7 FOLLOW-UP STRATEGIES

Ensuring that Instruction Makes a Difference

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Janet's Story Continues

Janet is back at work the Monday following the workshop on integrated therapy. At the beginning of the day, a few colleagues asked how she had liked the workshop and if she'd gotten any shopping done at the mall. Janet started to explain how much she'd learned, but it seemed to fall on very uninterested ears. Her colleagues were certainly competent but were not familiar with the approaches she now wanted to implement—approaches that were a significant departure from existing practices in the agency. Undaunted, Janet went to her boss to outline her new ideas and ask for support. Her boss listened politely and told her how glad she was that the seminar had been worthwhile given the amount of money it had cost but informed her that there were many other, more pressing priorities that needed attention. Janet was free to do as she pleased in terms of implementation, but it would have to be on her own.

Janet decided to try another strategy to gain support; she asked the staff to join her for a "brown bag" luncheon at which time she would more fully explain the procedures. A few staff members came, but they seemed to be full of "yeah, buts" and the discussion quickly moved into more immediate concerns, such as upcoming individualized family service plan meetings and a family in crisis. It seemed she was going to have to do this alone. She wondered if that was even possible. And what was also frustrating was that she so quickly became wrapped up in the usual frenzy of her job. She had little time to even think about the many things she'd learned, much less implement them! She had another idea: The instructors had offered to lend telephone support to participants and had given their telephone numbers. It seemed like an intrusion, but they were nice people and she really did need ideas about how to proceed, so Janet swallowed hard and made the call. She was informed that the instructors were "on the road" and would be hard to reach for the next couple of weeks.

One last try. She decided to contact a fellow speech-language clinician from the workshop who had been equally enthusiastic about the procedures. Janet was met with a similar discouraging tale of implementation woes. It seemed they were both in the same very frustrating and discouraging place. After a few minutes of commiserating, Janet hung up and decided to give up. It was just too hard to implement innovative ideas with so little support, so few resources, and so little time. If only the workshop had included follow-up strategies; if only other members of her team had attended with her; if only she'd thought about and prioritized what she wanted to do on the job before she'd left the workshop; if only she'd had a chance to anticipate the barriers and strategize solutions; if only

they'd gotten better handouts that she could share with colleagues; if only a fol-low-up session had been planned; if only. . . .

Janet's story is a common tale. Implementation of suggested procedures on the job is the most difficult and complex outcome of training, requiring the most intensive instructional design. Training, whether preservice or inservice, addresses the knowledge or awareness of participants related to the topic, changes in attitudes toward the topic, and development of skill in the content area (Joyce & Showers, 1995; Knox, 1986; Wood, McQuarrie, & Thompson, 1982). Joyce and Showers (1988) suggested an additional aim: ''transfer of training and executive control (the consistent and appropriate use of new skills and strategies)'' (p. 68). Caffarella (1994) defined transfer of learning as the effective application by program participants of what they learned as a result of attending an educational program. It is the ''so what'' or ''now what'' phase of the personnel development process. This chapter describes follow-up procedures that can help ensure transfer of learning to the job.

WHY DO FOLLOW-UP?

Harris (1980) and Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) suggested that different types of instructional objectives require different degrees of change in the learner. The most complex objectives, those that require transfer and mediation of learning in the applied setting, require a combination of activities, including follow-up strategies. Personnel preparation experts highlight the critical role follow-up strategies play in facilitating transfer of learning (Caffarella, 1994; Winton, 1990). Yet in planning instructional programs, until fairly recently, it was assumed that transfer of learning would somehow just happen. Instructors paid little attention to planning systematically for integration of content in the workplace. It primarily was left to participants to apply what they had learned as they saw fit (Caffarella, 1994). It was the ''train-and-hope'' approach illustrated in Janet's story.

There are at least three primary reasons why planning for learning transfer is receiving increased emphasis. First, in staff development efforts, participants, their administrators, and even members of the community-at-large are demanding results-oriented outcomes from instructors. The results these individuals usually desire is transfer of knowledge, skills, or attitudes from the training context to the workplace. Planning for transfer of learning may ensure that inservice training efforts do not continue to be characterized as ''the slum of American education'' and ''a waste of time and money'' (Wood & Thompson, 1980, p. 374). Second, instructors recognize that installing complex, innovative service delivery models requires more than the train-and-hope approach described in Janet's story. This approach leaves the transfer of learning to chance. Early interventionists need systematic assistance to transfer newly acquired knowledge, skills, or attitudes about team processes, family-centered service models, routines-based intervention, and integrated therapy (Winton, 1990). Finally, there is consensus that instructional efforts should address how knowledge, skills, or attitudes developed in training mesh with the realities of the workplace, including not only individuals but also administrators, children, family members, and organizational policies and procedures. For inservice participants, the full cooperation and support of administrators and organizational policies and procedures that support transfer are critical features of staff development programs (Ingvarson & Mackenzie, 1988). For preservice participants, in preparing for some future role, an awareness of how these programmatic elements serve as supports is critical.

