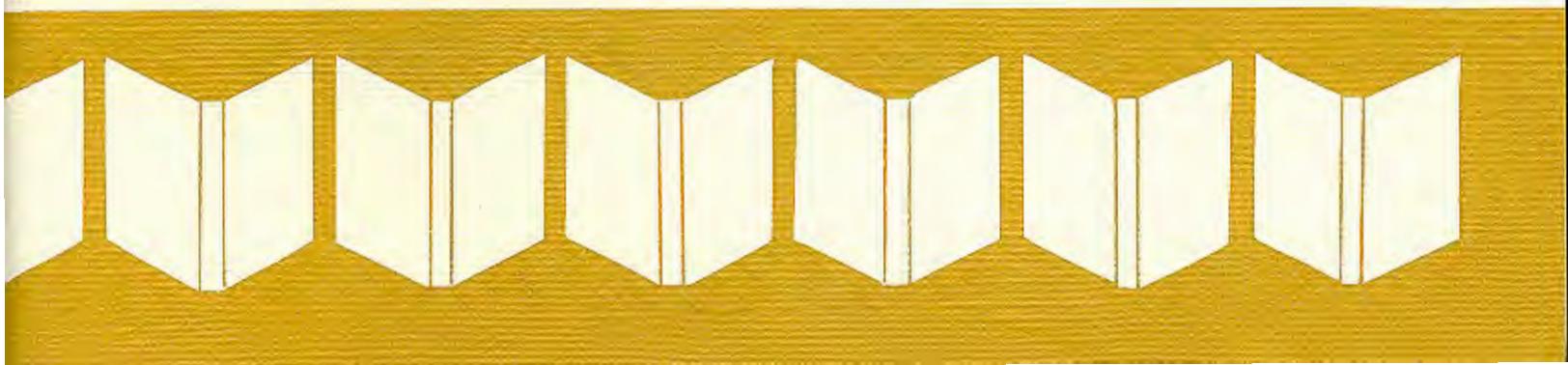winter
1981

educational
considerations

published at kansas state university college of education

Leadership is vital component

The educational enterprise of the United States is, at this juncture in history, faced by a series of demands, requirements, and mandates exceeding those at any other point in time. Institutions of education at all levels, both public and private, are expected to respond not only to local requests and expectations and state requirements, but to the rapidly escalating number of federal mandates.

In earlier times, once an individual had completed the degree or certification requirements for entry into the profession of education, changes in society and law came slowly and did not arrive on the doorstep of the school on a daily basis, as now seems the case. Now however, present-day practitioners are faced with meeting the demands of an increasingly wide variety of publics, demands which occur at a pace never before experienced. In the face of new expectations and demands for professional behaviors previously never required, faculty and staff development and in-service education take on a new and added importance.

Traditionally faculty and staff development and improvement has followed one of two processes. First, and of long standing, have been the efforts of individual practitioners to improve their professional qualifications and competence. Such self-improvement has been and continues to be focused upon the perceived needs and desires of the individual and may or may not meet institutional priorities. Frequently the development efforts of individual practitioners are directed toward earning an advanced degree, meeting recertification requirements, etc.

The second type of traditional staff development is that directed by a local education agency and is most frequently focused upon local problems. Such staff development efforts have typically been of short duration, one to five days-or perhaps at most, a semester in length. In-service education of the foregoing type has also assisted local education units meet state and federal priorities and/or requirements.

New on the scene has been the intervention of the federal government. Starting with the National Defense Education Act and continuing until the present time, there has been a wave of enabling acts, programs, court decisions and mandates either providing funds for faculty and staff development or establishing requirements or conditions which foster such activities. Efforts by the federal government have focused upon national priorities and needs and have had a variable impact upon the practitioner and local education programs ranging from minor to intense.

In addition to the foregoing, any number of commercial enterprises have entered the in-service education arena. Even a casual reading of the mail reveals multiple opportunities for one to attend seminars and conferences, purchase books, view films, etc., all focused upon the improvement of professional knowledge and behavior.

In one sense the magnitude of the current activity might cause one to conclude that the present situation in faculty and staff development is less than organized and more than a little confusing. At any one time a practitioner might be enrolled in a graduate course leading to an advanced degree, be participating in a series of committee meetings focused upon improving professional competency in order to solve a local problem, and attending a succession of conferences and workshops sponsored by state and federal governments or commercial enterprises.

In another sense, however, one might take the position that the profession is fortunate in that its practitioners have such a wealth of developmental opportunities, that while the teaching profession is beset with a multitude of problems, it is not totally without the resources with which to meet those problems. Rather than decry the fact that faculty and staff development appears disorganized and occasionally at cross purposes, I would contend that the variety and richness of individual opportunity and choice should be applauded, supported, and defended where and when necessary. The individual practitioners themselves make sense of and organize into a coherent whole their opportunities and experiences which truly lead to higher levels of professional competence.

The major task that faces the profession as it attempts to provide effective faculty and staff development is to assure that whatever is undertaken meets first, the needs of students; second, the needs of practitioners; and third, is of professional quality. Providing quality educational opportunities for our students is our number one priority-faculty and staff development is legitimate to the extent to which it achieves that goal.

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educational considerations

EDPRESS

Vol. VIII, Number 2, Winter 1981

Focus on staff development

Staff development as a concept in American education projects a highly visible and volatile topic for the future. Questions of how to design, implement and evaluate staff development programs will continue to be highly debatable in the 1980s. All contributors in this special edition of **Educational Considerations** have had a strong interest in staff development over the past few years. In addition, these writers have been locally and nationally recognized for their conscientious efforts in seeking solutions to specific problems in staff development. They represent a broad array of professionals: classroom teachers, public school administrators, faculty in higher education, administrators in higher education and professional consultants. Collectively, their viewpoints represent the current state of affairs in staff development.

The articles have been organized around ten major themes in staff development: (1) the design of staff development programs, (2) existing practices in staff development, (3) prerequisites for staff development practices, (4) the role of the administrator in staff development, (5) the classroom teacher in staff development, (6) educational organizations and staff development, (7) the consultant in staff development, (8) organizational development and staff development, (9) specific strategies for planning staff development programs and (10) faculty development programs in higher education.

The Design of Staff Development Programs

Loucks and Zigarmi's article draws heavily on their personal research and first-hand experience with staff development. The authors contend that successful staff development activities occur when the program is designed according to the developmental needs of participants.

Seagren and Solomon argue that in-service education programs continue to be developed without regard to the body of existing research. This research consists of a definite set of principles that should be used when creating staff development programs.

Existing Practices in Staff Development

Van Horn and Healy outline a series of five alternative approaches which have been developed for staff development practices. Each of the alternatives addresses the inadequacies of previous piecemeal approaches to staff development.

Bailey, in "Teacher Self-Assessment: A Self-Directed Staff Development Program," describes a series of complimentary strategies which equip teachers to direct their own staff development activities. The author concludes that the classroom teacher is capable of directing a personalized self-improvement program provided each professional has adequate training.

"The Anchorage Program," described by Harder, identifies a proven program in staff development. The nucleus of the program involves the evaluation of professional employees. Activities and procedures for both teachers and administrators are discussed. While the program has been successful, the author admonishes the reader that each school district will need to develop a professional development program based on its needs.

Prerequisites for Staff Development

Edington presents a different viewpoint in answering the questions found in staff development. In sum, the author argues that staff development can never be adequately addressed until educational leaders deal with the issue of educational change.

The Role and Practices of Administrators in Staff Development

As a practicing administrator, Stansberry believes that administrators have a distinct and definite responsibility for guiding instructional improvement activities in the school district. The author outlines specific phases for successful staff development and program development practices.

The Classroom Teacher in Staff Development

Langford's article is a practitioner's reaction to staff development. In the narrative, the author combines past experiences with projected solutions for the future. A critical, yet insightful series of suggestions are offered with renewed hope and enthusiasm for staff development practices.

Harris's article speaks to the role of the vocational educator. A college degree, workshops, or college courses are no longer sufficient for effective classroom teachers. The author enumerates a number of principles which should allow the teacher to become better prepared for classroom instruction.

Educational Organizations and Staff Development

"Staff Development and the North Central Association" by Brainard provides an enlightening view of how the North Central Association can become the core of an effective staff development program. The author's conclusion is that accrediting associations can have a positive impact on staff development in school districts.

The Consultant in Staff Development

The use of consultants can be a crucial step in staff development activities. According to Littrell, there are exact procedures to be followed when employing a consultant. The author believes wise and prudent use of consultants should lead to more effective staff development programs.

Organizational Development and Staff Development

Valentine addresses the issue of professional development for the building level principal. Since the principal plays a key role as an educational leader, specific activities must be undertaken to assist his/her professional growth. Valentine believes that the personal development of administrators effects the growth of the entire school district.

Van Meter explores the use of organizational development techniques as a method for staff development. The

author sees a natural interfacing of curriculum and organizational development.

Specific Strategies for Planning Staff Development Activities

Scott and Carlin's article, "Surfacing Teacher Perceptions of Educational Needs," focuses on change. The theme of the article is that schools must learn to deal more effectively with the dynamics of educational change. The data-based article provides a look at the techniques of "needs assessment" and how it can be used in school districts as a tool in staff development.

Staff Development in Higher Education

Wright's article, "Faculty Development for Higher Education," describes faculty development programs at the collegiate level. Wright issues a warning that faculty development programs have the potential to become an integral portion of the university structure or become extinct. The outcome depends on the degree of insight, knowledge and commitment that higher education brings to the faculty development programs.

The editor is grateful to all of the authors for their enthusiasm and dedication. Some readers will contend that the authors have raised more questions than provided answers. However, only time and experience will allow us to determine which solutions are creative and long lasting answers to the complex problems found in staff development.

Gerald D. Bailey, Guest editor

Despite previous research, in-service programs often need improvement

Effective staff development

By Susan F. Loucks and Patricia Zigarmi

Writers in the field of educational change have repeatedly pointed out that change in schools is a process, not an event. Yet, policy-makers, decision-makers, administrators and even staff developers frequently behave in ways that betray this basic assumption. Those of us involved in the study and the delivery of staff development still discover, in amazement, a myriad of one-day, "hit and run" workshops, lectures delivered by visiting experts to whole school systems, classroom walls torn down in July with the expectation of "open classrooms" in September and legislative mandates decreeing massive changes by a certain date.

Staff developers have some control over all of these situations—more control over the types of staff development activities their districts provide, less, perhaps, over external mandates. In either case, the careful design and conduct of staff development activities is essential if any improvement is to take place in our schools. Such activities must reflect what we know about the change process.

Educational change has long been the topic of discussion and debate among researchers, theorists, and practitioners. It is only in the past five or 10 years, however, that attention has been given to the area of implementation and studies have focused on the actual use of innovations by individuals. Two major areas of study are noted: attempts to understand (1) how people change in both their feelings about and their use of new programs, and (2) what processes and characteristics of individuals and settings facilitate or inhibit the change process. Contributions have been made through work by the Texas R&D Center for Teacher Education, the Rand Corporation, the UCLA/Kettering Foundation Studies, and the Oregon Center for Educational Policy and Management (see reference list).

This article draws on these studies, as well as on our own research and extensive experience in the delivery of staff development, to delineate elements of staff development that are related to successful innovation implementation. We begin by illustrating our belief that "change is a process" by describing four phases of the change process. Within each phase, we then discuss characteristics of effective staff development programs. We end by presenting two short examples of how these elements have been and can be combined in practice.

Our Perspective of the Change Process

We believe that staff development is a "people" activity. Granted, it occurs within an organizational context and must deal with organizational constraints. However, if institutions are to improve, the individuals within them must change. For many years we have been involved in research on the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), a model for change which focuses on the individual (Hall, Wallace & Dossett, 1973). It assumes that individuals grow in both their feelings toward and their use of new programs and that, in order to facilitate that growth, one must tailor assistance to specific developmental needs.

When involved with an innovation, individuals generally progress through three global stages in their concerns about the new approach. **Self** concerns manifest during introductory phases (How will this affect **me**?). Initial use is characterized by concerns about **management** of the program (Will I ever get it all organized?). Only when these prior concerns are resolved do concerns about **impact** on learners dominate (Are they learning what they need?). Research on the CBAM has identified seven Stages of Concern About the Innovation that reflect this general trend (see Figure 1). These stages have been initially verified, measurement procedures have been developed, and they have been used extensively in research and practice (Hall & Loucks, 1979).

Figure 1
Stages of Concern:
Typical Expressions of Concern about the Innovation

Stages of Concern		Expressions of Concern
6	Refocusing	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
5	Collaboration	I am concerned about relating what I am doing with what other instructors are doing.
4	Consequence	How is my use affecting kids?
3	Management	I seem to be spending all my time in getting material ready.
2	Personal	How will using it affect me?
1	Informational	I would like to know more about it.
0	Awareness	I am not concerned about it (the innovation).

CBAM Project
Research and Development Center for Teacher Education
The University of Texas at Austin

People also change in their use of new programs. Generally, as individuals become more familiar with an innovation, they become more skilled and coordinated in its use, and more sensitive to its effect on students. Levels of Use of the Innovation (see Figure 2) is a second dimension of the CBAM which describes changes in individuals in relation to their actual use of an innovation (Hall, Loucks, Rutherford & Newlove, 1975).

Figure 2
Levels of Use of the Innovation:
Typical Behaviors

	Level of Use	Behavioral Indices of Level
VI	Renewal	The user is seeking more effective alternatives to the established use of the innovation.
V	Integration	The user is making deliberate efforts to coordinate with others in using the innovation.
IVB	Refinement	The user is making changes to increase outcomes.
IVA	Routine	The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use.
III	Mechanical use	The user is using the innovation in a poorly coordinated manner and is making user-oriented changes.
II	Preparation	The user is preparing to use the innovation.
I	Orientation	The user is seeking out information about the innovation.
0	Nonuse	No action is being taken with respect to the innovation.

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Using these two concepts (Figure 1 and 2), it is possible to view the change process in four general phases. Each phase is characterized by the concerns individuals experience and how the program is used. These phases are: (1) Orientation and Preparation, (2) Implementation, (3) Maintenance, and (4) Refinement. Within each phase, some staff development activities are more effective than others. In fact, certain kinds may even be required if the innovation is to be successfully utilized.

Orientation and Preparation Phase

At this phase, individuals have concerns that are personal and informational in nature. They want to know about the new program and how it will affect them, indicating Orientation and Preparation Levels of Use. Some staff development activities that are likely to be effective in helping people use the innovation during this phase are:

1. Teacher Involvement in Planning

Teachers should be involved in the change process well before they are trained to use the program. There appears to be two reasons why teacher involvement is important. First, staff development activities and support structures are more likely to meet the needs of teachers who have helped structure them around their concerns. Teachers are often in the best position to anticipate problems they may encounter in implementing a new program. They can lend a note of reality to the planning and help ensure that the activities planned are relevant. Secondly, a teacher who has helped plan is likely to have a greater sense of "ego" involvement and will work to make the effort successful.

Although it is rarely possible for every teacher to be involved in planning a change effort, it is possible for some to be highly involved and for others to have input at particular points. Teachers can also be involved in different ways—some in designing time lines and the overall plan, others in materials construction or in coordinating logistical arrangements. Others can serve as presenters or resource teachers.

There are some constraints to extensive teacher involvement in planning. It requires some provision for released time. Staff development coordinators should also recognize that cooperative planning always takes longer and involves more hassles. Finally, teachers do not always have the expertise or authority to accomplish tasks related to their involvement in planning and may need training simply to be participants in this stage of the change process.

2. Clearly Stated Expectations

The objectives of the change effort should be clearly communicated to teachers so they will understand what is expected of them. This element of effective staff development program planning is targeted at informational and personal concerns. It means two things. First, the objectives of the new program, requirements for implementation (e.g., materials, time, etc.), the components of the innovation, and how it is to be used in the classroom must be clear. In addition, teachers must know what is expected of them in terms of attendance at staff development activities, classroom and role changes, a time line for use in the classroom, and any attendant evaluation activities. They also need to know what they can expect in the way of assistance, when and whom to call for help.

3. A Safe Learning Environment

The social psychological environment in which a staff development activity takes place has an important bearing on its success. As a general rule, staff development activities that generate or take place in a low-threat, comfortable setting in which there is a degree of psychological "safety" for the teacher are most conducive to change. A teacher's openness to learning appears to be enhanced when the teacher is among peers who share similar concerns, problems, and solutions. During learning experiences, teachers should be able to "admit" to areas of need without fear of being evaluated.

4. Opportunities for Active Involvement and Practice During Training

In anticipation of the Management concerns that are typically part of the Implementation Phase, the last activity that occurs in this current phase is the actual training in use of the program. The most successful staff development activities aimed at the question, "how do I do it," are those which provide the teacher an opportunity to become actively involved. These include "hands-on" experiences with materials, participation in exercises that will later be used with students, demonstrations of new

teaching techniques, and practice in using the techniques with the opportunity for constructive feedback. These "dry runs" help teachers anticipate problems they will encounter in using the new program with students.

The Implementation Phase

During the Implementation Phase, teachers are mastering the behaviors necessary to use the innovation smoothly, to integrate it into daily practice. Their first use is somewhat uncoordinated, and they are not able to plan far ahead, indicative of a Mechanical Level of Use. Concerns are often management-related, as each component is used for the first time with students. It is not unlike the first few months in a teaching career.

Staff developers are just beginning to acknowledge the importance of their role in this phase. Clearly, teachers need help when they confront problems in first using the new program with students. If such help is not received, a frequent consequence is that the innovation is changed beyond recognition, in order for the teacher to be able to survive. Some effective staff development practices during this phase are:

1. Opportunity for Follow-Up

Teachers should have the opportunity to ask questions and clarify how the innovation is to be used after initial training is completed. Usually the material and experiences provided in training require time for practice, reflection or "digestion." Often these activities result in more questions, problems, and considerations. Providing a formal opportunity, rather than a "call if you need something," is a useful strategy for solving these emerging problems.

The problems teachers encounter in this phase are mostly idiosyncratic. Thus, large group sessions are rarely required. One staff development strategy called "comfort and caring" involves a staff developer being available in a school during certain times for any input teachers desire: an opportunity to ask questions, a demonstration lesson, an explanation of a puzzling set of materials that do not work the way they are supposed to, a conference about a difficult student, or just emotional support. This regular follow-up provides for individual needs.

2. Continuous Assessment of Needs

Change is a developmental process—new needs arise over time. Teachers should be given an opportunity to express concerns and needs as they arise. Effective staff development depends on knowledge of participants' needs—needs for comfort, security and belongingness, as well as needs for new information, attitudes, and skills. Informal techniques, such as talking to principals or interacting with teachers during follow-up activities, can be used to assess needs continuously.

