared
understanding of all participants in the dialogue. In short, the mys-
tique of the evaluator must be broken in order that more significant
issues than methodology can be considered in dialogue with policy
makers and program designers.

The following recommendations are made to evaluators to help them
prepare for dialogue with policy makers and program designers on the
evaluation of inservice education and training. As was the case in
the recommendations made to policy makers and program designers, it
is recommended that evaluators a) place the evaluation of the inservice
education and training into context, b) reflect upon their understand-
ing of evaluation and, in particular, how the evaluation of this pro-
gram is related to their past experiences and professional ambitions
and c) to consider how they will confront their own lack of understand-
ing as they confront the understandings of policy makers and program
designers when determining how the investigation will be conducted.
The extent to which the exciting state of the art in evaluation method-
ology is considered and used appropriately in the evaluation of par-
ticular inservice education and training programs will depend upon the
extent to which the evaluator is prepared for dialogue with the policy
maker and program designer.

The following recommendations are suggested to evaluators for
placing the evaluation of inservice education and training in its context:
D1. Make clear your interpretation of the reasons for the inservice education and training program, specify which you consider priorities for investigation. Placing the program in Figure 4, state which intentions you see as being most important for investigation. State whether you see some as purposes, some as aims of the program. For example, if you see stimulating professional development as a reason for the inservice education and training, is that the ultimate aim of the program? Or if implementing social policy is the aim of the program, are the improvement of school practice or the stimulation of professional development secondary purposes? Consider how you see an evaluation study addressing the intentions of the inservice education and training. Which purpose do you think it should emphasize? Why? How will it investigate that purpose? Do you see looking at the purposes and the aims of the program? How will this be done? What else besides the inservice education and training will be the focus of your inquiry?

D2. Place the inservice education and training into its probable setting (single school, multiple school, ad-hoc). Given the setting and the intentions, what do you think is the best that can be done to evaluate the inservice education and training? Have you worked in this setting before? If so, state what you learned works best and why. Look into the possibilities for doing something more useful than you have done before. Given the setting and the intentions, do you even think that an evaluation study could be useful? Determine how you think you should relate to the various persons within that inservice education and training setting; assess to what extent you can.

D3. Analyze your approaches to the three mundane realities to evaluating inservice education and training (its bureaucratic context, choice of methodology and participation). Consider in detail the methodologies available, remembering you are the person most responsible for having policy makers and program designers understand the range of options. Analyze the methodological possibilities in terms of the bureaucratic context of the evaluation and the participatory realities. Be fair about the bureaucratic context—both yours and others'. Be creative in determining what you think is possible given the realities and the issues emanating from these three sources (see Figure 6). Determine to what extent you can be flexible in readjusting the method you think is most desirable.

D4. Consider how the evaluation can be policy relevant, illuminative and participatory. There are, of course, many examples of illuminative studies and the conditions under which they are most feasible. There are also an increasing number of very good examples of investigations with various interpretations.
of participatory involvement. You can judge the possibilities for success in being illuminative and participatory upon some previous experience in addition to your own. Policy relevance is another problem. You may not have many examples of success here. Here, perhaps, you must be a pioneer, analyzing the policy context of the inservice education and training and determining how, this time, the investigation may relate to imminent policy decisions or be used in future considerations by policy makers.

D5. **Place your view of the evaluation of this inservice education and training program into your professional career.** To what extent do you see possibilities in the evaluation study for improving your own professional understanding of evaluation, of INCET or of public policy making? If the study does not further your own career, to what extent do you think you will really be involved? The complex demands of performing an INSET evaluation may make your involvement not worth the necessary efforts unless you can gain more than a temporary livelihood from the enterprise.

The following recommendations are made to evaluators for reflecting about their own positions on the evaluation of inservice education and training:

D6. **State what you have done before in educational evaluation.** Be candid and clear about the study designs, data collection procedures, analyses and reporting procedures you have actually used. Place previous activities into the realities of evaluating inservice education and training as much as possible (e.g. into its bureaucratic context and meanings of participatory involvement as well as choice of methodology). Identify both the best things and the worst things you have done. List some of the lessons you think you have learned from your past evaluation efforts. Relate these to the realities and issues shown in Figure 6.

D7. **Place what you have done before into a wider context.** In methodology, for example, indicate the range of possibilities, both quantitative and qualitative. For example, what traditions of case study have you used (if any): naturalistic, theoretical or historical? What quantitative analyses do you see available and which ones have you used? What is the nature of the study designs you see available and which ones have you used? Here perhaps a grid (e.g. House, 1977) may help the articulation of possible evaluation approaches. So, too, may the political categories of MacDonald (bureaucratic, autocratic and democratic). Of those methods, designs, approaches to evaluation that you have not tried, indicate which you think you understand (or are willing to understand) well enough to try in the future. Indicate which ones you
are not willing to try. If there are some possibilities that you have not tried in the past but are particularly interesting to you now, state what you think you would need to do (if anything) to use that procedure. What other accounts have you read? What other reports have you carefully reviewed? What other procedures have you observed in practice other than your own?