Enabling people to make changes—changes in themselves, in their practices, in the children and families they serve, in their organizations, and even in their communities—is

what learning transfer is all about. Many reasons are offered to explain why participants do or do not apply what they have learned. Examples include whether participants considered the training relevant and practical, whether the instructor was effective, the presence or absence of demonstration and practice activities during training, the opportunity to receive supportive and corrective feedback on site during or following the seminar, and the support of colleagues and administrators following instruction (Wolfe, 1990). Caffarella (1994) organized factors affecting learning transfer into six categories: 1) program participants, 2) program design and execution, 3) program content, 4) changes required to apply learning, 5) organizational context, and 6) community/societal forces. These factors can be barriers or enhancers to the learning transfer process. Examples of specific barriers and enhancers associated with each of these factors appear in Table 7.1. Although developed from the perspective of inservice training, similar barriers and enhancers will be present for the new graduate of a preservice program as well.

Examination of the factors and associated examples reveals that learning transfer is a complex issue. Complexity increases when training and development aims are complex, large numbers of people are targeted for instruction, great magnitudes of change are desired, and the developer and participants have limited control over organizational and community forces (Caffarella, 1994). Regardless of complexity, however, the factors listed in Table 7.1 reinforce the point that a single approach to addressing transfer of learning is not likely to be effective. Characteristics of the participants, the instructional program, the organizational context, and the community all interact to facilitate or impede transfer.

One of the most widely cited sources highlighting the importance of follow-up support is a report published by the Rand Corporation, which is an examination of federally funded staff development programs designed to spread innovations in the public schools. Milbrey and McLaughlin (1978), the authors of this report, found that programs making a lasting difference emphasized concrete, teacher-specified, extended training. The combination of classroom assistance by resource personnel and follow-up meetings had positive effects on the percentage of staff development goals achieved, students' performance, and implementation and continued use of the innovation by teachers. These authors also found that quality, not quantity, of follow-up resource assistance was critical for success. Good consultants, whether local or outside resources, provided concrete, practical advice to teachers. The consultants assisted teachers in learning to solve problems for themselves, rather than solving problems for them.

Other authors have similarly endorsed on-site support from administrators and colleagues following instruction as an important component of staff development efforts. Sparks (1983) cited the importance of discussion and peer observation as follow-up activities. She noted that discussion is useful as a problem-solving tool after teachers have had an opportunity to try new strategies. Hinson, Caldwell, and Landrum (1989) recommended the formation of support teams (teams of workshop participants) to enhance follow-up efforts. Glatthorn (1987) identified four ways small teams of teachers could work together for cooperative professional development: 1) professional dialogue, 2) curriculum development, 3) peer supervision, and 4) peer coaching.

Professionals working with young children with and without disabilities also perceive follow-up support to be an important component of staff development. Sexton, Snyder, Wolfe, Lobman, and Akers (1996) and Wolfe (1990) asked 241 early intervention and 122 early childhood inservice participants, respectively, to rank 22 training and follow-up strategies according to the amount of change each fostered on the job. For each group of respondents, follow-up job assistance (defined as on-the-job help and feedback on current activities related to an inservice topic) ranked second only to observing actual practice. These respondents ranked follow-up meetings (sessions following the inservice to discuss