3. Reinforcement of Effort

Teachers' efforts to use the innovation need to be recognized and rewarded. Although follow-up during this phase might be problem-oriented or skill-building, it also needs to afford moral support and understanding. When teachers know expectations are not unrealistic for the first year, their personal concerns are lowered. Staff developers and building administrators need to communicate to teachers their understanding that first year programs are often difficult and that problems and roughness are simply part of the change process. Teachers need positive feedback on their efforts to use the innovation, helping them build a sense of mastery or accomplishment, which is essential if commitment to continued use is to remain high.

This is also a key time for administrators to recognize that in order to encourage use of the innovation, changes may be needed in such areas as teaching schedules, extra-curricular assignments, the reward system and how support personnel are used. By developing supportive and compatible organizational procedures, teachers' efforts to use the new program are reinforced.

The Maintenance Phase

Typically, staff developers concentrate on the Orientation and Preparation phase, and to some extent on the Implementation Phase of the change process. Perhaps this is because, with limited resources, activities at that time have the greatest cost benefit. However, many innovative efforts are lost once teachers have settled back into their classrooms and district efforts are focused elsewhere. At the Maintenance Phase, when use is routine and no particular concerns are expressed, there are some staff development activities that could encourage continued use of the innovation.

1. Ongoing Administrative Support

Administrators need to express understanding and support for the change process if implementation is to be sustained. All studies clearly point to the need for strong administrative support from both the district and building level. Principals need to make it clear that the new program is a priority, and that teachers' needs will be attended to when expressed. Setting this tone early in the change effort is critical. In addition, the principal must be sure expectations are not too high, that teachers know he or she understands that change takes time. Such empathy is an important characteristic of facilitating principals.

But once use is established, it is easy for administrators to forget the innovation. Training is over, the "kinks" are out, teachers are not complaining. But, if use is to continue, administrators must continue to communicate that the program is important, must make certain that materials and supplies are available, and must arrange for thorough and specific training for new teachers. Being tuned into teachers' needs that do arise during this phase of the change effort is important, and arranging for people or activities to meet those needs is critical.

2. Ongoing Opportunities for Problem-Solving

Perhaps the most effective staff development activity during the Maintenance Phase is to provide teachers released time for sharing what they are doing, what has and has not worked. Because at this point teachers are often experienced and savvy, they have a knowledge base for making suggestions and solving problems which otherwise might interfere with continued use of the innovation.

The Refinement Phase

Research indicates that teachers often reach a maintenance phase, where use is routine and no particular concerns are expressed, never moving to program refinement. A variety of reasons can be advanced for this observation, including competing pressures for their time and energy. If refinement of the innovation is valued, then it is often necessary to arouse impact-oriented concerns, which may be done through staff development or related activities. In cases where more impact-oriented Stages of Concern are

already being expressed by teachers, similar staff development experiences are appropriate.

1. Opportunities for Self Observation

Teachers should be taught how to evaluate their own use of the innovation. Since teachers are no longer concerned about the innovation itself, or its management, their energies can turn to its effect on the students. Both guided classroom observations and other thoughtful assessment procedures can give teachers data to refine what they are doing. Providing an opportunity for discussion of findings and next steps allows teachers to pool their knowledge and skills.

2. Individualization

Staff development activities should be targeted at individual needs, which will be different in different classrooms with different student populations and problems. During the Refinement Phase in-service activities which are varied and directed at individual needs are most effective.

3. Opportunity for Choice

Teachers should be able to choose how and when to be involved in staff development activities that increase use of the innovation. During the Refinement Phase, teachers are the best judges of what they need. Assessing needs and providing individualized options is the job of the staff developer. Choosing what best meets classroom needs from those options is the job of the teacher.

4. Opportunities for Leadership

During this phase, a few teachers at high Levels of Use will emerge who have exciting and creative ways of solving what may be common problems. When these people are identified and supported (e.g., released time or extra pay) to provide leadership for others, an effective staff development vehicle is initiated.

5. Administrative Support

Again, administrative support is critical. At the Refinement Phase, since the program is being used routinely, it is "above and beyond the call of duty" for teachers to be expected to do more. One thing the administrator might do is to eliminate, when possible, the competing pressures for teacher time and energy. If teachers are to refine a program, they should not be asked to begin a new one simultaneously. The administrator's active encouragement, support and assistance are as important here as they were in previous stages.

Examples of Effective Staff Development Design

Because of limited resources, it is rarely possible to combine all these elements in a staff development design for innovation implementation. It is possible, however, to combine many of the elements in designs which are significantly more effective than one-shot "hit and run" workshops. We describe two such designs in which we have been personally involved as either facilitator or researcher.

Implementing a District-Wide Curriculum

A large school district decided to revise its elementary science curriculum and implement the revision in 80 elementary schools. Teachers were active in the revision, which was piloted and field-tested in a variety of schools.

The implementation design called for phasing in-services, so that attention was focused on teachers within only one-third of the schools at a time. The sequence of staff development activities was:

1. Administrator orientation. Principals were provided schedules, supplies, order forms, and information about how to support teachers with different needs at different phases of the change process.

2. Teacher overviews. Two or three months before the in-service workshops began, teachers were given brief overviews of the new program, including information about the curriculum and in-service schedules, and they were provided with the new teacher's guide.

3. Teacher in-service. Teachers attended three released-time training sessions, scheduled approximately three months apart. These included active involvement in activities they would later carry out with students, providing these teachers with experience using materials and equipment. Effective classroom management techniques were also demonstrated.

These sessions were taught by other teachers who had used the curriculum in their classrooms and had planned and been trained in conducting in-service activities. During a part of the in-service days, teachers were given choices for activities in which they could participate. Choices ranged from learning better management strategies (grouping, scheduling, materials, etc.), to techniques for understanding and involving students more.

Prior to the second and third sessions, teachers were encouraged to share "war stories" and solutions to persistent problems.

4. Comfort and caring. Between in-service sessions, science department staff visited classrooms and schools where they reorganized science closets, did classroom demonstrations, worked on scheduling and classroom arrangement, and helped individual teachers with specific problems.

5. Refinement input. After two years, teachers were given the opportunity to attend in-service sessions involving techniques for grouping students and fostering cooperative learning. This provided one avenue for refinement of curriculum use.

More information about this particular example may be found in Loucks and Pratt (1979) and Pratt, Melle, Metzdorf, and Loucks (1980).

Implementing the Instructional Coordinating Teacher Program

Our second example relates to the implementation of a new approach to staff development. Here, participants in the implementation are teachers being trained in a new role. In this district, the superintendent responded to community pressure to decentralize staff development by placing a teacher freed from actual teaching in each building as an "instructional coordinating teacher." This person was not to be involved in teacher evaluation, but would help school staffs plan staff development programs, implement curricula, and in general, improve the quality of classroom instruction. The ICT's would function as teacher advisers offering support, resource materials, teaching assistance and consultation. Because teachers who might be unfamiliar with district-wide resources were going to be recruited for these positions and because these teachers would have to establish good working relationships with principals, the implementation plan called for a four-phased training design. The first phase

was composed of a series of workshops to discuss the role itself; the second phase was an orientation to district resources; the third phase was targeted on the coordinating teachers' immediate concerns with beginning in the role; and, the fourth phase focused on ongoing support.

1. Workshops on Defining the Instructional Coordinating Teacher's Role. When the positions were announced, the superintendent outlined only broad parameters for the job. A series of workshops held combining persons in various roles (e.g., ICT's and building administrators), resulted in an evolving job description for the ICT's. Time was set aside at each workshop for meetings of people by roles, for individual conferences between ICT's and principals, for questions and answers, and for role-playing dilemmas the ICT's would inevitably encounter on-the-job.

2. Orientation Sessions. To help ICT's become more familiar with district resources, at a second set of meetings all central office personnel presented overviews on the services available to the ICT's, and described how to use them.

3. Intensive Preparatory Training. The third phase of staff development was planned on the basis of an extended needs assessment and interviews with ICT's. During a one-week intensive workshop, ICT's discussed strategies for working with teachers and principals, prepared resource materials, role-played consulting situations between an ICT and a teacher, discussed strategies for gaining entry and establishing trust, and continued to familiarize themselves with various curriculum areas. Some of the sessions were offered by ICT's so that participants would begin to see each other as valuable resources.

4. Initial Task Assignments. In order to give each ICT a chance to "jump right in" as a staff developer, they were given the task of planning their building's pre-school workshop in conjunction with the principal, and in some cases with a group of teachers. The teacher center and central office staff developers provided support and consultation.

5. Weekly Meetings. Throughout the first year, ICT's met weekly in support groups, sometimes by grade level, sometimes by area, to talk about problems and to share resources. The teacher center in the district maintained supplies and resource materials and, more importantly, offered support and consultation. Principals also met with staff developers during this time to talk about needs they perceived and to share suggestions they had for improving the program.

6. Refinement. Refinement activities are beginning as the program enters its second year. Teachers and administrators both are involved in the planning.

Conclusion

School improvement can be successful if staff development and support activities are designed according to the developmental needs of the participants. Early awareness activities should aim at information and personal concerns. Experiential skill development training should occur next, followed by specific and timely problem-solving. Finally, self-analytical, student-oriented, classroom application activities are merited. Add to this phasing the continuous input of participants, monitoring of progress and needs, and administrator support—and the trend of failure in innovative efforts has a significant chance of being reversed.

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Improvement can be successful if participants' needs are met

Existing practices, alternatives

By Alan T. Seagren and Keith Solomon

Staff development has been defined in many ways. One of the most widely quoted definitions is that of Edelfelt and Johnson.

"In-service education of teachers (or staff development, continuing education, professional development), is defined as any professional development activity that a teacher undertakes singly; or with other teachers after receiving his or her initial teaching certificate, and after beginning professional practice."[1]

Despite the research evidence that has accumulated over the past decade on the characteristics of effective in-service, programs continue to be designed and developed, often with the best intentions by innovative teachers, department chairpersons, curriculum developers, school administrators and college and university professors, which disregard this body of knowledge. Unfortunately the investment of time, money and energy under these circumstances bring less than anticipated returns in increased skills, greater commitment and improved learning practices in the classroom.

Successful staff development programs must include three essential dimensions:

1. Effective leadership
2. A statement of purpose

3. Appropriate design and delivery system

Other articles in this journal emphasize the contribution of various individuals and organizations to staff development programs. The role of leadership is to orchestrate these contributions into a meaningful program of staff development.

Stogdill confirmed the importance of good leadership:

"The survival of a group is dependent upon a type of leadership able to keep members and subgroups working together toward a common purpose, maintain productivity at a level sufficient to sustain the group or to justify its existence, and satisfy member expectations regarding leader and group."[2]

Thus, the leader must possess the ability to see problems at any level within the system and more important to have the skills to assemble resources and plan and coordinate strategies to attempt solutions of these problems. The ability to evaluate the effectiveness of the problem solving methods used is also essential. In-service requires individualized methods and processes to establish needs, determine existing levels of skills, and sensitization of individuals who may not recognize deficiencies in their own skill bank. It requires of the program developer the capacity to weld the needs of individuals and groups into a problem solving mode designed to strengthen the organizations' capacity to satisfy both personal and institutional goals.

Purposes

Most staff development programs are based on the rationale that in order for schools to respond to the changing demands of society teachers must be continually involved in a process of renewal. Hart captures this view when he states:

"The modern in-service design is based on the principle that schools cannot change unless educators change. In-service Education is the key to whether or not schools can meet the demands upon education. A revitalization of our schools requires a commitment to self-renewal through continuing individual growth and participation in those activities that prepare today's teachers to cope with the changing needs of today's society."[3]

Numerous authorities have outlined the purposes of in-service education. Johnston (1973) and Howey and Corrigan (1978) have espoused complimentary views on the purposes of in-service education that support the above philosophical view. In-service education should develop according to Johnson.[4]

(i) the extension consolidation and reaffirmation and regular acquisition of new knowledge.

(ii) the acquaintance with curricular and/or psychological developments.

(iii) the extension of pre-service preparation.

(iv) the acquaintance with new methods and materials.

(v) the acquaintance with and participation in educational research.

(vi) the encouragement of international understanding and exchange.

Howey and Corrigan have indicated the applied purposes to which in-service can contribute.[5]

    (vii) improving adult cognitive, intra and interpersonal development relating to teaching effectiveness

    (viii) altering environmental (school) conditions as they relate to teaching effectiveness

    (ix) improving teacher effectiveness directly, especially focusing upon teaching instructional behavior in situation

Once the purposes have been established the instructional design and delivery system has to be conceptualized and implemented.

Design/Delivery System

Decisions have to be made concerning the design of the in-service program and in particular the strategies and methods to be employed. Common problems associated with this dimension of in-service planning and practice include strategies that fail to recognize the need for teacher commitment and involvement, strategies which are inflexible, fail to provide for teachers practice and appropriate feedback on the acquisition of new skills or knowledge and most important, lack a clear design or conceptual model. Too many programs are typified by packaged, one-shot, first remedies which fail to recognize the complexity of the teaching learning process.

A conceptual model has been developed which minimizes the effects of problems identified above. Labeled the "Theory to Practice Change Model," it utilizes five basic sequential stages in the development of an institutional in-service program.[6]

Theory to Practice Change Model: Philosophical Rationale

The model conceptualizes the belief that staff development is a "whole system" activity which involves personnel at all administrative levels in changes in behavior consequent to influencing desirable educational outcomes.

Stage 1—Sensitization

In this stage the teacher becomes aware of specific behaviors or skills utilized in the teaching learning process, related to the particular focus of the staff development thrust. Emphasis is given to alternative strategies that can be employed by the teacher in a given teaching-learning situation and the kinds of behaviors and skills which might be appropriate within these strategies. The intent here is to motivate teachers and to stimulate and expand their thinking. The role of outside educational specialists in providing information or needs assessment techniques, new methods, research data on specific issues under consideration and support for school staff as they attempt to define the problem and develop appropriate strategies to implement is a good example of the blending of theory and practice, implicit in the model.

Stage 2—Instruction

Emphasis in this stage is placed on particular skills or behaviors that have been identified as being appropriate in the teaching-learning situation and are the specific focus of the program. Although the most structured step in the overall design, teachers need to be exposed to videotaped or actual demonstrations of the desired skills or behaviors. In this way in-service course leaders can receive direct feedback from participants as to the suitability or feasibility of implementing the new strategies. Careful consideration needs to be given to the participant's readiness to undertake the program, and continual feedback must be given to the participant on the difficulties perceived as well as progress and performance in acquiring the new skills or knowledge.

Stage 3—Practice

Teachers need an opportunity to practice the new skills and behaviors they are learning in the controlled environment. Behavior modification can always engender frustration and failure; however, micro teaching has been found to be of use, particularly where the sessions involve small groups of students with whom the teacher is familiar.

THEORY ——▶ PRACTICE
Change Model

Entry Behavior — Motivation and Awareness — Understanding and Comprehension — Involvement and Participation — Application and Utilization — Feedback and Assessment

Entry Behavior   (1) Sensitization   (2) Instruction   (3) Practice   (4) Implementation   (5) Assessment

Instructional Design
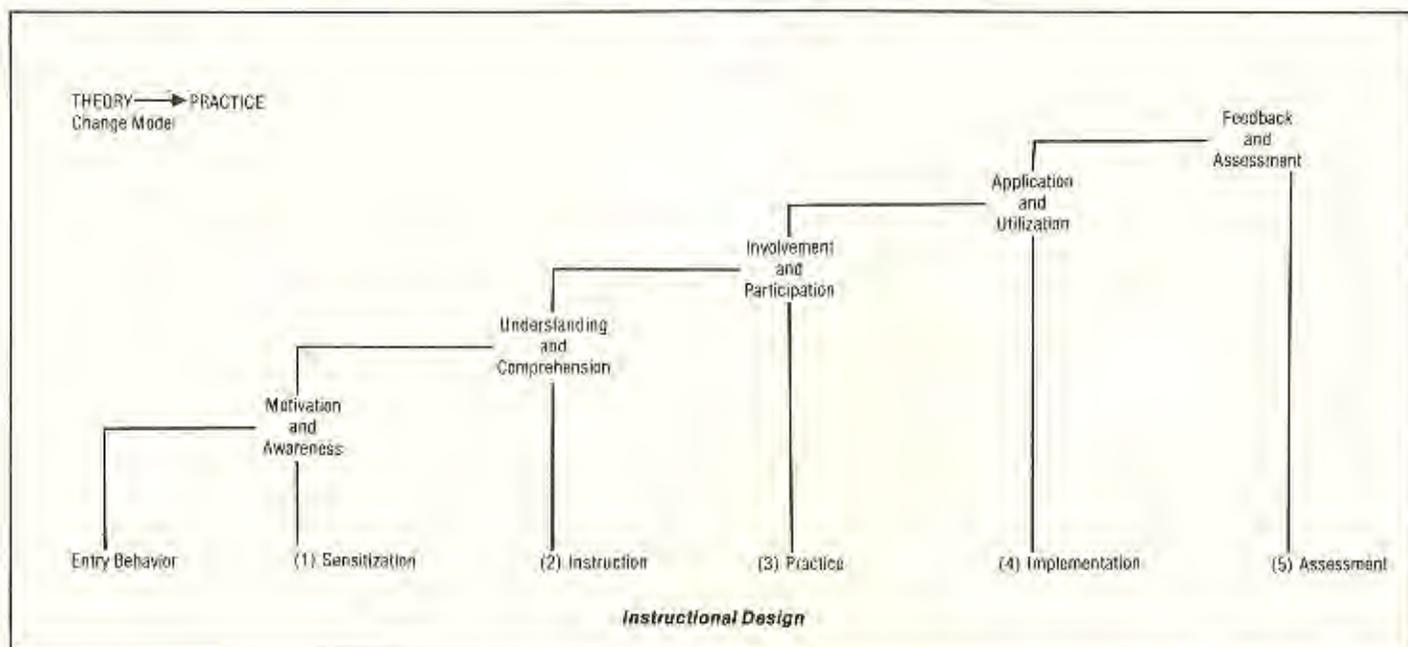
Debriefing sessions play an important part in this step by emphasizing successful teaching performance and clarifying concerns through questioning, and re-practice of skills with which difficulty has been experienced. The practice stage while time-consuming, is essential in the classroom laboratory where methods are tried and evaluated. The use of graduate students and staff from nearby educational institutions is an excellent method of integrating knowledge and experience of both school personnel and professional educators.