D8. State your own assumptions about inservice education and training. State your own assumptions (or observations) about how inservice education and training policy is made and how evaluative information is or is not used. State your theories of the educational process, particularly your theories of professional development. State your theories about how schools improve, about how social reform is or is not accomplished through social policy. Show how your views of evaluation relate to your assumptions about INSET, about professional development, school improvement, social reform and about what knowledge is and how it is generated. Don't expect to be complete or consistent but gain a better idea of where you feel most comfortable about your understanding and where you do not. Identify ways in which you can build your understanding about INSET, professional development, school improvement and social reform. Consider holding a theory of ways of knowing as a responsibility of your craft.

D9. Review your own view of science and its relationship to the kind of investigations you can probably perform in evaluating an INSET program. Examine, for example, what evidence you anticipate gathering in an INSET study and the nature of the conclusions, implications and recommendations you may reach. To what extent can they be related? Consider the Toulmin view of science, science as dialectical inquiry rather than empirical positivism. Consider the Feyerabend view of science, science as the creation of outrageous statements rather than a deliberate attempt to reduce the number of false theories. Be playful, not so self-indulgent about your views of evaluation as science. Be less somber about the responsibilities you think you hold as a generator of knowledge about INSET. Be honest about your failures as a scientist but equally as honest about your evaluative abilities as a persuader (see House; Perelman and Olbrects).

D10. Identify your own bureaucratic context and what it may mean to what you can do and how you can approach an INSET evaluation.

D11. Try to imagine the most simple and creative ways to evaluate inservice education and training. Don't imagine yourself as a major figure in evaluation theory nor a developer of major innovation methodologies for the profession. You are not a pioneer, but a scout who can tell the rest of the party what
is out there (see Roland Barthes). The challenge is to consider in dialogue how an inservice education and training program can be evaluated, using the best of what is available. The invention of new methods is seldom necessary.

The following recommendations are suggested to evaluators for confronting the policy makers and program designers on the viability and usefulness of an evaluation to their intentions for the inservice education and training program:

D12 Know the policies in which the inservice education and training is embedded. Analyze the extent to which you understand and can address the policies in an evaluation study. Analyze the extent to which the realities of the bureaucratic context and the setting of the inservice education and training program may restrict the possibilities for policy-relevant conclusions and recommendations. Decide if it is possible for you to be policy relevant within this context. If you have doubts, share them with the policy makers. They may have other ideas of what would make the evaluation relevant to them.

D13 Prepare to understand the policy makers and instructional designers. Learn their views of evaluation, their theories of professional development, their interpretations of science, investigation and knowledge. Gain an understanding of the contexts and pasts of the policy makers and designers that is necessary for you to address them at their own levels of concerns, experience and understanding. Realize, of course, that they may have more experience in evaluations than you and that, from their perspective, many of the past evaluations have been failures. Determine to what extent they may be flexible in their consideration of how events can be understood, described and their meanings communicated. Consider their views of instruction and how evaluation is or is not contained in their views. Make sure you understand the designers' theories of professional development and can place (revise, recreate) your views of evaluation into that perspective. For example, you may want to place your methods for capturing the intentions, processes and consequences of the inservice education and training into the designers' theories of professional development. In short, you must be prepared to understand the realities and perspectives of policy makers and designers on their own terms. You must be able to articulate the options and possibilities you see in the evaluation of inservice education and training into their terms. As sponsors of the study, they must gain insights that they are able to recognize in their work. Never underestimate the capabilities of the policy makers and the program designers to understand the issues in evaluating inservice education and training.
D14. Determine the extent to which the significance of the policies and the challenge of the instructional design may stretch your own capabilities in evaluation. The ultimate test of the possibility for an evaluation of inservice education and training to further the career of an evaluator is that it demand new levels of performance. To an evaluator, many areas of performance go beyond the methodology chosen and used. They may include new ways of reporting, gaining better understanding of the decision making process, designing new ways to integrate the evaluation with the instruction or creating new perspectives on professional development. New successes or failures in the eventual conduct of the study will determine the place of the study in the career of the evaluator. The significance of these successes and failures, however, will depend upon the extent to which the evaluation was a challenge and required some risk-taking in the evaluation design.