TABLE 7.1. Factors associated with learning transfer

Barriers	Enhancers
Program participants	
Do not have a voice in the planning process	Assist with planning via needs assessment
Do not possess necessary prerequisite knowledge or experience	Have useful prior knowledge and experiences that can be linked to new learning
Do not believe they will be successful in making changes	Have had prior success in making changes
Do not have time to incorporate new practices	Are risk takers
Are not persistent	Realize that change takes time and effort and work to carve out time to try new things
Are not self-confident in their teaching abilities	Are able to drive through initial trials when performance is awkward and effect minimal
Are not motivated to change	Have a positive self-concept about teaching skills, abilities, and impact
Have interfering life issues (e.g., financial worries, divorce)	View the changes as relevant and practical
	See benefits in the change
Program design and execution	
Lacks emphasis on application in terms of instructional methods	Incorporates application strategies such as demonstration, practice with feedback, group discussion, and back-home planning
Includes no follow-up strategies	Recognizes that when transfer of learning is the desired result, follow-up strategies such as coaching, teaching others, assignments, peer support groups, refresher courses, or administrative support are likely to enhance outcomes
Does not emphasize problem solving	
Is not delivered by an effective instructor	
Is not enjoyable for participants	
Is a "one-shot" activity	Includes opportunities for problem identification and solving
Does not include resources to support change	Is delivered by an instructor who is well prepared, knowledgeable, and enthusiastic and who uses a variety of active learning techniques
	Is part of a multiphase program
	Includes human and written resources to enhance and support the change process
	Incorporates practices to encourage reflection and critical thinking, such as keeping a journal, using case methods, role-playing, and so forth

TABLE 7.1. *(continued)*

Barriers	Enhancers
Program content	
Is not based on participant needs	Is based on the assessed needs of participants
Does not consider learners' experiences as a point of departure	Builds on previous knowledge and experience of participants and recognizes that sometimes new learning requires unlearning
Does not encourage reflective thinking about experiences, values, assumptions	
Is not practical/readily applicable	Is driven by clear, specific goals and shaped by evaluation data
Has unclear goals	Content is up to date and supported by research
Is not driven by evaluation data based on application of practices	Is relevant and practical and includes ideas to implement immediately and opportunity to develop back-home plans
Changes required to apply learning	
Do not give learners an opportunity to grow	Are challenging but realistic and possible
Changes expected are unrealistic	Given time, are an extension or modification of current practice and are approached incrementally
Are too disruptive to existing routines and practices	
Are not supported in the program	Are supported by norms of collegiality and experimentation
Organizational context	
Does not have an ongoing problem-solving and improvement process	Has an atmosphere of equity in problem solving and program improvement
Staff members do not have a good working relationship	Staff members work well together and provide technical help and support to one another
Agency administrators do not support change or are unaware of the changes suggested	Administrators understand, support, and encourage changes
Administrators do not provide time or follow-up support	Administrators provide time and resources to support change
Organization does not provide incentives to change	Organization provides recognition, affiliation opportunities, support for making changes, and opportunities for leadership
Community/societal forces	
Includes key leaders who are hostile to proposed change	Key leaders support change
Does not offer policies or financial resources to support change	Policies and financial resources direct and/or support change
Societal norms or values impede change	Receptive political climate

Adapted from Caffarella (1994).

progress and problems related to content) sixth and ninth, respectively, with mean scores of 2.82 and 2.78 on a 4.0 Likert-type scale. The perspectives of early intervention personnel support the incorporation of on-site follow-up from administrators or peers into staff development efforts. In the next section, several follow-up strategies are described in more detail.

Despite fairly widespread agreement about the importance of follow-up in staff development, especially when the goals of instruction include application and problem solving on the job, Wood and Thompson (1980) noted that the lack of follow-up in the job setting after instruction takes place is almost universal. Fullan (1982) stated: ''The absence of follow-up after workshops is without doubt the greatest single problem in contemporary professional development'' (p. 287). Thompson and Cooley (1986) offered data to support these assertions. They conducted a descriptive study to gather data about the perceived importance and the actual practices of ongoing staff development programs in local school districts. The authors received responses to a mail survey from representatives of 267 school districts throughout the United States. Of the respondents, 90% believed that follow-up sessions after instruction were important, but only 33% reported that sessions typically were scheduled.

FOLLOW-UP STRATEGIES

Follow-up strategies have been offered as one way to influence transfer of learning. These strategies, part of program design and execution, are defined as transfer strategies employed after the educational program is completed. Examples are back-home plans, individualized learning contracts, support groups, coaching, assignments, and telephone calls. Follow-up strategies are receiving increased attention in the staff development literature as powerful methods for enhancing learning transfer (e.g., Duttweiler, 1989; Hinson et al., 1989).