Stage 4—Implementation

The focus at this stage is on putting into operation the skills or behavior in the normal classroom setting. Teachers should be able to incorporate the new skills into their existing range of classroom teaching strategies, thus expanding their repertoire of skills and behaviors. The teacher is also encouraged to assess the effect on student learning of different classroom strategies. This stage is dependent on the processes which have occurred in three earlier stages. The identification of needs-the gap between what is desired and what actually exists, determining the exact needs that are to become the focus of the in-service activity and breaking these down into component parts that can be addressed in a logical sequential systematic way is vital to a successful outcome. A strategy for problem solving must be adopted that proceeds from the simple to complex, through stages of subsequent skill and knowledge acquisition, practice, reinforcement and feedback on performance, and thus paves the way for a successful transition into the application and utilization phases of Stage 4.

Stage 5—Assessment

Much has been written on assessment and evaluation of in-service enterprises. It is sufficient to say that the model incorporates several levels and types of evaluation strategies. Obviously one type of assessment must be related to the suitability of the skill and behavior the teacher selects in a classroom setting to achieve a particular intended goal. The second type of assessment relates to the effectiveness of the teacher in controlling behavior or utilizing the skills.

The collection of data for assessment to take place should occur throughout the first four stages of the program and continue for a time after the major phases of the in-service program have concluded. Data collection and assessment should cease when the final decisions on continuance of the system or modification have been completed.

A variety of assessment techniques including teacher and student classroom performance data retrieval systems, tests, questionnaires, or performance as well as attitudes and other data gathering methods. Emphasis in particular should be placed in teachers developing skills in the process of self-assessment as part of the evaluation process.

Summary

School leadership is a vital component in determining the in-service needs and the strategies that will be employed to meet these needs. Harris and Bessent (1969) clearly identified the responsibilities and the difficulties involved.

"Changing people in significant ways is a complex leadership task involving many difficulties for professional leaders such as principals, supervisors and superintendents."[7]

There is an immediate need to act decisively to halt continuation of ill-conceived, poorly planned and ineffective in-service programs. While "one-shot" programs are useful in that they identify needs and give short-term assistance for the teacher, there is a need to marshal, coordinate and integrate the experience, expertise and assistance available in schools, universities and state or federal agencies. The theory to practice model provides a design for a continuing problem-oriented approach to our staff development programs rather than a hastily applied bandage. Furey (1968) captured the essence of this approach when he stated:

"Whether staff development is focused on improving instructional or managerial skills or providing opportunities for personal growth it must be viewed as an essential part of the education process rather than a remedial frill for the ineffective or the ill-prepared. Providing attractive, significant opportunities for educators to continue their professional growth is a crucial issue in education today."[8]

Footnotes

1. Roy A. Edelfelt and Margo Johnson (Eds) **Rethinking In-service Education.** (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975), p. 5.

2. Ralph M. Stogdill, **Handbook for Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research** (New York: The Free Press, 1974), p. 419.

3. Helen A. Hart, "Self-Renewal: A Model," **Educational Leadership,** 31 (March, 1974), 501.

4. David Johnston, "Has Voluntary In-service Education Become an Outdated Luxury?" **Journal of Teacher Education,** 24 (April, 1973), 569.

5. Kenneth R. Howey and Dean C. Corrigan, The School Based Teacher Educator, unpublished manuscript, (mimeograph), Minneapolis, 1979, p. 17.

6. Alan T. Seagren and associates, **Instructional Staff Development: Orientation to Inquiry,** (Kansas City, Missouri: Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, 1972), pp. 11-12.

7. Ben Harris and Warland Bessent, **In-service Education: A Guide to Better Practice** (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1969), p. 30.

8. Ambrose J. Furey, Jr., "Participation and Personal Growth: Keys to Staff Development," **The In-service Education of Teachers: Trends, Processes and Procedures.** ec Louis Ruben (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1978), p. 195.

Teaching teachers is not equal to telling teachers

Alternatives for a better program

By Royal W. Van Horn and Thomas C. Healy

Introduction

Traditionally, in-service teacher education in most districts has been synonymous with telling teachers how to teach. This paper is **not** about this process which typically proceeds as follows. A school administrator with staff development responsibilities contacts a nearby university and requests that a workshop be conducted on a particular "in-service training day." The same few topics, e.g., discipline, teaching techniques, and time management tend to be requested over and over. The college administrator passes the request on to a faculty member who either accepts or rejects it. Often professors who accept such requests already have such a "dog and pony show" ready to go and in the box. On the in-service training day, the professor arrives at the school thirty minutes in advance, sets up, and teaches teachers. Under optimal conditions, the district sent the professor an understandable set of objectives to accomplish, the professor was entertaining and humorous, did something other than lecture, used several attractive audio-visual aids, had clearly printed handouts and may even have "modeled" a specific technique or two. Under normal conditions, few of the above happened and the professor gave a boring lecture.

No matter how much effort is expended to improve the above process and no matter how it is altered, it will still center around telling teachers with little involvement on their part. Admittedly, the workshop leader can use any number of different approaches such as inquiry, discussion groups, brainstorming, or protocol materials, but, the process is still largely consultant centered. The consultant sets the agenda, picks the techniques to be used, and usually lectures most of the time.

The remainder of this paper will describe staff development processes which are alternatives to, and not simply modifications of the above process. These processes are valuable because they add some much needed variety and involvement to the in-service development efforts of schools. Several of the processes have the added advantage of providing permanent on-going staff development opportunities as compared to the one-shot workshop which has little long range impact.

Alternative Process One—The Model Classroom

Real estate agents and residential home builders have found it advantageous to their sales efforts to put exemplary or model homes on display to the public. Often, a group of realtors will advertise together and create a "parade of homes" which offers the buying public the opportunity of going from place to place to inspect as many as 10 to 20 such model homes. Even people who are not actively considering purchasing a new home are drawn to inspect these models. It seems reasonable to assume that if school districts created "model classrooms" teachers might well be drawn to them. A "model classroom," like a model home, should be a well designed physical environment which integrates the latest technology and methods into creating an educationally sound and economically feasible model.

Considerable attention should be given to even the smallest detail of the model classroom because it should represent the very best the profession can offer. The physical environment might well be designed by a team composed of an interior decorator, an environmental psychologist, a teacher, a principal, a parent and a student. This team should work within a restricted budget so their efforts can have some degree of "transferability" to other classrooms in the region. The curricular makeup of the classroom should be equally well designed by another team of people. Again, certain constraints should be imposed on this effort to maintain, among other things, a collection of instructional materials which would be available within the average school. The physical environment team and the curricular team would need to work closely with one another and with the methods team. The methods team's charge would be to aid the master teacher who used the room in selecting and using various "models of teaching" (Joyce and Weil, 1972). After initial design, implementation and pilot testing by all involved teams, the "model classroom" should function on a day-to-day basis with a typical group of students so visitors could observe the finished product in operation.

Districts might well design several model classrooms each with a different emphasis. It is even feasible to envision a "Model Classroom Tour" much like the model home tour of realtors. Competition could be organized across districts or states to compete for the title of "Classroom of the Year."

There are a myriad of advantages to this staff development process. First, creating the classroom would constitute a learning experience for all members of the various teams. Second, the "model classroom" would be a resource for educators in the region who could learn by visiting and observing within it. Third, the model

classroom would be a "lamppost" which might well influence the future of education within the district or region. The model classroom process would be even more beneficial if implemented in conjunction with alternative process number two, "teacher visitations."

Alternative Process Two—Teacher Visitations

Giving teachers two or three days of released time each year to visit other classrooms in other schools is a staff development process worthy of renewed attention by educators. Teacher visitation days can give the classroom instructor a much needed "magic feather."

Everyone remembers the fable of Dumbo, the baby circus elephant. A little mouse convinced Dumbo to use his large ears as wings by giving him a feather, a magic feather, that would enable him to fly. Dumbo trusted his friend and so could fly, even without the feather, as he soon discovered. At last he had self-confidence.

This fable tells something important about principals and teachers as well, and it suggests a critical question for educational researchers. (Bentzen, 1974, Bookjacket) How can teachers be given a "magic feather" which will convince them they can change, innovate, and improve their teaching methods on their own? Visiting another classroom where a peer is using an innovative technique with a typical group of students might just provide the "magic feather." College professors who act as idea merchants and attempt to get teachers to change by simply telling them what to do would seem less likely to provide the "magic feather."

The logistics of implementing teacher visitation days are handled differently in various districts. Some prefer to release teachers a few at a time, others prefer to have a student holiday so the whole staff can be released for visitation. Releasing a few teachers at a time so visitations can be arranged in the same school or the same system seems quite workable. Some schools prefer to trust teacher judgment as to which classroom a teacher should visit while others prefer to influence or screen the choices of their teachers. This staff development process is advantageous primarily because it allows teachers to watch their peers teach (something they seldom have the luxury of doing), because it allows them to visit the same grade level and/or subjects they teach, and because it can be a relaxing and refreshing experience simply to carpool to another school with fellow teachers. The discussion on the way home in the car is often vigorous and insightful.

A third staff development process involving travel is "teacher participation in professional organizations." This outreaching process can have the same renewing effects as teacher visitations.

Alternative Process Three—Teacher Participation in Professional Organizations

An informal survey of junior high school faculty undertaken several years ago by the authors indicated that less than 20 percent of the faculty belonged to a national professional organization. Organizations such as the International Reading Association (IRA), the National Science Teachers Association (NSTA), Music Educators National Conference (MENC), National Council of Social Studies (NCSS), and the like are actively involved in the study of current issues, suggest standards of excellence, regularly publish high quality journals, and hold con-

ventions wherein workshops and seminars are presented on diverse topics. It is reasonable to assume that teachers can grow professionally by becoming active participants in such organizations. The potential for staff development is great enough that districts should encourage, provide release time, and fund such teacher involvement.

It is possible to envision an organized process of involvement in a district where each grade level would have one teacher who was a member of NSTA, one a member of NCTM, and so on. Their attendance at state and national meetings would be funded by the district on a rotating basis where each year several teachers would be sent to attend national meetings. An alternative process to the rotation of attendance mentioned above might be to require teachers to present proposals stating their reasons for attendance and how it might benefit the students of the grade or school. Teacher participation in professional organizations is particularly valuable to districts about to review their curriculum or select new textbooks for adoption.

Teachers who attend national meetings might be requested to make an audio-cassette recording, or, if required, purchase the recorded tapes of each session they attend. These cassettes could then be organized into a "staff development resource bank." The next alternative process involves the creation of just such a "resource bank."

Alternative Process Four—Staff Development Resource Bank

Many school districts presently maintain a professional library, but such libraries are often no more than a few shelves of out-dated books gathering dust in the teachers' lounge. A "staff development resource bank" is a well catalogued and attractively displayed collection of the best cassette tapes available, books, current journals, specimen sets of curriculum materials and aids, films, video-tapes of demonstration lessons catalogued by topic, and other reference material.

An exemplary staff development resource bank would also contain several portable dial-up computer terminals which teachers could use at the school or take home overnight. These terminals would allow teachers access to any one of the several hundred computer-assisted instruction (CAI) programs the district would have available. Such programs are presently available from numerous sources including the Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium (Note 1) and **Conduit** (Note 2). **Conduit**, for example, markets a 21-part CAI program for teachers in classroom discipline. Our experiences with such programs for teachers has usually been positive—teachers enjoy and learn from them.

An integral part of any resource bank should consist of demonstration tapes featuring teachers in the local system. Some of the best experts in the world and the ones whom peers are most willing to model are fellow teachers in the system.

Any district which maintains a staff development resource bank as described above would profit by rewarding teachers who use the resources. Such rewards for professional growth might come in the form of "in-service or master plan points," additional release time for use of the resources, or pay for the time involved. It is even feasible to envision a staff development counselor whose primary role would be to prescribe individually certain resources to teachers based upon their identified needs. For example, first year teachers might profit more from

discipline related resources than materials on the development of higher level cognitive skills.

A major advantage of a staff development resource bank as described herein is its ability to meet the individual needs of teachers and it allows for self-initiated professional growth. The next alternative staff development process is another highly individualized process which could either be an on-going service of the resource bank or offered to teachers on a school-by-school basis.

Alternative Process Five—Video In-service Project

A video-in-service project (VIP) involves, as its name implies, video taping of teachers on a voluntary basis. Teachers who volunteer are usually video-taped several times over the course of the semester. The primary purpose of the initial video-taping session is to familiarize the teacher and students with the equipment and its potential for providing non-judgmental feedback. The teacher can view this initial tape privately or in conjunction with an outside consultant. The teacher is then assisted in setting personal goals for accomplishment which should become evident in future taping sessions. The consultant's role is one of counseling and advising as compared to prescribing. Consultants who do this kind of in-service training need well developed human relations skills and should be well-trained professionals who are not required to evaluate formally the teachers with whom they are working.

This staff development process helps teachers change themselves through personal goal setting and monitoring of their progress over time. It is a proven process that can significantly change the way a person teaches. Many educators believe it is only through such intensive efforts that in-service teacher education can make any difference whatsoever.

Conclusions

The processes outlined above provide several alternatives to the one-shot consultant centered or "teaching teachers by telling them" workshop. When used these processes add some much needed variety to the existing in-service training programs of districts. These processes emphasize **HOW** teachers are taught, not **WHAT** teachers are taught. They can provide on-going, effective, and individualized growth experiences for teachers. There is great potential in staff development if and only if personnel in a district believe teaching teachers is not equal to telling teachers.

Reference Notes

1. The Minnesota Education Computing Consortium, 2520 Broadway Drive, Louderdale, MN 55113, sells a computer tape which contains approximately 100 CAI programs written in the BASIC language. Many of these programs provide individualized "worksheets" for teachers to use as seatwork. The package also contains an excellent "Computerized Historical Simulation" titled "Oregon" which simulates a trip over the Oregon Trail by wagontrain. Programs are on such diverse topics as practice for kindergardeners in their ABC's and a program for high school students on balancing chemical equations.

2. **Conduit,** (The University of Iowa), P.O. Box 388, Iowa City, Iowa, 52240 (Phone 319-353-3170), is an organization supported by the National Science Foundation, whose purpose is to facilitate use of instructional computing at the collegiate level. Conduit publishes a journal on the topic called **PIPELINE** and markets well designed and tested Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) packages on a variety of subjects.

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Teachers engage in independent instructional improvement

Self-directed staff development

By Gerald D. Bailey

Leading experts in education contend that staff development is the counterpart of pre-service education for career teachers and supervisors. It is during this in-service period that staff development becomes the major vehicle for accomplishing change, renewal, quality education and professional competence.[1] Interest has steadily grown in the area of staff development. However, almost all educational experts have viewed staff development as a concept which is "imposed" on faculty or staff.

In the past, only a handful of educators have suggested that the individual teacher should, or could be responsible for directing personnel staff development activities. Marks et. al., in **Handbook of Educational Supervision** strongly suggested that teachers should consider self-direction, self-guidance and self-supervision as a method of professional development.[2] Even earlier, Flanders and Amidon had much the same vision for self-directed staff development with reference to the use of observation instruments. They foresaw the necessity of precise instructional improvement tools and strategies for educators once these teachers were operating independently in a school system where there would be few opportunities for external assistance.[3] Ironically, there are few staff development programs which emphasize self-directed staff development at the present time.

In part, the minimal activity observed in self-directed professional development can be traced to the pessimism expressed by researchers concerning the teacher's ability to become self-directed in instructional improvement activities. Studies by Fuller, Veldman and Richek;[4] Morse, Kysilka and Davis;[5] Tuckman, McCall and Hyman[6] and Young[7] have suggested that a third party (e.g., administrator or supervisor) needs to guide the teacher if significant change in behavior is to occur in professional development activities. The sizeable review of literature done by Popham and McNeil[8] and Peck and Tucker[9] in the late 1960s showed that teachers lacked the skill and knowledge to become self-directed in staff development. In the main, research has painted a pessimistic picture of self-directed self-improvement activities.

The reader must be cautioned that much of this research has focused on isolated strategies; almost none of the research projects studied individual feedback strategies in the context of a self-help program. Few, if any, of the studies have looked at teachers who understood the principles and philosophy of autonomous self-help. A much more positive conclusion was drawn about teacher self-assessment as a program of staff development by the author. In a five year follow-up study, approximately 200 teachers were studied who had previous training in self-assessment skills. The findings showed that teachers (1) continued to value self-directed self-help skills, (2) remained competent in self-help skills but (3) engaged in fewer self-directed staff development activities since training was terminated.[10]

What is Teacher Self-Assessment?

Teacher self-assessment is a systematic, comprehensive program where teachers engage in independent instructional improvement. In brief, it is a self-directed staff development program. The basic assumption in a self-directed staff development program is that the teacher can function in an autonomous fashion. However, the teacher's ability to function in a self-directed manner is contingent upon acquiring a number of self-help skills or strategies. As a consequence, self-directed classroom staff development does not and cannot occur without intensive training.

Teacher self-assessment as a method of self-directed staff development can be understood by viewing the process as a stair-step program. There are basically eight different steps in the program (see Figure 1).

Step One: Gaining a Philosophical Overview of Teacher Self-Assessment.

To engage actively in self-directed staff development activities, the teacher must possess a comprehensive understanding of the multifaceted nature of teacher self-assessment. This step can be accomplished by looking at a number of myths associated with self-assessement.

Myth A: Teacher self-assessment and teacher evaluation are synonomous activities. Teacher evaluation should be viewed as a summative judgment of a teacher's effectiveness. Evaluation can lead to retention, merit pay, salary increments, promotion or tenure. Teacher self-assessment does not necessarily need to be tied to evaluation. Teacher self-assessment or improvement of instruction should be directly concerned with the teacher assessing strengths and weaknesses and working toward the end of improving upon past instructional performances.

Myth B: Teacher self-assessment is best learned through personal experience or trial and error. The available research indicates that teachers do not learn how to engage in self-help when left to their own resources. Teachers, apparently, do not have the inherent skills of self-improvement; hence, they must be taught how to engage in systematic self-assessment practices.

Myth C: Quality teacher self-assessment materials are easy, simple, short and readily available. While there is a substantial supply of self-help materials available to the teacher, most are inappropriate to classroom teacher self-assessment. Most of these materials are in the form of checklists, or surveys which require the teacher to reflect about past instructional performance. Unfortunately, much of this material is superficial or does not relate to the specifics of instruction. In short, they do not allow the teacher to engage in in-depth instructional analysis.

Myth D: Personal reflection or memory recall is an effective strategy in teacher self-assessment. Personal reflection is one of the least effective methods of self-assessment because teachers have a misperception of their own teaching abilities.[1] Other objective measures must be utilized to measure accurately personal teaching qualities.