Professional dialogue between policy makers, designers and evaluators on the evaluation of inservice education and training programs will depend largely on the preparation of the evaluator. In preparing for dialogue, the evaluator must be able to articulate the range of evaluation possibilities and their respective feasibility given the context of the inservice education and training program. The evaluator must be prepared to talk about evaluation on both a theoretical as well as a practical level with the policy makers and designers. They, too, have theories of evaluation, of science, of knowledge and its relation to policy. They, too, have practical experience with past evaluations. In addition to addressing them on crucial issues relating to the evaluation design, the evaluator must also be prepared to address the crucial issues relating to policy making and to designing of the instruction in inservice education and training. Just as theories and underlying assumptions about evaluation are held by the policy makers and designers, so, too, evaluators have theories and underlying assumptions about policy making and designing. These theories and assumptions are relevant to the eventual conduct of the evaluation and should be open for critical analysis. The evaluator must not only be prepared to discuss evaluation with respect towards others' views of evaluation, the evaluator must also be prepared to earn the respect of others in discussing their professional fields of policy making and instructional design.

In conclusion, recommendations have been given to policy makers, designers and evaluators of inservice education and training functioning in their own work contexts. The recommendations are given as suggestions for each role preparing to engage in dialogue with the others on the evaluation of inservice education and training. Recommendations have not been given on how to perform better evaluation studies.
It has instead been argued that better evaluations of inservice education and training will depend upon better dialogue between policy makers, designers and evaluators in the context of the specific inservice education and training program being evaluated. Furthermore, for this dialogue to occur, there must be significantly more attention given by the major parties to their own interpretations of the intentions of the inservice education and training programs, to their own underlying assumptions about professional development, school change and social reform as well as how evaluation can serve these intentions, and to their previous experiences and understanding. This includes their understanding not only of evaluation and of inservice education and training but a host of related issues as well such as their views of science and ways of knowing. Figure 7, below, summarises the recommendations for the preparation for dialogue between policy makers, program designers and evaluators.
for placing the evaluation into context:

Articulate the reason you support inservice education and training (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy).

Consider the efficacy of the evaluation to the inservice education and training context.

Consider the issues emanating from the realities of an evaluation of inservice education and training.

Determine where your responsibilities and continued involvement may be the most useful in the analytic process of the evaluation and in the resolution of issues emanating from the realities of the evaluation.

for confronting our understanding:

Ask yourself what would happen if you suspended your belief in science and increased your belief in a process whereby information is negotiated.

State your assumptions about the instructional aspects of inservice education and training.

State what you have done before in educational vocation.

Place what you have done before into a wider context.

Identify the intent of the inservice education and training (to stimulate professional development, to improve school practice, to implement social policy).

Consider the efficacy of evaluation not only to the instructional design but to other issues suggested by the INSET context.

Consider each of the three levels of evaluation reality: Its bureaucratic context, its methodology and participatory involvement.

Determine what your involvement in the evaluation may be.

Place the inservice education and training into its probable setting (single school, multiple school, ad-hoc).

Analyze your approaches to the three mundane realities to evaluating inservice education and training (its bureaucratic context, choice of methodology and participation).

Consider how the evaluation can be policy relevant, illuminative and participatory.

Place your view of the evaluation of this inservice education and training program into your professional career.
Construct your own view of policy and the relationship of information to policy.

List the alternatives you see to inservice education and training.

Ask yourself if you can doubt your own rhetoric for choosing inservice education and training.

If professional development is an intent of the inservice education and training, state your visions of what professional development may be.

State the educational theories that influence your inservice education and training design.

State your own theories of how educational evaluation relates to instructional design.

Be articulate and clear about what you may need to know to design inservice education and training better.

State your own assumptions about inservice education and training.

Review your own view of science and its relationship to the kinds of investigations you can probably perform in evaluating an INSET program.

Identify your own bureaucratic context and what it may mean to what you can do and how you can approach an INSET evaluation.

Try to imagine what the most simple and creative ways to evaluate inservice education and training might be.

for confronting others' understanding:

Be very selective in who is chosen to evaluate inservice education and training.

Be prepared to address other than your instructional intentions.

Know the policies in which the inservice education and training is embedded.

Look at what the evaluators have done in the past.

Relate your priorities for information to those of the INSET policy maker.

Prepare to understand the policy makers and instructional designers.

Do not accept all the solemn pronouncements of evaluators towards their methodologies.

Assess the potential evaluators.

Determine to the extent to which the significance of the policies and the challenge of the instructional design may stretch your own capabilities in evaluation.

Figure 7. Summary of Recommendations to Policy Makers, Program Designers and Evaluators in Preparing for Dialogue on the Evaluation of Inservice Education and Training
Selective Bibliography

This selective bibliography consists mainly of British and American studies because of the writer's familiarity with these sources. It is, of course, recognized that comparable work exists in other countries.


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