Although follow-up strategies are believed to be important for transfer of learning, there is a notable absence of empirical research to support many of these methods. The two exceptions are support groups and coaching. There is a significant amount of literature that documents the efficacy of these two approaches (e.g., Ingvarson & Mackenzie, 1988; Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1983; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Miller, Harris, & Watanabe, 1991; Pasch & Harberts, 1992; Phillips & Glickman, 1991; Showers, 1985; Showers et al., 1987; Sparks, 1983, 1986).

Peer Support Groups

Peer support groups provide opportunities to extend learning beyond the instructional program. The purposes of the support group are to help participants work through the various stages of implementation, to develop collegiality, to provide assistance with problems, to develop common language and understandings, and to learn from members' experiences (Killion & Kaylor, 1991). Ongoing support from colleagues maintains the excitement and momentum of the new learning long after the training ends.

A collegial or peer support group is a group of colleagues that meets periodically following a seminar to help and support each other in making desired changes. Peer support groups should be small (5–12 members) and should be safe places where 1) members volunteer to be, 2) topics for discussion are generated by group members, 3) the group works together to establish norms for behavior within the support group meeting (e.g., confidentiality, equal participation time, honest feedback), and 4) the primary goal of improving each other's competence in specific teaching strategies or practices is never lost (Killion & Kaylor, 1991).

Peer support groups succeed when they are carefully structured to provide support and encouragement, to produce concrete products (e.g., lesson plans or materials) that members can actually use, and/or to provide opportunities for problem solving and practice (Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Parry, 1990). The structure must clearly point members toward increasing each other's expertise. Participants must ensure that considerable face-to-face discussion and assistance takes place, hold each other accountable to implement their plans between meetings, learn and use interpersonal small-group skills required to make meetings productive, and periodically initiate a discussion of how effective the group is in carrying out its mission (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

According to Johnson and Johnson (1994), there are four key activities of a peer support group:

1. Discussion concerning the topic being implemented: This may include introduction of new material or review of previously covered information. For example, if members of the peer support group have attended a workshop on integrated therapy, there may be review of a skill, such as embedding goals, or a new strategy might be introduced, such as conducting structured play sessions.
2. Sharing of successes related to instructional content: For example, a therapist who left a seminar with the goal of using language facilitation strategies in the classroom with two target children during choice time might share what he or she did, how well it worked, and even how the children reacted.
3. Problem solving specific issues and concerns related to instructional content: For example, problem posers clearly delineate the instruction-related problem they have encountered and what they have already done to try and solve it. Group members then brainstorm potential solutions, which are recorded. The problem poser then selects a solution to try from the options given. Figure 7.1 illustrates a form that can be helpful in this problem-solving process.
4. Coplanning new goals and strategies for future implementation: This may include activities such as revising back-home plans, jointly writing lesson plans, or preparing materials that incorporate suggested strategies. For example, group members might prepare lessons for structured play sessions that facilitate specific language skills.

Peer support groups typically meet for 1–1½ hours on a regular basis. The length of the meetings will depend on the size of the group and familiarity of members with one another. The agenda of each meeting should be negotiated so that members are satisfied with the time set for each task. Leadership of peer support groups may be fixed or fluid. The more the group takes over its own leadership responsibilities, the more individually accountable members will be. Groups may be organized following an instructional event or series of events. It is important that all group members have attended the same workshop to have a similar knowledge base. It is also essential that group members prepare back-home plans following instruction as a point of departure for peer support group activities. Figure 7.2 illustrates a sample back-home plan form.

Coaching

Coaching involves helping participants implement newly acquired skills, strategies, or models on the job. It has four major functions: 1) provide companionship, 2) provide technical feedback, 3) analyze application, and 4) adapt the results to students (Showers, 1985). Coaching can be guided by experts or fellow learners in pairs or teams. Peer coaching involves companion functions of peer observations and small teacher support groups. For instance, teachers might observe each other's classrooms, receive feedback

Date	Description of problem	Potential solutions	Decisions	Individual responsibilities and time lines

Figure 7.1. An example of a form that may be used to record peer support group problem solving. (Adapted from Portland State University [1982].)

Instructions: In the spaces provided, develop a plan of action for yourself that details what you intend to do as a result of this workshop. Write goals that are clear, specific, and action oriented. Next, think of the steps involved in accomplishing these goals. Then, think of people and resources that might help you in reaching these goals. Finally, decide on a time line for accomplishing your goals.