Myth E: Objectivity is impossible to achieve in teacher self-assessment. Subjectivity is a troublesome problem in self-help activities. However, audiotape and videotape recorders, observation instruments, as well as other tools, can be utilized by the teacher to minimize subjectivity. Total objectivity may not be obtainable; however, the teacher must seek ways to minimize subjectivity.

Myth F: Effective teaching can not be identified. While there is not universal agreement on the definition of effective teaching, considerable information exists which suggests that specific characteristics of effective instruction can be identified and modeled. This kind of information can be extremely valuable to the teacher in the search for personal teacher effectiveness.

All activities found in Step One are aimed at helping the teacher become more acutely aware of the nature of teacher self-assessment. Recognizing what teacher self-assessment is, as well as what it is not, is extremely important in teacher self-assessment.

Step Two: The Use of Media in Teacher Self-Assessment.

The second major step or building block in teacher self-assessment is learning how to use an audiotape or videotape recorder for self-analysis purposes. Without some form of recording device in self-help, the teacher must rely on personal memory during self-help exercises. Since misperception of actual teaching performance is not uncommon, the use of media becomes a critical skill. The use of media in analyzing instructional performance is important because it (1) minimizes the potential for teacher subjectivity when analyzing personal teaching and (2) provides a permanent record which can be preserved and subjected to analysis over a longer period of time.[2]

The teacher employing media for self-assessment practices needs to recognize the strengths and limitations of the audiotape and videotape recorder. Obviously, the advantages of the videotape recorder is that it captures both verbal and nonverbal cues while the audiotape recorder captures only the audio medium.

It is also vitally important that the teacher possess a working knowledge of the mechanical operation of media equipment. Self-operation for self-examination purposes is critical since the presence of a third party operating the equipment can foster unnatural teacher and student classroom behavior.

Other major considerations must be made in relation to the use of media equipment in self-assessment. Some strategies which assist in minimizing unnatural student reaction to the presence of media include:

    * explaining the purpose of equipment in relation to teacher self-assessment.

An organizational approach to understanding and using teacher self-assessment
Figure 1

Eight Steps in Teacher Self-Assessment

8 — Student Feedback
7 — Observation Instrument Utilization
6 — Planning and Using Means-Referenced Objectives
5 — Nonverbal Cue Identification
4 — Verbal Cue Identification
3 — Set and Closure Identification
2 — Media Utilization
1 — Philosophical Overview of Teacher Self-Assessment
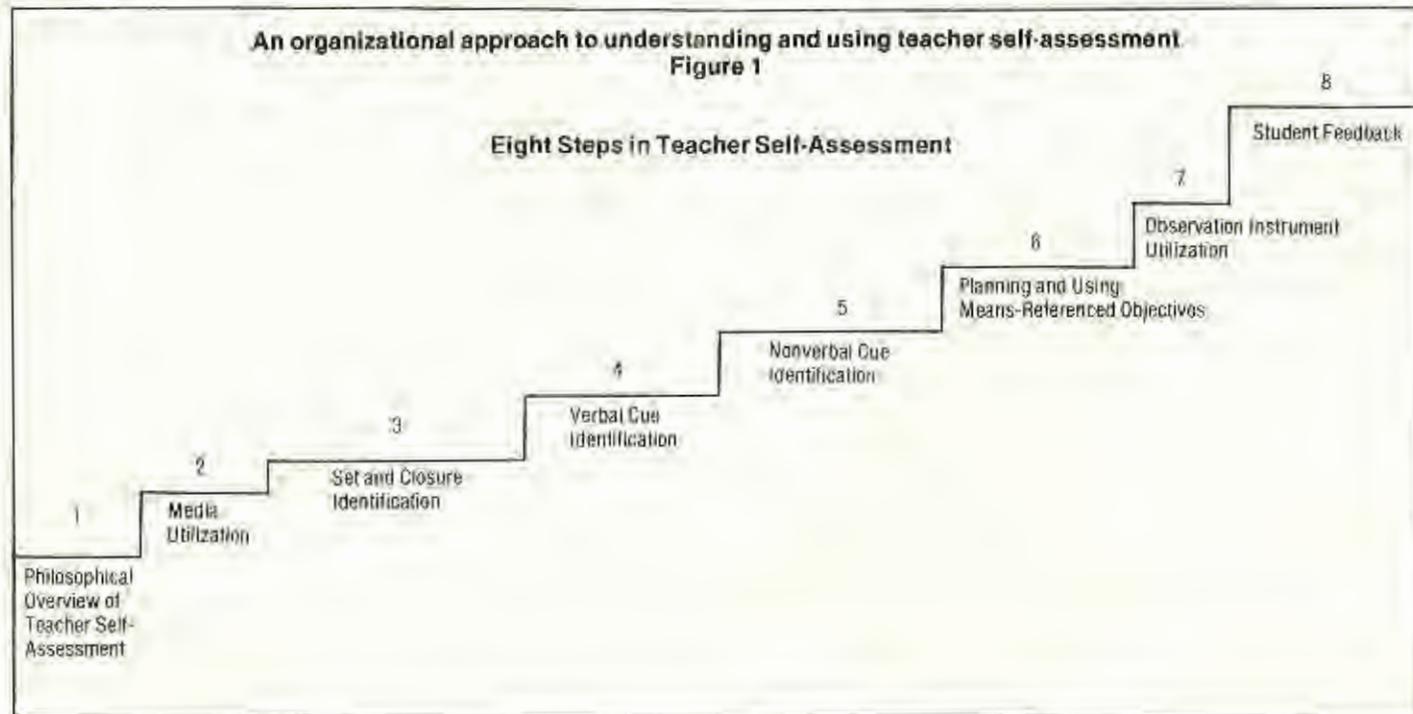
* using the media equipment on several occasions for a variety of purposes.
* permitting the students to listen or watch themselves prior to taping for self-assessment practices.

Systematic and intelligent use of media in teacher self-assessment is vital. However, merely possessing the knowledge of how to operate an audiotape or videotape for self-help is insufficient. Those teachers who are interested in in-depth analysis will need to employ other specific skills found in self-help.

Step Three: Identification of Basic Skills: Set and Closure in Teacher Self-Assessment.

Thus far, the use of media has been suggested as a specific strategy in gaining proficiency in self-assessment practices. However, merely listening or watching yourself with media can only provide a limited amount of information. Media as a single approach in self-help is incomplete. In self-help exercises, the teacher must be able to pinpoint specific behaviors found in classroom interaction. There are three basic units which are found in the act of teaching: (1) set, (2) instructional body and (3) closure.[13] These three distinct units prove a framework for a teacher which allows them to look at personal instruction. Set and closure are two of the most important skills that teachers can focus on in the initial stages of self-assessment. (The examination of the instructional body should be considered a separate activity.) Set is defined as those activities which are designed to prepare students for upcoming learning. Closure, the logical companion to set, is defined as those activities designed to act as a capstone to learning that has occurred.

In teacher self-assessment, the teacher must learn to identify and study these two important skills in-depth. The teacher who desires to become more proficient in teacher self-assessment will ultimately have to ask the following questions:

1. How aware am I of my set and closure?
2. Am I using appropriate forms of set and closure?
3. Am I using a variety of sets and closures in my teaching?
4. How can I improve set and closure which results in a higher degree of student motivation?

Step Four: Identifying Generic Verbal Cues in Teacher Self-Assessment.

In the teacher's quest for self-improvement, a detailed framework for studying personal behavior is necessary. The verbal and nonverbal behaviors are found in the instructional body of classroom interaction. While it is important to study both verbal and nonverbal behavior, it is necessary for the teacher to be able to separate the verbal from the nonverbal domain. Otherwise, observation and study of the combined behaviors becomes too complex even for the best trained observers.

Assuming that the teacher has audiotaped or videotaped the teaching performance, the following verbal behaviors need to be examined closely: (1) accepting/expressing emotion, (2) reinforcement, (3) feedback/building, (4) questioning, (5) information giving, (6) direction giving and (7) criticism. These classifications provide a matrix for analyzing verbal behaviors. All seven classifications have been used by previous researchers and each of the seven behaviors is common to teacher and student interaction.[14]

Accepting/expressing emotion: behaviors which show a teacher accepting or expressing emotion to student or class.

Reinforcement: behaviors which are positive and accepting of student behavior.

Feedback: teacher statements which develop or buttress student behavior.

Questioning: behaviors which solicit student information at different levels of intellectual activity.

Information giving or lecture: statements which provide information to a student in a unidirectional fashion.

Direction giving: behaviors that are commands, orders and statements which the student is to comply.

Criticism or justifying authority: behaviors which are intended to change unacceptable behavior to acceptable behavior.

The isolation and examination of specific verbal behaviors allows the teacher to become more aware of their impact on student behavior which results in learning how to control verbal interaction.

Step Five: Identification of Nonverbal Cues in Teacher Self-Assessment.

After the teacher has become acquainted with media, set and closure, and verbal cues, it is important to identify and study nonverbal cues found in the total teaching performance. While there are hundreds of random nonverbal cues which can be studied, there are approximately 10 generic cues that can be observed with some regularity: (1) eye contact, (2) gestures, (3) mannerisms, (4) teacher travel, (5) touching, (6) facial features, (7) posture, (8) energy level, (9) use of space and (10) silence.

eye contact: establishing visual contact with the student for the purpose of approval, disapproval or interest.

gestures: physical movement of legs, feet, hands, shoulders and trunk which are intended to buttress the verbal message being sent by the teacher.

mannerisms: physical movement of legs, feet, hands, shoulders and trunk which are unrelated to the verbal message being sent by the teacher; these behaviors could be classified as idiosyncratic.

teacher travel: physical movement which conveys reinforcement, concern or control.

touching: physical body contact which is used as reinforcement, concern or reassurance.

facial features: an array of messages conveyed by forehead, eyebrows, cheeks, ears, lips, tongue and chin which assist in delivering the verbal message.

posture: standing, setting, slouching, stooping or other physical arrangement depicted by the teacher's body.

energy level: the enthusiasm of teacher shown by coordination of legs, feet, hands, shoulders and trunk as well as speed of these physical components.

use of space: the organization of the classroom environment which denotes physical activities as well as expectations of student participation.

silence: the absence of verbal behavior which communicates messages of overstatement, understatement, suspense, deliberation of thought or confusion.

Research and study of nonverbal behavior remains in an embroyonic stage; however, the teacher needs to isolate and study those nonverbal behaviors which have an impact on student achievement and attitudes.

Step Six: Planning Methodology Behaviors with Means-Referenced Objectives in Teacher Self-Assessment.

The next logical step in teacher self-assessment is learning how to plan methodology behavior(s) which the teacher deems essential to accomplish classroom goals and objectives. The label given to these kind of objectives is means-referenced objectives.[15] Means-referenced objectives (MRO's) are used by the teacher to identify the exact means that will be used in delivering concepts or content to students. MRO statements specify the exact method or means employed by the teacher to achieve an instructional end. They should not be confused with instructional objectives which identify the exact student behavior desired in learning.

Examples of means-referenced objectives that a teacher might wish to use in planning instructional lessons include the following:

Basic Verbal Cue: Questioning

Means-referenced objective:

In a small group inquiry lesson on population explosion, the teacher will ask more analysis level questions than content level questions. Three out of four questions will be at the analysis level.

Basic Nonverbal Cue: Teacher Travel

Means-referenced objective:

During the 10 minute seat work assignment in mathematics, the teacher will travel (walk) to each student. Criteria: All (15 out of 15) students will have been contacted by the instructor to determine if questions or problems exist.

Step Seven: Using Observation Instruments to Qualify Classroom Instruction in Teacher Self-Assessment.

The teacher's ability to identify instructional behaviors such as the verbal and nonverbal behaviors is not totally sufficient in a self-assessment program. There is a need for recording classroom events in an organized, comprehensive manner. There are few precise, organized ways of accomplishing this task without using an observation instrument. Observation instruments are a sophisticated checklist which captures qualities of classroom interaction frequency and sequence. Observation instruments are employed when listening to an audiotape or viewing a videotape replay of the teacher's performance.

Selection and use of observation instruments is not an easy task. Choice of observation tools can be made from hundreds of observation systems. In a broad sense, there are two types of instruments available to the teacher engaged in self-help: expert-prepared and teacher-made observation instruments. Teacher-made instruments are those constructed by the teacher.[16] Expert-prepared instruments are those prepared by those professionals in the field of observation tools. These observation tools can then be adopted by teachers who are interested in

FREQUENCY OBSERVATION FORM DEALING WITH SELECTED VERBAL AND NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

Figure 2

Directions: Place a tally mark after each behavior when it occurs in the designated 3 minute interval.

	3 minutes	6 minutes	9 minutes	12 minutes	15 minutes
Teacher Travel					
···reinforcement ···············					
···availability ·················					
···control ····················					
Eye Contact					
···approval ···················					
···interest ····················					
···disapproval ·················					
···listening ···················					
Positive Reinforcement					
···single word·················					
···sentence····················					
···humor······················					
···individual student ···········					
···class ······················					

studying their personal behavior.

Flanders' Interaction Analysis would be an example of a widely accepted expert-prepared observation form. Teacher-made observation instruments are not as easily identified. Their value, however, can be outstanding since they are tailored to the individual teacher needs. The example in Figure 2 illustrates how a teacher can develop an observation form suited to personal needs.

The development of teacher-made observation forms requires more time and patience than all the other steps found in teacher self-assessment. Some teachers will find expert-prepared observation forms more suitable while other teachers will find that the teacher-made observation forms are more desirable. An equal number of teachers engaging in self-assessment will find that a combination of both expert-prepared and teacher-made observation forms are imperative for self-help exercises.

Step Eight: The Use of Student Feedback in Teacher Self-Assessment.

Student feedback is the practice of soliciting oral or written feedback from pupils. To date, student feedback has been used more for teacher evaluation than as a strategy in teacher self-assessment. When student feedback is employed in teacher self-assessment, the major objective is to gather information from students about the course and instructor; the data, in turn, is analyzed for ways which allow the teacher to improve instructionally.[17]

The major advantage of using student feedback in teacher self-assessment is that the student information can be contrasted with teacher-gathered information. If there is a high degree of congruity between student input and teacher self-information, the teacher could feel confident about the reliability of feedback. If there is a great deal of discrepancy between teacher self-assessment information and student input, the teacher must determine which opinion is inaccurate or why the discrepancy exists.

The availability of expert-prepared student feedback instruments is limited at the elementary and secondary level while there are a number of instruments designed for higher education. However, all teachers have a choice between teacher-made and expert-prepared student feedback instruments. Neither the teacher-made nor expert-prepared instrument should be preferred over the other. Each type of instrument has merit depending on the goals and preferences of the teacher.

Conclusion

Viewed collectively, the eight steps of teacher self-assessment reveal a comprehensive self-directed staff development program. Teacher self-assessment is a proven program which requires the teacher to be responsible for personal professional growth.

The step-by step approach allows teachers to learn how to study, control and improve their own instructional behaviors without external assistance. However, the concept of teacher self-assessment can not be implemented without careful planning and training by the teacher and school district. Unfortunately, there is not sufficient information which documents the length of time that a teacher can sustain an individualized staff development program. Without continual reinforcement from administrators and/or supervisors and periodic technical assistance from experts in the area of instructional improvement, the teacher may well lose interest in self-directed instructional improvement.

FOOTNOTES

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3. Edmund J. Amidon and Ned A. Flanders, **The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom** (Minneapolis: Association for Productive Teaching, 1967), p. 72.

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10. Gerald D. Bailey, "A Follow-Up Survey of Teachers Trained in Self-Assessment Competencies," Unpublished paper, Kansas State University, 1980, p. 3.

11. Colin M. Hook and Barak Rosenshine, "Accuracy of Teacher Reports of Their Classroom Behavior," **Review of Educational Research,** 49, No. 1 (Winter 1979), 10.

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13. Gerald D. Bailey, "Set and Closure Revisited," National Association for Secondary School Principals **Bulletin,** 64, No. 435 (April 1980), 103-110.

14. Gerald D. Bailey and John E. Lux, "A Programmed Approach to the Teaching of the Instructional Analysis System," Unpublished paper, University of Nebraska, 1972.

15. Gerald D. Bailey, "Improving Classroom Instruction with Means-Referenced Objectives," **Educational Technology,** XVII, No. 7 (July 1977), 13-15.

16. Gerald D. Bailey, "Self-Made Observation Instruments: An Aid to Self-Assessment," **Educational Technology,** XVII, No. 3 (March 1977), 49-51.

17. Gerald D. Bailey, "Improving Classroom Instruction with Student Feedback," **Educational Technology,** XVII, No. 10 (October 1978), 39-43.

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"The Anchorage Program" achieves success in staff development

Evaluation: One state's solution

By Robert J. Harder

During the 1970s numerous state legislatures and State Departments of Education developed rules and regulations pertaining to the evaluation of professional employees. Alaska was one of these states. Every school district in Alaska was responsible for a yearly formal evaluation of each certified staff member (by the 1976-77 school year).

In 1974, the Anchorage School District established a Task Force to develop an evaluation system that would both fulfill the state requirements and provide a basis for Certificated Personnel professional development. It took the task force two years to develop the program described in this article. Two high school principals, Dee Durst and Bob McCormick provided the district leadership for the development of the certificated personnel evaluation program.

The evaluation plan was based on several operational principles. An evaluation program must (1) assist the professional educator to improve skills and knowledge related to an area of responsibility, (2) have evaluation standards and procedures mutually known and accepted by both evaluator and evaluatee, (3) be a continual process of assessment, diagnosis and prescription, (4) be a process whereby evaluator and evaluatee mutually work together toward elimination of the gap between "what is" and "what should be," and (5) have procedures applicable to all employees, regardless of the position.[1]

Job Descriptions

An initial task was the development of a job description for each district position except the exchool superintendent. This included job descriptions for teachers, librarians/media specialists, school nurses, principals, district consultants, school psychologists, and directors of special services. The teacher job description is included as an illustration of a job description.

Teacher Job Description

I. Instructional Competencies

Subject Matter

It is the responsibility of the teacher to maintain competency in areas of certification and assignment.

Assessment and Planning

It is the responsibility of the teacher to employ appropriate diagnostic methods, to identify student proficiency levels, and to subsequently plan short and long range programs designed to accommodate these identified needs.

Learning Environment

It is the responsibility of the teacher to establish a physical, emotional, and intellectual climate conducive to the teaching-learning process.

Classroom Management

It is the responsibility of the teacher to manage time, space and resources for the enhancement of the teaching-learning process.

Instructional

It is the responsibility of the teacher to utilize effective teaching methods for the achievement of desired objectives.

Motivational

It is the responsibility of the teacher to employ a variety of methods and materials which will motivate the student to learn and seek additional learning experiences.

Classroom Social Interaction

It is the responsibility of the teacher to provide leadership in the establishment of a positive relationship between student and teacher, and student and student.

Evaluation

It is the responsibility of the teacher to select, develop and employ appropriate evaluation techniques to assess student progress and instructional effectiveness.

Decorum

It is the responsibility of the teacher to use appropriate methods to assist students to accept and practice standards of good decorum.

II. Other Professional Expectations

Interpersonal Relationships

It is the responsibility of the teacher to strive for harmonious and cooperative relationships with staff, parents and community.

Non-Instructional Duties

It is the responsibility of the teacher to perform required reporting and record keeping functions.

Curricular and Non-Curricular Activities

It is the responsibility of the teacher to search for and perform in the roles of advising, supervising and sponsoring as the need arises and talents permit.

Professional Growth

It is the responsibility of the teacher to participate in the activities of educational committees and organizations for the benefits of personal growth and the general promotion of the profession.

Self-Evaluation

It is the responsibility of the teacher and unit administrators to develop the means of involving parents and students in their self-evaluation. The processes used and the manner in which the findings are utilized for the improvement of instruction will be noted on the evaluation document under Self-Evaluation.[2]

Competency Examples

To provide a better understanding of each competency and to provide assistance in the evaluation process, a number of examples of each competency were developed for distribution to both evaluator and evaluatee. Although each list of examples could not be exhaustive, it served as a tool for clarification of the competencies. Also, the list illustrated the broad dimensions of each competency. Finally, the list helped illustrate that not all techniques are equally important to all teachers. A partial list of examples for the Assessment and Planning competency from the teacher job description is included as an illustration.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to employ appropriate methods of assessment, to identify student proficiency levels, and to subsequently plan short and long range programs designed to accommodate these identified needs.

Suggested questions relative to the above competency:

1. What examples of diagnostic tools can be cited?
2. What recorded data are available as a result of the diagnosis completed for each student?
3. What is the evidence that students are working at different levels of difficulty?
4. What is the evidence of various levels of instructional materials present in the classroom?
5. What indications are present that the work being attempted is appropriate with respect to the capacities and abilities of students?
6. What are the classroom examples to indicate that the teacher provides opportunities for pupils to pursue significant and satisfying interests, individually and collectively to acquire basic tools and skills?
7. What are examples of short and long range plans which have been based on the interpretation of diagnostic data?
8. What are the examples of student participation in planning?
9. To what extent do lesson plans indicate planning as a result of assessment?
10. To what extent do students keep a record of their work?
11. To what extent does the teacher permit spontaneity as opportunities and interest suddenly present themselves?
12. What are the indications that the teacher is knowledgeable about the individual student's past achievement, test scores, behavior and accomplishments?
13. What are the indications that classroom work over an extended period of time is clearly directed toward identifiable goals?[3]

Format Development

Four basic principles were instrumental in the development of the evaluation format.

Principle One

One of the first requirements of a professional is to be continuously engaged in the improvement of competencies necessary to job performance.

Plan for Improvement	Continued Development Encouraged

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

The above principle was influential in the qualitative framework portion of the evaluation document. Regardless of the competency development of the evaluatee, improvement to some degree is always the objective. In some cases a "Plan for Improvement" is necessary, while in other cases, the evaluator may wish to cite only that "Continued Development is Encouraged." In either situation, there is never an indication that the opportunity for improvement has ceased.

Principle Two

Improvement of competencies requires time; it does not just happen. In most cases improvement is a developmental process through stages.

Short Range	Extended Time	

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

The school district evaluation document for certificated personnel has provided for the recognition of this time principle. Having determined that improvement is needed in a specific competency area, the evaluator and evaluatee will develop a plan that will lead to improvement. The next decision is the determination of the time required to achieve the desired goal. The proper column will be checked, "Extended Time" or "Short Range."

The insertion of the time factor into the evaluation

document should insure additional interaction, reevaluation, analysis, and planning between evaluator and evaluatee. Neither the evaluator nor evaluatee should assume that the improvement of competencies is something one does in a conference, nor is it the result of reading the marks recorded on an evaluation check list. It is at the work station where one learns through experience, refinement and adaptation.

Principle Three

Evaluation systems built on an extensive point rating scale provide little assistance or motivation for improvement.

Short Range	Extended Time	Proficient	Exceptional

□ □ □ □

The evaluation document has been designed to emphasize the improvement of instruction and to minimize time and energy being spent on debating the accuracy of a point on a scale. The "Proficient" and "Exceptional" columns do reflect some aspects of rating, but both are positive in nature, which should tend to reduce the tension that rating generally produces. When the exceptional column is checked, a written justification by the evaluator is required.

On the "Plan for Improvement" side, "point rating" has been replaced by the factors of time and extensiveness of the plan for improvement. The classifications "Short Range" and "Extended Time" **do not** rate the seriousness of extent of the skill deficiency. For example: a simple speech pattern that should be corrected may take months to alter, whereas the serious situation of a teacher's physical abuse of a student should cease immediately.

Principle Four

There is greater assurance for change and improvement if the evaluatee possesses a clear idea of expectations and goals.

Plan for Improvement		Continued Development Encouraged	
Short Range	Extended Time	Proficient	Exceptional
A. Knowledge of subject □	□	□	□
B. Assessment and planning □	□	□	□

The format of the school district evaluation document has been arranged in such a way that space is provided between each major competency. Whenever a "Plan for Improvement" is necessary, a written statement is required. The statement should include definition of the problem and a brief description of the plan.

Sample Problem: An excessive amount of time consumed changing from one classroom activity to another. With the completion of one assignment or activity, the teacher experiences considerable difficulty in the start up of the next module of work and study.

Plan: The teacher will detail the specific techniques and procedures for the smooth transition from one activity to another.

A written statement is also required for a positioning mark within the "Exceptional" column. The statement must include justification for this judgment of exceptional proficiency.

Exceptional: Students are eagerly seeking new projects. Display of student work indicates student interest has advanced beyond the normal tasks. Students are returning to class after school to continue work. Parent input indicates high student interest. Teacher is constantly looking for new and outside resources to meet the needs of students.

A mark in the "Proficient" column does not rule out the possibility of a written plan should the evaluatee so desire.

A brief narrative requirements of the evaluation document are the responsibility of the evaluator but should not be written unilaterally. Generally, both the evaluator and evaluatee will agree on a plan for improvement. If agreement cannot be reached, each party is responsible for his/her narrative comments.[4]

In practice, Principle Two was modified. Both evaluator and evaluatee had difficulty in determining the length of time needed to correct a deficiency. Also, since determining the time is secondary to that of developing procedures for competency improvement, the time differentiation has been dropped. Finally, until a plan of improvement is developed and tried, time is an unknown factor. For example, to correct the habit of saying "ok" to all student responses may be easy and sudden for some teachers while it may be near to impossible for other teachers.

Evaluation Form

The evaluation form was developed as a working document. Space for a written plan for improvement or an explanation of an exceptional rating was provided for on the form. The form included only the major competencies. This was done to provide both a focus and flexibility. The focus is provided by limiting the evaluation categories to those that are essential for performance of job. The flexibility is provided by the broad range of activities and skills within each competency. The inherent weakness of the form is that one of these, focus or flexibility, could be emphasized at the expense of the other. An example of the form is illustrated with the first page of the Teacher Evaluation form shown below.

Administration procedures

The administrative procedures for the Anchorage Evaluation Program are similar to other evaluation programs. The major feature is that all evaluations are based on the job descriptions. The job description provides a form and guidelines for professional development. It is recognized that in the process of evaluating for professional development, the evaluator may find it necessary to consider the possibility of non-retention for the evaluatee. When this is determined, the evaluatee is notified and a new set of procedures for non-retention are utilized. These procedures were developed to protect both the evaluatee and the evaluator as well as provide a system for dismissal when needed. Since this is another issue and a complex one, it will not be described in this article.

Also, the plan was not developed for reduction in force (RIF). Another plan was developed for this possibility.

The Anchorage district is contemplating a formal evaluation of the described plan. The Anchorage Program has been adopted by other districts and is working satisfactorily. It is assumed that the plan cannot be adopted as written but each district needs to develop a set of competencies and examples unique to its personnel evaluation needs.

Anchorage School District
Teacher Evaluation Form[5]

Teacher _____ School _____

Assignment _____ Tenure ____ Non-Tenure ____

Plan for Improvement		Continued Development Encouraged	
Short-Range	Extended Time	Proficient	Exceptional

I. Areas of Instructional Competency

A. Knowledge of Subject ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

B. Assessment and Planning ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

C. Learning Environment ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

D. Classroom Management ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

FOOTNOTES

1. "Handbook for Evaluation of Certificated Personnel," Anchorage School District, Anchorage, Alaska 1976-77, p. 1.
2. Ibid., pp. 8-9.
3. Ibid., p. 6.
4. Ibid., pp. 4-7.
5. Ibid., p. 10.

Should public schools bring about change in society?

Educational change a prerequisite

By Everett D. Edington

INTRODUCTION

A dilemma exists concerning public education's role in bringing about change within our social system. Should schools reflect the philosophies of the majority within a community, state, or the nation; or should they be instruments to bring about change within the system or even to change the structure of the system itself? In the past, the role of the public schools has generally been merely the reflection of the majority within its community whether this reflection was religion, politics, or whatever. This view was accepted by both educators and the public alike.

Changes seem to be taking place not only among educators, but within the public. Rarely does anyone go so far as to envision schools taking the role of changing the social structure, but they do see the schools taking the vital function of leadership, thus bringing about important social changes within the existing social system. In the past, this function was the prerogative of higher education; but now it is starting to seep into the secondary and elementary level of our public educational systems.

Certain conservative elements see this as a cause of great concern while most progressive groups applaud the change in direction. While not a rapid, overnight change, it

is slowly beginning to permeate most of the public school system. Such a change in role definition, in itself, is neither good nor bad, because the school may be an extremely powerful force in bringing about desirable as well as undesirable change.

In redefining their role, it will be important for the schools to restructure their systems for obtaining information used in decision making. John I. Goodlad (1973) advocates, in order to satisfy the different realms of decision making which will become a part of the role of the schools, that differing data sources be brought into play for finding new solutions to problems. He suggests that educational institutions tend to draw their data from the safety of conventional wisdom, that schools are conservatively oriented, and that most controversial and potent thrusts of innovations are blunted.

Education has been generally conservative and slow to change when compared to other disciplines. McMurrin (1969) indicates that this is due to the natural conservativeness of such social institutions as education. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) indicate that recent changes in education reflect those of society, in general, which is now more open to change and also that resources are now available (still on a somewhat limited scale) to encourage change and innovation in education.

INNOVATION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE GOAL AND OBJECTIVE OF EDUCATION:

There is an unending controversy regarding the goals and objectives of the educational system. Extremists in either direction can be found in almost any program within the schools. There are advocates of only the "3Rs" and advocates of the completely "humanistic" program. Some would have the schools rigidly structured with no input by students, while others stress the only way a person learns is with complete freedom to choose not only the way in which he learns what he learns, but also whether or not he needs to learn at all. A complete range of opinions is found among educators and lay citizens in the community. Generally, a larger percentage of the educators, rather than other citizens, would favor more progressive goals of learning; but this varies from group to group. Those persons favoring the more progressive goals are usually better educated and upper-middle-class Americans; however, there is such a wide variation that generalizations, here, are dangerous.

Such controversy over the purposes of the educational system are healthy. Without differences of opinion, our schools would become stagnant and fail to meet the needs of our ever changing society. Lack of on-going dialogue would lead to control by a very few who would be able to indoctrinate the youth with their philosophies and, thus, in a generation would have one basic philosophy in complete control of the social system.

The American society is at a point in time when extremely important decisions concerning the future and direction of education must be made. Sterling M. McMurrin (1969) in **Schools and the Challenge of Innovation**, stated

"But if many of these decisions are to be made in the future—the very near future—at least one major decision must be made now. It is the decision on whether to cling to the established educational habits and customs and thereby perpetuate the past or seize the opportunities of the present to break through those habits and customs and move in new directions."

In any discussion of purposes and goals of education it is important to know what is involved. The purposes refer to (1) the individual, (2) the society and (3) the cultures. The goals are usually found in either the (1) cognitive nature, or (2) affective domains (McMurrin, 1969).

The schools are primarily concerned with two major types of learning—the cognitive and the affective. The cognitive domain usually involves the skills of achievement and the ability to communicate for the individual. It involves both sensory knowledge and abstract thought. The affective is concerned with the feelings and attitudes an individual forms, both about himself and about his fellow beings. Ginsberg (1973), in a lecture presented at Ohio State University, indicated that except for an athletic activity, American schools have concentrated almost exclusively on the development of cognitive skills, and that they are behind in their efforts to identify, train or reward young people with potentials for superior performance in non-academic, non-athletic pursuits.

In America, the individual is the focus of our culture and society. An opportunity is provided for individual achievement. Education is generally thought of as one of the most appropriate ways for achievement by the individual. The school, therefore, should produce an individual who is not only economically self-sufficient in the society, but also one who, as a result of his education, can find self-satisfaction in his pursuits.

Our educational system should perpetuate a society which is generally free in order that the individual may progress and attain his goals. It should perpetuate the culture and heritage of its people.

In order for the educational reformer to be successful, he must not be so drastically different that society will not listen to him and thus not accept his viewpoints. In order to survive in educational and political change, it is necessary to have what may be thought of as a map of the territory, together with some notion of the desirable direction and available paths. The reformer should also be aware of the practicality and applicability of reforms he advocates. Most of the present literature does not reflect this concern. In a review of the literature on training and change, Maurice Oliver (1971) indicates that little was reliable and dependable for use by the practicing school administrator in the tasks of administering for change. It is extremely important that those persons advocating educational change have clearly in mind the goal of society before attempting to initiate change in the schools. It should also be kept in mind that change for change sake should be avoided at all cost. Only those changes which have been carefully studied and that will help meet the purposes and objectives of the educational systems should be undertaken.

FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE:

There are a number of variables that will affect the type and amount of change that will occur in our public educational systems. Such forces can be found both inside and outside of the formal structure. Those from within will be discussed first.

Inside the School

School districts in America differ greatly and an exception can be found to any generalized discussion concerning them. School districts range from large urban and suburban school districts with thousands of students and numerous schools to extremely isolated one-room schools with few students. Many of the same forces which affect acceptance or rejection of change act within each district.

First, one must look at the system and those people who make up the system in predicting acceptability of change. Persons with larger amounts of education and higher socio-economic levels are generally more willing to accept change than those with lower levels of education and socio-economic status. Resources available to the district are extremely important. Those districts having difficulty meeting payrolls and obtaining adequate supplies and equipment are not likely to be innovative while those districts with ample resources and supplies will be more willing to initiate change. This is evident among the states. Those states providing more resources for the schools are more likely to have schools with changing, dynamic programs. With some of the more recent court rulings concerning equalization of educational resources within a state, we will probably see more equalization of innovativeness among schools. There is, however, a danger of bringing the more resourceful districts down to the average and thus, destroying their ability to innovate. It is hoped that new state funding formulas will reward the district that is willing to try new ideas. In the past, the urban and suburban districts have been able to pay higher salaries and, thus, to attract the more innovative type of administrator and teacher. Usually, those with higher levels of education have left the rural areas. Hopefully, any new funding formulas, brought about as a result of the court rulings, will make special allowances for small schools in order to alleviate this discrepancy.

O'Fallen and Doak (1973) found that small schools have been slow to respond to changing societal needs because (1) of their isolation, geographically and otherwise; (2) their smallness leaves little flexibility to innovate and explore; (3) staffing patterns are aimed at recruitment from within the community; and (4) information and communication is focused on local rather than cosmopolitan sources.

The lack of knowledge and skills of individuals within a system many times act as a deterrent to change. In his writings on educational programs in developing countries, H.S. Bhloa (1973) indicated that the general lack of knowledge among practitioners and educators concerning the how and why of organizational behavior will, as a lack of sensitivity on the part of the administrators and planners to the organizational aspects of technical assistance, slow down planned change.

The school administrators play a big role in encouraging change within schools. If they are open minded and reward those teachers who properly plan and initiate change, change is more likely to occur. If change is discouraged, the innovative teacher will either leave the system or become more like the traditional teacher in order to survive within the system. The community often looks to the administrator for leadership in bringing about change. Robert H. Anderson (1973), when discussing "Open Education" and the principal's role, made the following statement: "Public receptivity in open education as a specific example of school reform has sometimes been less than enthusiastic; for this reason, the would-be progressive school principal faces a challenging task of inquiry, information, persuasion and affirmative action. It follows then that unless principals do

commit themselves to the cause of open education, that cause may not flourish. Leadership in planning, provisioning and more imaginative exploitation of the school's physical environment is one of the important contributions a principal can make."

Outside the School

The community may include the local school area, district, state, or larger geographic area, such as the nation. There is a movement in education today wherein many groups and local communities are demanding more local control of their schools and yet are desiring more resources from state and national sources. As more school support monies come from outside the local community, more controls which may influence the changes that take place within the local school will come.

Community characteristics which influence change are closely related to characteristics of individuals who influence change. Thus, communities with higher levels of education and socio-economic status will be more likely to accept change. Communities that are more cosmopolitan in nature will be more willing to accept innovation within the schools. Communities with these characteristics will not only be more willing to accept such change, but will demand that improvements be made and that the schools be a dynamic force in the social structure.

Extremes of social unrest within a community may, in some cases, act as a deterrent to change. When school administrators are found to have locked gates at the schools and police in the halls to protect the students, staff, and property, it is extremely difficult to have a viable educational program. It is important that there be dialogue between the community and school personnel, although in some cases there may be confrontation. This confrontation should not be destructive in nature, but should involve issues that can be solved at the negotiating table or at the polling place during school board elections.

Generally, in the past, school board members have represented the power structure in the community or special interest groups. Such persons were content to maintain the status quo in the schools. State legislatures often represent the same groups of people. If others, in the various communities, want more of a voice in what happens in the schools, they must work within the system and get representation on both local and state legislative and policy making bodies. This change is beginning to take place in some communities, making the schools more susceptible to changes desired by the various people living within the school district. This may not always be advantageous for the schools. A great many school districts in retirement communities are in serious financial trouble and unable to provide adequate educational programs due to the conservative nature of the constituents.