Goal I want to achieve: _____

Date by which I want to achieve this goal: _____

Steps to take	**Resources and people who could help me accomplish this step**
1. _____	_____
2. _____	_____
3. _____	_____
4. _____	_____
5. _____	_____

Goal I want to achieve: _____

Date by which I want to achieve this goal: _____

Steps to take	**Resources and people who could help me accomplish this step**
1. _____	_____
2. _____	_____
3. _____	_____
4. _____	_____
5. _____	_____

Figure 7.2. A sample of a back-home plan form. (From Winton, P.J., & Catlett, C. [1996, June]. *My plan for back home*. Unpublished handout, Southeastern Institute for Faculty Training Outreach (SIFT-OUT) Faculty institute. Flat Rock, NC: Authors; originally adapted from Group Child Care Consulting Services, School of Social Work, University of North Carolina [1982].)

about their teaching, implement improved or new techniques, and receive ongoing support from members of their group. Teacher support groups typically consist of three to five individuals who meet regularly to solve problems and provide professional stimulation. Ackland (1991) listed three characteristics common to all coaching programs: 1) non-evaluative, 2) based on the observation of classroom teaching followed by constructive feedback, and 3) aimed to improve instructional techniques.

Empirical research in teacher education supports the value of coaching as a follow-up strategy. Showers (1985) reported that coaching provided the necessary follow-up for learning new skills. Moreover, teachers who were coached by peers transferred learning at a greater rate than uncoached teachers (Showers, 1984). Miller et al. (1991) found that two coaching sessions in a 5-week period were effective for improving teacher performance, and use of the newly acquired skills was demonstrated 3 months later. Ackland (1991) cited 29 studies that demonstrated the effectiveness of two types of coaching: coaching by experts and reciprocal coaching.

Duttweiler (1989) concluded that, regardless of type, successful coaching programs were characterized by several elements. First, the process was removed from summative teacher evaluation. Second, participation was voluntary. Third, there was structure in the process usually involving goal setting, observation, and a format for sharing information. Finally, the school climate was conducive to collegiality and instructional improvement (see also Chapter 8). Effective models for peer-coaching continue to evolve (see Joyce & Showers, 1995, for more information).

Other Follow-Up Strategies

Numerous follow-up strategies beyond peer support groups and coaching have been suggested in the literature and used in practice (e.g., Killion & Kaylor, 1991; Parry, 1990). Although many of these approaches have not been examined empirically, it is useful to know what these strategies are and to consider their potential advantages and disadvantages. Each of these strategies addresses application of skills, whether serving as a reminder or providing more comprehensive assistance. Table 7.2 illustrates additional follow-up strategies and posits several advantages and disadvantages for each. The list is not exhaustive; however, it illustrates possible approaches that early intervention personnel instructors might include in the design, implementation, and evaluation of teacher development activities.

In inservice settings, follow-up strategies have a greater chance of success in facilitating transfer of learning when other personal, instructional, and organizational factors (see Table 7.1) are part of the staff development plan. Guskey (1986) concluded that continued support and follow-up after initial instruction is critical to success. He maintained that support and follow-up will be effective only when they are implemented in a supportive context and where there are ongoing opportunities for participants to share ideas in an atmosphere of collegiality.

CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH FOLLOW-UP

Three of the most commonly cited challenges associated with implementing follow-up are time, monetary expense, and disruption (Wenz & Adams, 1991). Participants in peer coaching programs, for example, need to have time available for peer observation and support group meetings. Follow-up is expensive. Wenz and Adams noted that many inservice developers spend hours figuring out how to provide follow-up without breaking their budgets. Finally, follow-up can be disruptive. Some participants may not want to

TABLE 7.2. Follow-up strategies

Strategy	Description	Advantages/ideas	Disadvantages
Back-home plans	An action plan that spells out one to three goals with action steps to be accomplished following instruction; can be derived from an ongoing "to do" list that is part of instruction (see Figure 7.2)	Can be shared with supervisors or peers during or following instruction to gain support for changes Offers an opportunity to reflect on content and determine where to begin implementation Can be combined with a problem-solving process in training that identifies potential barriers to goal attainment and suggests possible solutions Quick and easy Can be used in evaluation; can be self-duplicating paper for multiple copies and used in follow-up telephone calls to discuss progress	Typically completed at the conclusion of training when participants are eager to leave Participants have reported in two studies that back-home plans only moderately effective in promoting changes
Mentors	An experienced peer or trusted counselor who provides feedback and support on an ongoing basis	Connects mentees to resources Develops a support base for mentees Mentors polish skills and reflect on their own practices Is individualized	Is time consuming and labor intensive Is constrained by attitudes and skills of mentors Can create dependence Must be supported by the school or agency

TABLE 7.2. *(continued)*

Strategy	Description	Advantages/ideas	Disadvantages
Support groups	Small groups of teachers meet on an ongoing basis to discuss progress, solve problems, analyze and discuss cases, and extend learning	Best if voluntary Ongoing support, feedback, and discussion can maintain enthusiasm and momentum and help push through first difficult stages of implementation May be used to target and pursue new learning, conduct action research, develop materials or curriculum Develops collegiality and independence from instructor Needs to balance structure and open-endedness Inexpensive and site based; places responsibility for implementation on learner Can be used in evaluation	Can become a gripe session if not focused and partially structured Needs support of administration Effectiveness data are limited but indicate positive results Relies on team participation/instruction Depends on collegiality and trust in group members
Coaching	Practitioners observed in the classroom and given feedback by ''experts'' or peers on an ongoing basis	Assessment should be collaborative and objective Targets for observation should be selected by person being observed Research supports effectiveness Develops collegiality and partnerships in growth Can be implemented in small groups Assessment should be reciprocal Is individualized Encourages reciprocal reflection	Assessment that may become evaluative Time consuming and labor intensive Needs support of administration Can create ''hard feelings'' when done poorly

Assignments	Training-related tasks to do back home	Works best when paired with feedback and credit	"School-like" and not perceived as effective by inservice participants in two studies
		Participants need to have choices and may be encouraged to develop their own assignments	Does not promote collegiality and support
		Needs to be related to practice	May be "busy work" and irrelevant
		If carefully chosen and implemented, may encourage transfer to the workplace	Motivation may be a problem
		May be used in evaluation	
Job aids	Planning sheets, forms, flowcharts, checklists, "how-to" or "reminder" posters, and so forth, that can be used in the workplace to reinforce content/practices	Cost and time efficient	Limited scope—few subjects lend themselves to such a simple "how-to" approach
		Provide a simple reinforcement of training content/practices	No effectiveness data available
		Easy to use	
		Can be commercially available instruments or can be generated by the instructor and/or participants	
Handouts	Blank copies of handouts for further use; ongong "ideas to try" sheets to be used in back-home planning	Empty handouts can be used by participants to train others	Impersonal
		Simple to implement	Noninteractive
		Cost and time efficient	Reinforces knowledge but not practice or skill
		Participants claimed handouts were effective for learning transfer in two studies	

TABLE 7.2. *(continued)*

Strategy	Description	Advantages/ideas	Disadvantages
Refresher sessions	Participants reconvene with the instructor to review and extend their understandings and practices	Promotes collegiality and recognizes learning as an ongoing process Can be used to clear up misunderstandings and as a vehicle for problem solving May be used in evaluations	May be costly and difficult to implement when participants and/or instructor are geographically distant May encourage dependence on instructor No effectiveness data available
Follow-up letters/ packets of information	A letter and/or follow-up materials (e.g., related articles, resources) sent by instructor after the session(s)	Can serve as a reminder and extension of training content Can be a vehicle for distributing "personal requests" that arise in the workshop Cost and time efficient May be individualized to individual participants and tied to back-home plans	Impersonal Noninteractive "One-shot" Reinforces knowledge but not necessarily practice or skills
Follow-up telephone call	A telephone contact after the training from the instructor or fellow participant to discuss progress and problems	Can be used in evaluation if conducted by instructor Simple to implement Provides a small measure of accountability and support Individualized and personal Deemed moderately effective by inservice participants in two studies	May involve considerable time and cost expenditure if conducted by instructor "One-shot" Only slightly interactive

interact with peers because they believe the natural flow of events in an intervention context may be interrupted by having another person in the setting.

There are several other challenges in implementing follow-up that have been raised in the literature. These include defining the focus of follow-up, scheduling the timing of follow-up, maintaining follow-up, and determining who is involved in planning follow-up.

Defining the Focus of Follow-Up

Follow-up activities usually focus on the individual. Staff developers recognize, however, that follow-up activities often need to be implemented at team, organizational, or community levels for successful learning transfer to occur. For example, follow-up activities focused only on Janet may not be sufficient to support learning transfer. Janet's team members may need follow-up to ensure they understand the principles and practices associated with routines-based intervention and integrated therapy. Her administrator might be asked to review existing operating policies and procedures to determine if barriers exist related to the provision of integrated therapy services.