Characteristics of Innovations that Affect Change

The characteristics of the innovation itself may determine its acceptance or rejection into a particular school system or classroom. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) listed five characteristics of innovations that are sensed by the receivers as being important and contributing to their different rates of adoption.

1. Relative advantage is the degree to which an innovation is perceived to have a greater advantage over the idea that it replaces.

2. Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, needs and experiences of the receivers.

3. Complexity is how difficult an innovation is perceived to be.

4. Triability is the degree to which a innovation may be "tried out" on a limited basis.

5. Observability is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others.

In each case it should be noted that the determining factor is how the characteristic is perceived by the receiver. No matter what the actual situation is, if the receiver perceives it differently, then that perception is true for him.

RESTRUCTURING THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM FOR CHANGE

Contrary to the beliefs of some people, it is not necessary to have complete restructuring of the schools to make them more susceptible to desired change. In fact, there is a danger in completely dismantling an entire system. This is especially true when the system has a sound basic structure and is an integral part of the community, as are the public schools in America. Any change of the structure should follow the same basic principle of change in the program, that of working within the establishment rather than trying to destroy the structure and then building an entirely new system.

Alternative Schools

A "positive" rather than a "negative" approach to education is advocated by many people as a means of making schools more meaningful and thus being more successful in meeting the needs of students. The Glasser approach is one that advocates the positive school experience. Bruce D. Keepes (1973), in a presentation given at the American Educational Research Association, reported that after four years of operating on the Glasser plan, the school staff was noticeably more committed to creating a success-oriented experience for students as evidenced by the warm teacher-pupil relationship, the emphasis on individualized instruction, the absence of arbitrary universal standards, the problem-solving approach to discipline, and the general sense of joint effort observable both within the classroom and within the school as a whole.

New Role for Intermediate School Districts

An extremely exciting and promising practice in school organizations which has recently developed is that of redefining the intermediate unit and its function. The original intermediate unit, the office of the county school superintendent, was on the whole a failure and had outlived its usefulness. A majority of the states now have legislation which enables school districts to band together cooperatively into a regional unit (Bensen and Barber, 1971). This banding together enables districts to provide services to students, as a part of a larger unit which would have been impossible in a single school district. This type of organization has been especially beneficial to rural schools which have many times been unable to provide adequate educational programs. It also enables these schools, without consolidation, to provide increased services and to keep their own identities. School consolidation, in the past, often helped to destroy

small rural communities. Some examples of states with more successful programs are the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) in New York, the Regional Service Center in Texas and the County Schools in California. In some states, there is much less structure and the schools band together in a cooperative arrangement to perform a number of special services. Each state may also have a different administrative structure for the intermediate unit. Such a system spreads out both the resources and the risks involved in implementing innovations into the schools.

Consolidation vs. Decentralization

The trend of consolidation of school districts and the making of larger and larger districts has tended to slow down in the past few years. Some people are now beginning to question whether or not some districts are too big to bring about desirable change and to provide adequate educational programs for the youth and adults in the community. This does not imply, however, that there are not some districts which are still too small and could still benefit from consolidation, but that some of the larger urban districts may have become too large to adequately perform their functions. Roscoe Brown (1973) points out that in New York City decentralization is being attempted in order to help meet the demands of the citizens for improved educational programs. He indicated that the main obstacles to decentralization of schools in New York City are the bureaucracies within the school systems, a large and powerful teacher union, and the political ramifications which accompany the process of decentralization. The main benefits are the lessening of administrative lethargy in the centralized bureaucracy and the ease of responsiveness in meeting the needs of local communities.

Each community should take a good look at the size of its school district and what it hopes to accomplish in trying to determine if the districts are too large or not large enough. Decisions for change should be made upon the needs of the youth and adults served by the educational system. This process is very agonizing in many cases, but each community needs desperately to do so.

Year-Round Schools

Another system which has shown some promise is that of the "year-round school." There are indications that school districts across the nation increasingly view year-round school operations as much for the opportunities to improve the educational program as for reasons of space utilization or economy (Olsen and Rice, 1974). A number of plans are in operation, but all basically involve having the schools open all year long with students taking vacations at different times to better utilize the facilities. A few, however, are not truly "year-round" schools in the strictest sense, offering only remedial or enrichment programs for the students in the summer.

The greatest problem with the year-round system has been adjustment for the parents and the community. It is difficult for working mothers to have children at home other than during the traditional summer vacations, and the system may also play havoc with traditional family vacation plans. There are some indications that such parental adjustments have been made.

Personnel

The most difficulty in structuring for change comes with personnel. It causes real problems for people who may be conservative by nature and who work within a traditionally conservative system to make major changes. But without some changes in the thinking and attitude of existing personnel or by replacing them with newly trained personnel, it will be an impossible task to implement lasting innovations into the school systems, especially innovative programs in staff development.

Administration

If the administration in an organization fails to see the need for change or lack the ability to initiate and carry out change, then there is little likelihood that change will take place. This is true at all levels of administration, from the superintendent and staff at the central office down to the principal at the individual school or building level. Their approval is needed for much progress to take place. The mere fact that an administrator does not encourage innovation indicates endorsement of a traditional program already in existence. Inactivity may be as detrimental to change as a strong stand against change itself. The administrator may either introduce change himself or act as a facilitator in the encouragement of teachers or students in such an introduction.

The present-day role of the school administrator is being seriously questioned by many groups and individuals at this time. Teachers often see administrators as being too far removed from the instruction and concerned primarily with "efficient management." Many times the goals of management may differ from those of the teacher or student in the classroom. Quite often the main concern of the administrator may be that of someone who does not "rock the boat." The administrator may view the teacher who is trying to develop a more progressive education program as a troublemaker. It should be said, in the administrator's defense, that not all of them fit such a mold. Enough do, however, to cause some serious concerns in the minds of many about what should be the true role of the school administrator and, in some cases, if the administrators should even continue to exist.

In an attempt to establish a hierarchical order of purpose for the elementary school principal, Gallo (1973) proposes the following: (1) clinical supervision for the improvement of instruction, (2) professional dialogue with staff in the planning of curriculum and the implementation of curriculum programs, and (3) management function. Because these functions are not performed in the above order and often the management function is given highest priority, many people are beginning to advocate the abolishment of the building principal.

All too often the administrative role is that of gatekeeper and the gate has been closed to desired changes in education. Change will occur only when the administrator perceives a need for change and sees himself as having the power to bring about the change. (Reynolds, 1967)

Teachers

Teachers must also have the proper attitude and desire if change is to occur. Teachers are the most important links in developing an adequate educational program for learning to take place. It is impossible to expect teachers to change by merely just telling them to do so. They must be motivated and see a need for the change and then receive help in the implementation.

One of the most important developments in education, in some time, is that of competency-based teacher education programs. The main thrust in teacher

certification would be the competencies and skills in which the teachers could demonstrate proficiencies. If this program is fully developed, the teachers will be personally involved in continual change and innovation in all areas may tend to become second nature. At least 40% of the states presently have plans for awarding certificates through competency-assessed teacher certification programs. (Maurer, 1973). The greatest resistance to competency-based teacher certification programs, at this time, seems to be coming from teacher organizations.

Teachers as a group will not be change-oriented until the system begins to reward them for being so. The present system which gives pay increases based primarily on longevity may tend to discourage the innovative teachers. Currently there is a tendency to reward those who do "not make waves."

The administration and teachers need to work together as a team if desired educational change is to take place. Each must have input into such change at all stages of its development—the conceptual, planning, as well as initiation and implementation phases.

Role of the Community

We are in the midst of an extremely serious controversy today concerning the role of the community in our public schools. There is little indication that the problems will soon be solved. There are, on one side, those who say that the schools belong to the community and that the students are products of the local communities. On the other side, there are those who advocate that the purpose of the school is to bring about change and that professional educators should have the ultimate voice as to what takes place in the school and curriculum. This controversy has even caused bloodshed and violence in some communities. A major problem often involves material found in textbooks over which the local educators or citizens have little or no control. Forces on a large (often even national) scale are having more and more effect on what goes on in individual classrooms. Parents and other citizens are becoming concerned and demanding more of a voice in what takes place in the schools.

Traditionally, it has been thought that local school boards represented citizens of a particular community. The board supposedly developed the policy, and the responsibility of the administrator and other educators was to carry out the policy. There are two major problems with this viewpoint: (1) School boards are generally non-paid persons with full-time employment elsewhere and rely very heavily on the professional educators for not only input into policy but also the development of the policy itself and (2) the boards are usually representative of the power structure or pressure groups and do not adequately represent the citizens of the community.

The first problem has led to a gradual wasting away of the board's influence. It is often impossible for a single lay board to collect all the information, analyze it and make policy decisions concerning the operation of many of our immense educational organizations. Board members often rely on the educators to do much of the information collecting and analysis. Without intentionally meaning to do so, the bias of the professional educator tends to dominate. This does not mean that school boards should become involved in operational decisions, but is included merely to point out the problems which now exist in many situations. Some communities have additional advisory committees to advise the board. Their advisory committee can greatly alleviate the information gathering and

analysis work of the board and free them for policy determination. Generally, such citizen committees are appointed for a special project and released when their work is completed. Probably the greatest outcome is that such a program involves more citizens in the schools. And citizens, by becoming involved, have a much greater understanding of the problems.

The second problem of inadequate representation of the citizens may not be as easy to solve. But the involvement of more citizens may tend to get them interested and thus run for the school board. A publication of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Rural Education and Small Schools (ERIC/CRESS, 1974) "How Well Do They Represent You?" describes this unequal representation: "about 100,000 Americans serve on school boards,—they have many occupations—dentists, lawyers, housewives, merchants, farmers, professors, managers and laborers. About four percent are manual workers; the professions and business contribute about 65 percent. Men outnumber women by a ratio of nine to one. In some states a person under 21 years of age cannot legally serve on a school board." There are indications in this statement of not only imbalance by occupation, but also of discrimination by sex and age, as well. In many places, ethnic discrimination can also be found; but this imbalance seems to be changing more rapidly than some of the other aspects.

If the schools are to provide services and make changes in order to keep the confidence of the citizens in the community, new ways must be found to involve a more representative group of citizens in the decisions and operations of the individual school systems.

The educator has the responsibility of helping the lay citizen to develop the ability to have more input into the schools. At this time, many educators view this idea as a threat, not as an aid. More and more groups of people, especially among minorities, are demanding this participation. Without proper training, however, it could become a complete failure. The professional educator should welcome the assistance and do everything within his power to see that the lay people are successful in this venture.

Influence of Social Forces

If the educational system is a reflection of the social system, then the major force in educational change should come from society itself. Such changes may take a long time, due to the fact that the major society is generally slow to change. Many such changes may take generations to occur.

Probably one of the most dramatic societal changes to take place which is affecting our educational system is the realization that the United States is not a "melting pot" but a pluralistic society. As a result, many changes were forced upon the schools, most of which were difficult to cope with. It was felt by some that legislation and additional resources would help bring about needed changes in the schools. Generally, both have failed miserably. Large amounts of money were spent on compensatory education for disadvantaged children. Even their strongest supporters will now admit that they were not completely successful. Evaluation after evaluation has shown that in those cases where increased learning did take place it soon disapperaed after a few years. The supporters argue that if the special programs had continued, learning would have continued to increase. Its critics contend that we cannot afford such massive

change in our educational system for the education of the disadvantaged.

The laws regarding forced integration continue to be ignored. In all sections of the country, there continue to be segregated schools and means to enforce the laws often bring violence. The conflicting demands of the separatists on one hand and the integrationists on the other have severely damaged education in many cases.

In a great many instances conflicts were resolved by much more peaceful means. Millions of youths are now attending integrated schools. Opportunities for disadvantaged youths to further their education are better than ever before. Thousands are attending institutions of higher education and advanced technical schools who would have found it impossible a few years ago.

Diversity of culture can be either a threat or an asset. The schools and the community together can use diversity as a destructive force or as a means of helping people grow and develop. Many ethnic studies programs have now developed beyond that stage to a more comprehensive "Ethnicity in Education" (Seifer, 1973) and are an integral part of curriculum aiding people to better understand one another.

The women's liberation movement has also brought about changes in the schools. Those in the "sacred sanctuaries" of men's athletics find now that resources must be shared and that equal programs must be provided for girls. Many occupational and professional training programs are also changing to overcome the sex biases that were previously there.

The schools, where change takes place at a slower rate than in "real life" are criticized for being behind and not relevant to the needs of society. This is a dilemma which will continue to be with us as long as the goals of society continue to change. It is remarkable how well our educational system has fared in the face of such rapid changes in direction.

The issue of staff development can never be adequately addressed until educational leaders deal with the issue of educational change. Administrators, teachers, community people, students, school board members and faculty in higher education all must grapple with the dilemma: Should public schools effect change or bring about change in society? Before implementing any specific strategies dealing with staff development in the public school systems, this dilemma must be resolved.

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Administrators are responsible for improvement activities

The superintendent's role

By Tony Stansberry

Few professional educators at management levels today, deny that recent changes in public expectations and Kansas statutes have restricted the authority of local boards of education. Concurrent with these changes, the responsibilities of boards of education to provide for the educational needs of children have increased. This dichotomy of purpose has presented a real dilemma for boards of education. Boards of education are still expected to perform their traditional tasks of "supervising the district." However, each year fewer tools are provided to do the job.

In the midst of declining authority, the superintendent of schools as the chief administrator for the board of education, must still carry out board policies. The superintendent is still responsible for guiding the district in successfully meeting the educational needs of all the children.

A variety of more vocal pressure groups which include teacher unions, special patron interest and accountability groups, affirmative action groups, student organizations, news media, etc., often complicate the process. These groups and even the board members often disagree among themselves regarding district priorities.

How then, one might ask, is the superintendent to do the job? Is it still possible for one person to lead a district in meeting educational goals, as well as trying to satisfy school community expectations? Of course, the answer, in the traditional sense, is **no**. However, acting as a manager of personnel and assets, the superintendent's success may be greatly enhanced. It is entirely possible for effective leadership to be exerted if the superintendent assumes the role of educational manager.

An educational manager is one who carries out supervision and effects change by motivating others. This is accomplished in a cooperative and well coordinated effort designed to improve the situation under consideration. The educational manager identifies needs and develops plans for the motivation and facilitation of people. The educational manager then guides and supports the people (i.e., staff, patrons, students) in their efforts to develop and implement the means for school improvement. Throughout the effort, the effective manager strives to help establish a sense of "ownership" on the part of the personnel involved.

Considering the above, it becomes evident that the antidote for diminishing authority versus rising responsibility expectations is improving people management skills. In addition, it should be recognized that nearly all functions of the superintendency in some way impact on one another. One functional area which permeates the superintendent's role as much as any other is curriculum development. Patrons, staff and students alike usually judge a school based on the quality of it's program of studies. Examples of other school areas scrutinized by the school community are budget, taxes, support services, student activities, facilities and personnel (to include evaluation, class load, pupil-teacher ratios, salaries, instructional materials, etc.). Professional educators and lay persons judge the superintendent's performance according to their perceptions of that individual's ability to satisfy the needs of all functional school areas. This is usually done in accordance with the standards set by each individual or group. This process is extremely threatening when the superintendent's authority is diminishing and the public's demand for accountability is increasing.

Superintendents (educational managers) and boards of education must understand the present day phenomenon described above and they must come to grips with it. All efforts to improve curriculum and instruction must have at least two goals: (1) to improve education for children and (2) strengthen supervisory credibility within the school and community. In conjunction with these efforts, each should be carefully weighed in terms of both direct and indirect impact on the overall school program. Direct impact is self explanatory. Indirect impact might be described as "spin off effects" on other functional areas of the school.

With these things in mind, the functional area of school curriculum and improvement therein warrants further consideration. Curriculum improvement should be analyzed in terms of giving careful consideration to the process of curriculum evaluation and improvement.

A process of curriculum development being initiated in some Kansas schools is referred to as a systems approach to curriculum development. The process, utilizes participation from all segments of the school community. It may encompass a complete evaluation of the school's program of study from it's philosophical goals statements to methods of teaching specific courses in the individual classroom. If correctly implemented, the process can enhance the superintendent's authority in achieving job responsibilities in related areas of curriculum development. In fact, attainment can impact favorably on all aspects of the superintendent's role.

The following is devoted to describing a systems approach to curriculum development. The procedure is offered as a valid option for educational managers to consider. The procedure may be accepted in part or in total

whichever is appropriate. There is an underlying emphasis that the process should allow some constructive participation from all interested school personnel and community groups.

The systems approach to curriculum development can be divided into three phases. The areas are (1) Foundation, Planning and Development, (2) Evaluation of the Curriculum System and (3) Implementing Changes for Improvement. The information in Table I outlines sub-parts of the three major phases. The information in Table II indicates the activities and primary participants involved in developing all three phases. From the initial steps to the final one, a "grass roots" total evaluation is suggested. The remainder of this article is directed to those districts who need to develop their program at the "grass roots" level.

The data in Table I illustrates the importance of training the staff through appropriate in-service programs. In-service is necessary because the majority of today's institutions of higher learning do not adequately prepare teachers with the skills necessary to develop comprehensive curriculum improvements. Administrators also require additional training.

Once, the administrative and teaching staffs are prepared to under take the project; an evaluation of the School's Educational Goals (Philosophical Goals) initiates the effort. Goals approved by the board of education set broad parameters for the programs and functions of the district. These "district goals" should be statements of broad direction of intent, timeless and stated in student outcomes, (e.g., All graduates should develop good character and self-respect.) Phi Delta Kappa, North Cen-

TABLE I
A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

PHASE I
FOUNDATION, PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

1. Establish a Teacher In-Service Program for the Project.
   a. Hire Consultants if needed
   b. Conduct In-Service Workshops
   c. Organize a Professional Assistance Committee
      (Central Curriculum Advisory Council)
2. Develop School Philosophical Goals.
   a. Choose a Method of Approach
   b. Organize a School Goals Committee
   c. Involve Total School Community
   d. Establish School Goals
3. Develop Curriculum Guides.
   a. Choose a Strategy for Development
   b. Determine Subject Matter Goals
   c. Determine Scope and Sequence
   d. Develop Instructional Objectives
   e. Consideration of: Methodology
                        Facilities
                        Materials

PHASE II
EVALUATION OF THE CURRICULUM SYSTEM

1. Carry Out an Appropriate Series of Program Evaluations.
   a. Objectives Should be the Basis of the Evaluation
      (1) Standardized Tests
      (2) Conferences, Teacher, Student and Parental Feedback
      (3) Follow-up Studies
      (4) Staff Evaluation
      (5) North Central Association Evaluation

PHASE III
IMPLEMENTING CHANGE FOR IMPROVEMENT

1. Prioritize Recommended Needs (Weakness Identified During Evaluation)
2. Devise an Implementation and Monitoring Plan
3. Implement the Plan on a Short, Medium and Long Range Basis. Monitor as Required.

TABLE II
A SOLUTION
USD-458 BASIC
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT
APPROACH

PHASE	ACTIVITY	PARTICIPANTS
I Foundation Building	1. Set up a Teacher In-Service Program 2. Determine what the Educational Goals of your school district are. 3. Develop curriculum guides to accomplish stated goals. 4. Organize a Professional Council to assist in monitoring and making improvement recommendations.	Total School Community Professional Staff Professional Staff
II Evaluation of Foundation	5. Once a viable curriculum improvement program has been implemented, evaluate its success in terms of the total school program.	Total School Community
III Plan and Implement needed changes	6. Prioritize recommended needs 7. Develop an implementation plan for curriculum revision 8. Implement and monitor results of implementation plan regularly and implement revisions needed, (follow-up)	Professional Staff Board and Administration Administration

tral Association and several other school evaluation resources provide ideas for developing or redeveloping school goals.

In devising schools goals, the curriculum leaders should involve staff, patrons, students and boards of education. The goals define "What the school is all about." Everyone involved needs to provide input into development of the goals. This involvement leads to "ownership" on the part of the participants. Once the goals are developed, it is time to re-evaluate or develop curriculum guides.

Curriculum guides (of a minimum objectives variety) which include subject matter goals and scope and sequence should be developed. The subject goals outline the goals for each subject, stated within parameters established by the broader school goals. The scope explains what is to be taught and the sequence illustrates when. Teaching methodologies, learning styles and gatherings of all resource materials are other aspects of a sound curriculum guide.

Once the curriculum guides have been developed, evaluation is the logical next step. The total school evaluation such as that provided by North Central Association is a fine process. By now, the goals of the district have been set and specific guides for instruction are developed. An evaluation reflecting the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum in conjunction with the total school program presents a fairly accurate picture of the total program. An NCA evaluation not only notes program strengths and weaknesses, but it allows for staff

"ownership" in recommending priorities on a short, medium and long range basis for implementation.

Once the school goals, curriculum guides and other areas of the school have been evaluated (in terms of district goals established), the superintendent has a "handle on the total program." In addition, representatives of the whole school community have participated in the developmental study. The superintendent will be placed in the enviable position of leading from a vantage point of strength. The superintendent has a back log of information and support on which to make recommendations to the board of education. For instance, no longer will the superintendent's judgment be singled out for criticism because budgeting expenditures did not satisfy one pressure group or another. Teachers may be evaluated upon goals established in the curriculum guides by the professional staff. School and community relations are enhanced because the public had opportunities to participate in making recommendations for improvement. A host of positive eventualities arise from the approach just described.

In conclusion, almost all the functional areas of the administrative process can be affected by the systematic developmental process for curriculum improvement. The board of education through its superintendent is more capable of achieving its educational responsibilities after such a study. The superintendent can effectively carry out board policies because (1) the superintendent is more informed of district wide needs, (2) the community is more understanding and cooperative because of its con-

structive participation, (3) the staff is more satisfied because it has constructively participated in the decision making progress. In sum, a healthy, concerted spirit of cooperation from throughout the school community is extended to the board of education.

Overall school community approval of the board's policies lends itself to enhanced confidence. Public and staff confidence by association lends itself well to a broadening of authority. This authority, well supplemented by public confidence, assists the superintendent and the board of education in fulfilling supervisory responsibilities.

Personal administrator development affects entire school districts

Effecting principal growth

By Jerry W. Valentine

The phoenix, a legendary bird of ancient Egyptian folklore, lived five centuries before consuming itself by fire and rising from its ashes with renewed vigor. Many critics contend education is consuming itself through the improper utilization of resources, in particular, human resources. In response to this concern over attrition of quality education, staff development is viewed as a significant factor by which education can arise from its own ashes and exhibit a renewed vigor.

To speak of education as being in ashes is perhaps a bit unjust. But educators do face many issues in 1980 which, when considered collectively, seem insurmountable. As an example, let's eavesdrop for a moment on the opening school address given by Superintendent I.M. Pessimistic to the teachers and administrators of Typical R-I School District.

"My fellow educators. I stand before you today with a few minor concerns on my mind. When each of us entered this profession, many years ago, we realized that we would not reap great financial benefits. We further realized that we were entering a public profession, whose purpose was to serve our patrons. Yet today, and in the future, we face many challenges that clearly emphasize these two issues. Let me list a few:

- Last year we negotiated an impressive nine percent increase in the base salary. Inflation rose eighteen percent.

- Last year we increased our energy related school expenditures by twelve percent. Energy related costs rose twenty-eight percent.

- Last year our student enrollment dropped four hundred students. Even though many of us are within ten to fifteen years of retiring, last year we had but two retiring teachers and, as you know, we had to dismiss five non-tenured teachers to compensate for the declining enrollment.

- As money gets tighter, our school board continues to receive increasing pressure from the community for instructional accountability—whatever that is. The board has no choice but to demand this same accountability of you, the teacher. We must demonstrate teacher effectiveness.

How then do we meet some of these challenges facing us. Financially, we cinch our belts a notch tighter. Instructionally, we implement a district-wide program of teacher staff development so that we can effectively demonstrate to the board and to our community that we do indeed have an exceptional school district."

Two days prior to the speech to the teachers of Typical R-I School District, Superintendent Pessimistic addressed the principals of the district. The superintendent made similar comments to the principals and emphasized the importance of principal staff development as a means of surviving the eighties.

Staff development is viewed by some as the answer to surviving the pressing issues of education and exhibiting a renewed vigor for teaching that so many seem to have lost. On the surface, staff development does appear promising. But, the skilled superintendent realizes that isolated or en masse professional growth of teachers is futile without a preceeding and corresponding growth of the building level principals. Educators continually give rhetoric to the importance of the principal in setting the tone, the climate, the environment of the school; yet, relatively minimal effort is made to promote the professional growth of that person who is the key to establishing that learning environment. The purpose of this article is to discuss principal professional development as viewed in the context of organization development.

Overview of Organization Development

In-service education, as it has traditionally been implemented, is cosmetic. The adroit superintendent realizes this superficiality and seeks a more Gestalten analysis through the literature of organizational change.

Organization development, a term borrowed from business and industry and now being applied in education, best describes the concept of growth, development and change so frequently sought by superintendents.

Owens and Steinhoff utilize excerpts from French and Bell to present a comprehensive definition of Organization Development (OD).

"Organizational development is a long range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal process, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture ... with special emphasis on the culture of the work teams ... with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research.'

Schmuck and Miles define OD as a "planned and sus-

tained effort to apply behavioral science for system improvement, using reflexive, self-analytic methods."[2]

These definitions are most easily understood by persons with backgrounds in the behaviorial sciences and the literature of planned change. Realizing the complexity of the definition, Owens and Steinhoff presented 10 concepts designed to provide a frame of reference by which the administrator can better understand the process of administering change through organization development.

1. The goal of OD is primarily improving the functioning of the organization itself.
2. An organization can develop a system of self-renewal which promotes adaption to change and improved goal achievement.
3. OD is based upon a systems approach emphasizing the wholeness of the organization and the interrelatedness of its component subsystems: human, structured, technological and task.
4. The main concern of OD is the human social system of the organization rather than the task, technology or structure dimensions.
5. OD seeks to stimulate organization self-renewal by changing behavior of people in the organization in significant ways through education.
6. The concept of learning-by-doing applied to organizational life is the basis for learning in OD.
7. OD is applied to an organization in order to deal with existing, pressing problems.
8. OD is a planned, systematic effort toward change.
9. OD is characterized by the participation of a change agent who has a specific role, especially in the early stages of the change effort.
10. OD incorporates the support and involvement of top-level administration, working in partnership with all levels of personnel in the organization.[3]

With an understanding of the characteristics of organization development, Hentschel[4] suggested four facilitating factors in the change process. Adaptation of these factors relative to district wide planned change would reveal the following suggestions for superintendents.

• Create a favorable attitude toward change within the system.
• Direct efforts toward the felt needs of the personnel.
• Provide for continuing input into the decision-making process and on-going support for the process and change.
• Develop a system for rewarding the successful adoption of change.

The importance of personnel attitude and involvement are apparent from these thoughts. However, other writers in the field of organization development do not focus so narrowly upon the personnel function of the organization. For example, organizational change is said to take place only when there is an alteration of **more than one** of the following aspects of the organization: (1) tasks, (2) structure, (3) technology, or (4) people.[5] Implied within this concept is an interdependence of these dimensions of the organization. For effective growth of the organization, a change of a singular dimension is inadequate.

General strategies for effecting change among the dimensions of the organization have been grouped into three major categories. The first grouping, empirical-rational strategies, accepts the fundamental assumption that man is rational and will follow rational self-interest. A change is proposed by a person or a group and the change will be adopted if it can be rationally justified.

The second group of strategies for change is labeled normative-re-educative. Change, according to this view, will occur only as persons involved in the organization change their norms of acceptance or expectation and adopt new norms. In other words, they are no longer satisfied with current standards and thus seek new and improved sstandards.

The third group of strategies for change is based upon the application of power in some form. The process is simply the compliance of those with less power to the expectations of those with more power.[6]

These overview thoughts of organization development were presented as a conceptual base for the purposes of underscoring the significance of applying the behavioral sciences in the development of in-service programming and emphasizing a systematic, organization-wide model for implementing change. The following section focuses upon the integration of the concepts of organization development into a model for staff development of principles.

A Model for Principal In-service

A review of the literature of change revealed that recent experience in bringing about change in organizations has tended to indicate that the process, or change strategy, is more important than the identification of product or change desired.[7] A basic position regarding staff development should be that efforts to change educational practice should emphasize **how** change might occur, rather than the more traditional approach of emphasizing **what** should be changed. Therefore, initial focus of the Model for Principal In-service should be upon the strategy or process. As previously mentioned, three general groupings of organization development strategies have been identified. Of these three, the normative re-educative strategy holds the greatest promise for education.

The normative re-educative strategy deals directly with individual and group attitudinal change. Owens and Steinhoff view this strategy as promising because of evidence that an organization can be changed as a secondary outcome by the normative re-educative changes to the basic unit in the system—the individual person. Growth of the individuals comprising the organization enhances the ability of the organization to adapt to the ever-changing demands from society. To implement a normative re-educative strategy, careful attention must be given to the organizational setting. A setting which promotes collaboration rather than competition between people in the organization, which brings conflict into the open so it can be discussed, and which encourages people to find satisfaction in their work suggests an organizational environment somewhat different from the conventional hierarchial bureaucracy. This strategy suggests a new pattern of administration that will help to keep people growing rather than keeping them in their place.[3]

The traditional approach of in-service education is not adequate to promote the normative re-educative model being proposed. Conventional in-service programs have merely reinforced the hierarchial patterns of organizations and done little to promote a significant feeling of worth among the members of the organization.

The thrust of the proposed model is to develop new

standards of behavior in the organization's social system. Owens and Steinhoff indicate:

These standards will emphasize openness in dealing with conflict, cooperation instead of competition, and an environment that encourages creativity and adaptation to change in contrast to the traditional bureaucratic concept of maintaining existing procedures and awaiting orders from the hierarchy. Such a process can change an organization's basic character from seeking to maintain a status quo to seeking to meet changing conditions in a dynamic fashion.[4]

Based upon the normative re-educative strategies of organization development, the proposed model for principal development would include the following:

1. Participation by all principals in the training experiences.
2. Initial training experiences covering the areas of communication skills, goals identification, conflict resolution, problem solving and decision making.
3. Identification of personal and group·goals for the training experiences.
4. Identification of specific changes relative to the goals.
5. Identification and implementation of activities relative to the desired changes and goals.
6. Members observe the changes in behavior and in the system in order that the changes can be discussed.
7. Commitments of on-going utilization of changes and feedback are made as appropriate, i.e. adoption of changes throughout the organization.

Theory Into Practice

Over the years, education has devoted little effort to in-service specifically designed for administrators. Advanced graduate work and resultant administrative certification have generally been viewed as the culmination of preparation for administration. Considering the continual changes in education, and administration specifically, this phenomena promotes a hastened path toward professional obsolescence which is indeed unfortunate for the administrator, the teacher, the community and, in particular, the student. The cruciality of translating a model for principal development from theory into practice is evident.

The importance of involving all principals in the training experiences is integral to the concept of OD as a system-wide effort for change. The group will be involved in growth experiences which should lead to a better understanding and application of communication skills, conflict management, problem solving and decision making. In reality, some participants will embark upon group experience with cynicism and distrust, others will be ambivalent and others will be open and receptive to the potential of growth. Therefore, the superintendent must establish a positive frame of reference within which the process of principal development can occur.

In addition to the establishment of a positive climate for principal development, the superintendent can enhance the chances for a successful organizational development program in several specific ways. From the group process activities in the early stages of the model, specific goals, changes or areas of concern will begin to evolve. Methods of addressing these concerns must also be identified. The superintendent has an obligation to support and assist in the efforts to deal with the concerns. The superintendent can also provide feedback to the principals as they implement changes.

The superintendent can further enhance the process by encouraging supportiveness by the board of education. Adoption by the board of a professional development policy can lend both psychological and financial support to professional development. Such policies would (1) correlate in-service growth requirements to salary increments, (2) stress a district-wide, systematic processes for in-service, (3) establish budgetary support of the concept of principal development, and (4) state criteria for acceptable completion of principal development objectives.

Two other decisions relative to principal development must be made by the superintendent and/or the board of education. **When** will the in-service activities occur? Will there be additional **compensation** for participation in the activities? For teacher in-service, these two issues have typically been clear cut, often associated with negotiated agreements. For administrators the superintendent and the board may be more reluctant to provide released time and additional compensation. Principals are considered part of the management team, are usually on extended contracts, and generally earn more money than teachers. Extra time and compensation are volatile issues to be dealt with carefully.

Evaluation of the planned organizational change **process** and **results** is also a task for superintendent's involvement. The superintendent's assessment should be based upon principle, as well as total organization growth. Dimensions such as teacher and student growth and building and district organization climate should be considered.

Conclusion

Let us assume for a moment that numerous traditional in-service programs were implemented for the principals of a given district. Individual principals demonstrated obvious personal growth within the confines of a staid district organization. Those principals soon became impatient with the current organization and sought new organizations which provided challenge and stimulation.

This scenario may not be as unrealistic as might be assumed. Do we not continually witness the quest of new challenge by administrators who feel they have "outgrown" their current setting. Would a district which emphasizes personal development within the context of organization development face the same problem? Would not a planned, systematic district-wide approach to change be more likely to promote personal as well as organizational growth?

The phoenix rose from the ashes with the renewed vigor of youth. To expect the same phenomenal ascention among principals would be unrealistic. Yet reality, however accurate, is in the eye of the beholder. Motivation and self-esteem of the faculty and students are interrelated. Enhancement of job skills leads to enhancement of self-perceived ability, which enhances self-esteem, which enhances learning environment. If the principal is to be the educational leader of our schools, and the person most responsible for establishing the learning environment, then logic dictates that efforts be made in the area of principal professional development.

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3. Owens, pp. 100-109.

4. Doe Hentschel, "Change Theory Applied to In-service Education," **Planning and Changing,** Volume 8, Number 2, Summer 1977. pp. 104-6.

5. Owens, p. 22.

6. For a thorough discussion of change strategies, see Warren G. Bennis, **et. al., The Planning of Change,** Third Edition, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976). Chapter One.

7. Weldon Beckner, "Better In-service Education for Principals of Smaller Schools," Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, February 2-6, 1979, Houston, Texas. (ED 172-428). p. 3.

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There appears to be a natural interfacing between curriculum and organization development activities

Exploring the techniques

By Eddy J. Van Meter

Some meaningful and not altogether artificial distinctions can be drawn between curriculum development and organization development activities in school settings. Essentially, and without belaboring definitions at this point, curriculum development activities tend to focus around specific curricular or instructional changes, modifications or improvements being considered for implementation. The major agenda in curriculum development efforts is thus to either improve the existing curricular or instructional program, typically through some form of modification, or to identify and then introduce totally new curricular or instructional content or processes that will better meet student needs. Organization development activities, on the other hand, are usually directed to improving organizational processes such as decision-making, problem-solving, goal setting, conflict resolution, and communications within organized work settings.[1]

There appears to be a natural interfacing possible between curriculum and organization development activities which to this point in time has not really been articulated adequately nor examined. This interfacing involves the systematic use of organization development approaches to facilitate the process issues which arise at specific junctures in a typical curriculum development sequence. This suggested interfacing is perhaps made more clear and explicit as it is presented in **Figure 1** below.

Obviously it is not enough to say that organization development approaches should be used to facilitate particular human interactive process issues which arise during curriculum development efforts. It is necessary to train and prepare appropriate school personnel to use organization development techniques. Thus staff development specifically focused on teaching school personnel to employ organization development strategies is an indispensable part of the interface.

Following the line of thought of Rogers,[2] Guba,[3] and others writing more recently about the normal sequence that takes place in the adoption of innovations,[4] it is reasonable to view most curriculum development efforts as involving a similar sequence of events. This five-stage sequence, which begins with awareness and moves toward final adoption,[5] reproduces the pattern of events that are typical of many curriculum development efforts.

Figure 1
Organization Development and Curriculum
Development Interface

Appropriate OD Activities	**Curriculum Development Sequence**
1. Diagnostic activities; survey-feedback activities; process consultation	1. AWARENESS: recognition of curricular need
2. Survey-feedback activities; process consultation	2. INTEREST: specific needs identified and alternative solutions examined
3. Planning and goal-setting; survey-feedback activities; intergroup activities	3. EVALUATION: determination of designated solution suitability and design of a plan for implementation
4. Team-building activities; process consultation; education and training	4. TRIAL: solution piloted on a small scale
5. Coaching and counseling; process consultation; education and training; structural activities; life and career planning	5. ADOPTION: solution implemented on a more comprehensive basis

First is an awareness of some possible curricular need. This, in turn, is followed by a period of more involved interest at which time the need is specified in greater detail and some possible alternative ways of meeting the need are examined. A decision and evaluation phase follows wherein a determination is made of what specific modification or change is to be tried, how suitable the change might really be, and how the change might actually be implemented. The new curricular or instructional change is then tried on a limited basis, with adjustments made as needed, and when those involved are satisfied the change is meeting the needs set forth at the outset reasonably well adoption on a more complete and comprehensive basis takes place. The interfacing of organization development activities within this sequence involves the use, at each of the five stages noted, of appropriate OD activities that have the potential to assist in clarifying and working through process issues which may arise at each stage.