Scheduling the Timing of Follow-Up

Transfer of learning strategies can be used before, during, or after an instructional event occurs. A challenge for developers is to determine when follow-up activities should begin. Although implemented after the workshop, should planning for follow-up begin earlier? How much time should elapse, if any, between the workshop and the implementation of follow-up activities? Parry (1990) recommended that instructors and administrators share responsibility for a seamless maintenance system, one that will support and reinforce learners as they attempt to apply at work what they learned in the workshop. This means planning for learning transfer and follow-up should begin early, as part of the needs assessment process. As needs for professional development are identified, early intervention instructors should ask, "What supports will participants need on the job to apply instructional content?" For inservice participants, the personnel development plan should include specification of how and when these supports will be put in place. Some follow-up activities, such as telephone calls, may occur several weeks after the seminar. Other transfer of learning or follow-up supports could begin immediately after training (e.g., support groups, administrative endorsement).

Maintaining Follow-Up

Who should be responsible for maintaining follow-up? At the inservice level, instructors, administrators, and participants initially may share, equally or unequally, the responsibility for follow-up. Over time, however, follow-up should become the responsibility of agency personnel, including administrators and participants. This approach focuses attention on the importance of helping administrators and participants identify and use existing resources so that the formal support offered by instructors becomes less important and not always a necessary condition for ongoing staff development (Winton, 1990).

Determining Who Is Involved in Planning Follow-Up

In addition to the educator, who else should be involved in planning follow-up? Broad and Newstrom (1992) suggested that key players should be involved in planning. They characterized key players as the people or groups that need to be involved to have the transfer of learning actually happen. Key players in early intervention could include the participants, their colleagues, administrators, and family members. Havelock and Havelock (1973) referred to these individuals as organizational families and noted that they have a

direct effect on one another in the workplace. Therefore, their involvement in planning for follow-up may be critical for learning transfer to occur at both the preservice and the inservice levels.

CONCLUSION

Planning for transfer and implementing follow-up after instruction is expensive, time consuming, and challenging. The train-and-hope approach, however, does not appear to be a viable alternative. Instructional developers in early intervention can no longer ignore the critical role that follow-up plays in transfer. If the desired outcome of staff development is on-the-job application of knowledge, attitudes, or skills, then follow-up and other transfer strategies must be used. Early intervention personnel instructors who ignore follow-up in application circumstances are likely to find their staff development efforts characterized as irrelevant and ineffective, a waste of time and money (Wood & Thompson, 1980).

This chapter has presented concrete strategies for follow-up. However, none of these strategies should be used without consideration of the goals for staff development, the larger contexts in which instruction and implementation are to occur, and data collected in the other two parts of the instructional triad—needs assessment and evaluation.

Personnel development comes in a variety of forms in early intervention. In the inservice context, it can be an awareness-level workshop on the early intervention system, a comprehensive agencywide initiative to install an innovative practice, or a community-based examination of inclusive practices. In the preservice context it can be a comprehensive course on assessment methods, fieldwork experiences with a team of early interventionists, or a personal learning project that examines transition practices in the community. Only rarely are personnel development goals meaningfully accomplished through brief, episodic workshops or classes. In both contexts, teaching should be an ongoing process, where people interact with one another in particular contexts to implement change for the benefit of themselves, their organization, and the consumers of their services.

An important first step is to ask a simple question: "What is the goal for the instructional program?" If transfer of learning is a goal, then follow-up plans must be developed and implemented. At the inservice level, these plans will apply to the existing work situation, whereas at the preservice level, projects, papers, observations, and other class activities or assignments should be made as relevant as possible to potential work contexts. Organizational supports and resources should be present to support learning transfer. Evaluation should document how transfer occurred and what impact it had on the learner and, if possible, on the organization and the consumers of services. Needs assessment, follow-up, and evaluation activities should be matched to the goals of the effort.

For too long, the train-and-hope mentality has guided staff development in early intervention. Most training and development goals cannot be addressed through this approach. Isolated and cursory needs assessments, limited follow-up, satisfaction measures, and frequency counts of how many people received instruction should no longer dominate the early intervention personnel development landscape. Personnel instructors in early intervention should use the growing body of empirical research on staff development and individual and organizational change as well as principles of adult learning to guide their efforts. Economic and knowledge barriers exist, but how successfully these barriers are overcome will determine the health of early intervention personnel development in the 21st century (cf. Bricker, 1988).

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