In looking at organization development activities that might be appropriate to each stage of the curriculum development sequence, French and Bell's identification of twelve separate "families" of OD approaches provides a useful classification system from which to work. They make distinctions among:

Diagnostic Activities: fact-finding activities designed to ascertain the state of the system, the status of a problem, the 'way things are.'

Team-Building Activities: activities designed to enhance the effective operation of system teams. They may relate to task issues, such as the way things are done, the needed skills to accomplish tasks, the resource allocations necessary for task accomplishment; or they may relate to the nature and quality of the relationships between the team members or between members and the leader.

Intergroup Activities: activities designed to improve effectiveness of interdependent groups. They focus on joint activities and the output of the groups considered as a single system rather than as two subsystems.

Survey-Feedback Activities: related to and similar to the diagnostic activities already mentioned. However, they are important enough in their own right to be considered separately, and are more than diagnostic in the sense that feedback is provided in some manner.

Education and Training Activities: activities designed to improve skills, abilities, and knowledge of individuals.

Technostructural or Structural Activities: activities designed to improve the effectiveness of the technical or structural conditions impacting on individuals or groups. The activities may take the form of experimenting with new organization structures, or devising new ways to bring technical resources to bear on problems.

Process Consultation Activities: activities on the part of the consultant which help the client to perceive, understand and act upon process events which occur in the client organizational setting.

Grid Organization Development Activities: activities developed and franchised by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, which constitute a six-phase change model involving the total organization. The model starts with upgrading individual managers' skills and leadership abilities, moves to team-improvement activities and then on to other planning and assessment activities.

Third-Party Peacemaking Activities: activities conducted by a skilled consultant (the third party) which are designed to help two members of an organization better manage interpersonal conflicts.

Coaching and Counseling Activities: activities that entail the consultant or other organization members working with individuals to help them define learning goals, learn how others see their behavior, learn new modes of behavior to see if these help to achieve their goals better.

Life and Career Planning Activities: activities that enable individuals to focus on their life and career objectives and how they might go about achieving them.

Planning and Goal Setting Activities: activities that include planning and goal setting experiences, utilizing problem solving models, ideal versus real organization discrepancy models, and the like.[4]

One or two examples of the suggested curriculum and organization development interface can help to explicate the idea in more detail. Suppose, for example, we look at the "interest" phase of the curriculum development sequence. During this phase members of the school staff (perhaps a department staff or a curriculum committee) are attempting to define the specific curriculum need and are looking at alternative ways potentially to meet this need. The kind of process issues that emerge at this point include a concern for obtaining information and feedback from other teachers about the definition of need as it is being finalized by the group. Also there are occasions during this phase when members of the working group, whether departmental or committee, have disagreements about the curricular need in question, about procedures being used to identify alternative responses to the need, and about the intended meanings of individuals during the course of the ongoing discussion. The organization development approaches and activities identified under the headings of survey-feedback and process consultation are designed to be used in just such situations! To cite an additional example, suppose we take the case of the "adoption phase of the curriculum development sequence. Here the situation is one in which after some preliminary testing of the curricular modification or change, and trial of the change on a limited basis, the change is to be implemented on a more comprehensive basis. The kind of process issues that emerge here include the necessity of providing some form of new training for teachers who will be involved with the change, educating other teachers in the school about the potential implications of the change, and working with teachers involved in the change on new behavior on their part that might be called for because of the change. Those organization development activities identified under the heading of both education and training, and coaching and counseling speak to these issues.

The role of staff development in the curriculum and organization development interface is rather straightforward. It is necessary, prior to the initiation of any particular curriculum development or improvement sequence to prepare someone, or several people, to do specific organization development activities as they are needed to

facilitate the curriculum development effort. That is, it is necessary to train a person or a cadre of people to do OD work. These individuals must be provided with the skills necessary to intervene at appropriate points and do a diagnostic activity, a team-building activity, or any other needed OD activity that will help move the curriculum development work group toward the accomplishment of their tasks and ultimate goal.

Logistically, the staff development needed to supplement the organization and curriculum development interface can be done in a number of ways. Perhaps an ideal format is to introduce a comprehensive OD-related staff development program at the beginning of a school year for a select number of school district staff including those most likely to be involved with subsequent curriculum development efforts. Under this format by the end of the year a group of staff members would have acquired OD skills as a result of participating in a planned staff development program specifically directed to that end. Obviously, however, the ideal is not always the practical in the real world of day-to-day school operations! Another approach to the staff development needed, therefore, is to combine the OD-related staff development program with the curriculum development effort. Here the intent would be to prepare selected staff members to acquire those OD skills that are most likely to be needed at each phase of the curriculum development sequence in advance of reaching that phase, but in a time frame that coincides with the curriculum development effort. Thus, staff development relating to those OD activities which would most likely be needed during the awareness phase of the curriculum development sequence would be provided first. Skills needed to do OD activities relating to the interest phase would follow, as would in order skills needed for the evaluation, trial and adoption phases. The important feature of this alternative, of course, is to have the staff development planned in such a way that anticipated OD skills are addressed prior to the time they are most likely to be needed. Under such a format the staff development program and the curriculum development effort could be initiated during the same semester or school year.

An important final feature of the curriculum and organization development interface that should perhaps be mentioned is the need to familiarize those individuals involved with the effort about the use of the interface concept, and to do so at the outset of the effort. Thus, by creating an increased awareness on the part of the teachers involved concerning the methodologies and expected outcomes of organization development, it is possible to structure the curriculum development effort in such a way that the use of OD process activities are a natural, expected and built-in part of the overall developmental effort.

NOTES

1. The literature on organization development both within and outside the context of educational settings is already voluminous. A reasonable overview of OD may be obtained, however, from several recent publications including the Schmuck, Runkel, Arends and Arends text **The Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools** (Mayfield Publishing, 1977), Edgar F. Huse's **Organization Development and Change** (West Publishing Company, 1975), and from **Organizational Development: Values, Process and Technology** by Margulies and Raia (McGraw-Hill, 1972). More current publications of interest relating to OD include W. Warner Burke's 1976 article "Organization Development in Transition" in **The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science** (Vol. 12, No. 1), Steinhoff and Owens article in the October, 1976 issue of the **Journal of Educational Administration** entitled "Problems Related to Techniques for Assessing Organization Development and Determining Intervention Style," Milstein and Smith's article "The Shifting Nature of OD Contracts: A Case Study," in Vol. 15 of the **Journal of Applied Behavioral Science** (1979), and Burke's edited volume **Current Issues and Strategies in Organization Development** (Human Sciences Press, 1977).

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Efforts need to be intensified for the new teacher

Staff development: A practitioner's reaction

By James M. Langford

While working as a junior high school classroom teacher for 16 years, the author has had a few positive experiences with staff development programs initiated by school districts in which he was employed. A few unexaggerated, personal examples of these experiences, illustrating how the administration of these districts have viewed the observation, evaluation, and in-service education aspects of the staff development process, follow:

three years with no in-service education activities, no observations of teaching, and only one conference which was called to warn the author against being in a classroom alone with a female student and against smoking in public;

three more years during which there were no planned in-service activities and where two observations took place which resulted in conferences called only for the purpose of having the author sign the evaluation form without comment from either teacher or administrator;

an observation which never took place because the students were involved in a laboratory activity when the principal entered the room so the principal left with the words, "I'll be back when you're teaching";

an observation which resulted in an evaluation form left in the teacher's mailbox over summer vacation with the author's "signature" affixed to it by a school secretary;

an evaluation conference during which the only "suggestion" by the administrator was that the teacher had been three minutes late to class one day during the year and should improve his punctuality; and

one (in 16 years) building-wide, released time, on-site in-service education attempt conducted by university faculty which was so totally out of touch with teachers' needs and so poorly planned that it resulted in a revolt by most of the school staff who refused to attend sessions beyond the initial meeting.

A working definition of "staff development" needs to be made to provide some common ground of understanding between the writer and the reader. Staff development is **not**

(1) classroom observation culminated by completed evaluation forms,

(2) perfunctory administrator-teacher conferences where no specific suggestions for improvement are offered by either party,

(3) in-service education activities handed down by a benevolent administration to it's ungrateful teachers, although in-service education can be a part of staff development, or

(4) enrollment by a teacher in college classes to increase salary or renew certification.

Staff development **is**

(1) a cooperative effort by teachers, curriculum supervisors, and administrators to develop a planned approach to the continual improvement of instruction through effective in-service education programs,

(2) observation of teaching followed by supervisory conferences, the most important function of which is "promotion of the teacher's growth in effective instruction" and in which the secondary function is evaluation.[1]

(3) the availability and use of past and current research on the instructional process and materials related to curriculum development and implementation, and

(4) the availability and use of the hardware and skills necessary for the process of teacher self-assessment.[2]

In-service Education

A school district typically schedules a certain number of days for paid in-service training (rarely more than two or three). The variety of programs offered teachers is rich but the quality is usually the same—poor. The consensus of most articles by curriculum specialists is that in-service training is in trouble. Houston and Freiberg liken in-service programs to "perpetual motion machines—they attempt to get something for nothing.[3] Ryor stated that "in-service education has been in ill health for a long time"[4] and Dillon has assessed teacher attitude when she

42

observed that "in-service education in the past has been perceived as only slightly more palatable (and necessary) than death and taxes."[5]

Given that problems exist with in-service education, what are some of the reasons?

(1) Research studies have shown that successful in-service education has been planned with the active input of the teachers it is designed to serve.[3, 6]

It is much more efficient for administrators to plan and organize in-service programs but to do so usually dooms the enterprise to failure. There is a risk to the administrator in giving teachers too much freedom in choosing and planning their own in-service but to fail to give teachers that opportunity, administrators assume the even greater risk of staff revolt. The disastrous in-service effort described in the introduction to this article was planned by a small committee of teachers picked by the administration. That committee was quite unrepresentative of the majority of the faculty. In that instance, the administration was afraid to risk free teacher input and suffered a faculty schism which never healed. Research on learning shows that our students learn best if they actively participate in the planning of instruction. Teachers, as students, are not different from their younger pupils. It seems strange that school people can apply the lessons of educational psychology in their classrooms but forget those lessons when it comes to in-service education. Ryor translated these lessons to in-service education when he commented that "teachers learn best and accomplish more when they are involved in deciding what and how they learn."[4]

(2) In-service education must be specific to the needs of the teachers to be served and be problem oriented.

Programs which are designed only to provide services, job maintenance, or personal development, but are not oriented to solving problems "are not pertinent to the problems faced by teachers and principals."[7] The experience and observation of the author has been that the topics chosen for in-service education programs have frequently had little, if any, connection with the self-perceived needs of teachers. While personal development workshops have a place, one was rejected by teachers in a school which was ridden with problems created by recent court-ordered desegregation and an influx of non-English speaking refugees. At the same time, science teachers in that school were trying to implement a new self-paced, individualized curriculum and were at the management "Level of Use of the Innovation."[8] Their prime concern was how to manage equipment and supplies, not in how to be a better person. No effort was made to address these immediate concerns of those teachers. Since the primary stress of in-service education should be that which leads most effectively to pupil learning, any objective beyond that of increasing learning is beyond the scope of school sponsored in-service education.

(3) In-service education must be part of an on-going, interrelated process.

The one-shot workshop has been shown to be ineffective in implementing change in teachers.[9] Teachers who spend one or two days on a topic will welcome the relief from their regular classroom duties but will return to their class, pick up where they left off, and continue teaching in the manner they did prior to the in-service effort. In-service activities need to be planned over a period of time to enable teachers to utilize the ideas presented

and return to the training with feedback from actual use in a real situation. A model for this type of training is found in the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) short courses offered throughout the country for college teachers. Participating teachers attend a week or more of training, return to their regular classes to work on a project which is an outgrowth of the training, then return to the training program a few months later to complete the training with the practical knowledge gained in their own situation and to share their experiences with fellow participants. The AAAS courses require a period of time between the first and second sessions due to the distance participants must travel, but a similar program in a school or district could schedule on-going feedback through regular sessions prior to the conclusion of the program. This type of in-service training could follow the model presented by Joyce and Showers which combines "theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching to application" of the training to each situation.[10]

(4) In-service education should take place at a time and location that are convenient for teachers and are conducive to learning.

The Florida Department of Education study reported no differences in gain in teacher knowledge between school-based and college-based in-service programs; however, school-based programs reportedly fared better in improving attitudes of teachers.[8] Dillon also claims that a program which occurs "closest to the classroom is seen as most helpful and is accepted best."[5] In spite of what the public thinks, a teacher's day is long and hard. The teacher will harbor an a priori resentment toward any program which requires travel to some distant and unfamiliar location for training. Teachers are comfortable in their own building, feel secure there, and are more apt to be receptive to a program held on home ground. On the other hand, teachers tend to develop a sense of territorial rights to their school and providers of in-service programs need to be wary of the appearance of usurping these rights.

The after-school in-service experience is doomed to failure. Teachers are tired, have a pile of papers to grade, and want to get home to fix the basement ceiling or just relax. Time for in-service education must be provided which does not infringe on the teachers' personal lives and that enables teachers to come to the sessions without pressures from regular duties being foremost in mind. This seems to necessitate time scheduled within the regular school year, on weekdays, for which teachers are paid. During a very recent summer school class for teachers, the problem was posed as to how to get teachers to attend in-service training workshops to implement a new statewide program. The unanimous response from the class was: "Pay them." Pay alone will not make a program successful if other factors are not conducive to acceptance of ideas by teachers, but it should, at least, get the teachers to the watering trough—whether or not they drink the water depends on how palatable it is.

(5) In-service education must be provided by individuals who are knowledgeable of the real needs and problems of teachers.

Neither building and central office administrators nor college education faculty normally meet this criterion. School administrators are not trained to provide this type of assistance. Their training and concerns are in the areas of finance, organization, and relationships with school

clientele. Their idea of what goes on behind the closed door of the classroom is limited to far too few visitations and reports from a variety of biased sources. Their knowledge of subject content is limited to their own discipline and few have had training in instructional theory and methodology. Faculty of education have the knowledge of curriculum and instruction but rarely have the opportunity to gain first-hand knowledge of the practical instructional demands presented by today's students, curricula, and school systems. This sounds like a worn out cliche but, in the experience of the writer, is still frequently true.

Who then is best suited to provide in-service education for teachers? The answer is simply, other teachers. A colleague who has had training and experience with the topic at hand is more likely to be well received by teachers than an outsider, which both administrators and college faculty are perceived to be. Kersch referred to an elementary teacher who "described the professor as a 'stranger' coming to work with a cohesive staff, well known to each other."[1] The appropriate in-service role for college education faculty is to provide training and background for teacher-leaders who can modify this training in light of the practicalities of teaching in a particular school and return to those schools to provide appropriate experiences for colleagues. This type of teacher-leader training could consist of the content of the training to be presented plus techniques for providing the training. As long as administrators are, or are perceived to be, line officers in a judgmental administrative hierarchy, they will not be able to serve as teacher-leaders for instructional improvement.

College teachers are provided the opportunity of attending regional and national meetings for instructional improvement. Local and state conferences of "professional" organizations such as NEA or AFT rarely emphasize the improvement of instruction. The membership of these organizations is so broad that it would be difficult for them to do so. Instead, those issues which affect all teachers are generally addressed—typically those dealing with working conditions. Although membership in such organizations as the American Association of Physics Teachers (AAPT) and the National Reading Association (NRA) are open to pre-college teachers, attendance at the meetings is generally limited to college personnel. Meetings of AAPT which the author has attended provided a forum and informal discussions with peers and curriculum leaders. School districts should make provision for attendance by teachers at these meetings and should encourage active participation. The expense to the districts could be large but the benefit through better and more creative teaching should make the expense worthwhile.

(6) **In-service education must be presented at a level appropriate to the target population and in a variety of styles.**

Another lesson from learning theory which is often forgotten in in-service efforts is that human beings possess a variety of learning styles and that the most effective instruction is geared to the individual. Some teachers delight in group activities and function well in them. Other teachers would gain more from a lecture by an informed specialist or by reading a set of materials provided for them. Of course, some teachers refuse to learn from any method but there are students like that too.

An elementary teacher recently told the author that she wished she could have more instruction in physics content but that the last in-service activity she attended in that area was conducted by a Ph.D. theoretical physicist and she did not understand a word he said. She expressed a desire for some training that did not make her feel "like an imbecile." On the other hand, highly knowledgeable and skillful teachers are often subjected to in-service activities more properly suited for use with pre-school children. Individualizing in-service education is no easier than providing for the individual differences in an eighth-grade classroom, but teacher/educators and school administrators need to attempt to "practice what they preach."

Observation/Conferencing/Evaluation

Although the author is certified as a junior or senior high school principal, his training for that certification provided no knowledge of classroom observation techniques or instruments. If experience is an indication of truth, neither did the education of any supervisors with whom the author has worked. The classroom observation has generally been for the sole purpose of using some arbitrary scale to rate the teacher on four or five general items such as "instructional techniques."

When an administrator goes from one room to another without pencil or paper and observes five or six teachers in a day, one wonders how much specific information the administrator has to form the basis of an evaluation. When a teacher is rated "excellent" on instructional techniques or classroom management, the teacher needs to know specifically what the observer considered excellent and what the teacher might have done differently to improve learning by the students. Teachers need specific information such as how questioning technique was perceived, did the teacher stand too aloof from the class, did the teacher give students enough time to answer questions, and so on. The conscientious teacher is able to gather much of this information through self-assessment practices but the supervisory conference should provide an independent measure of these generic skills. With the kind of specific information mentioned, a teacher and supervisor could have a meaningful conference after an observation rather than one like the all-to-frequent example given by Hunter:

"You're a fine teacher; I've marked you outstanding in every category. Sign right here and tell me about your summer vacation plans." "Thank you, you're a mighty nice principal too; we're thinking of a motor trip to Canada."[1]

The conference which follows an observation or, preferably, observations must be more than an opportunity to smile, sign a form, and engage in idle chit-chat. It needs to be a truly "supervisory conference," the purpose of which is to improve instruction and thereby increase learning. Hunter's description of six types of conferences is an excellent prescription for making a frequently meaningless exercise into a useful endeavor beneficial to all—administrator, teacher, and student. The conference can be a valuable experience whereby the teacher is able to identify positive teaching behaviors as well as negative ones. Subjective self-evaluation often results in erroneous conceptions so a supervisory conference with true two-way communication can provide for a more objective approach. After appropriate and inappropriate teaching behaviors have been identified through the

conference, the teacher should be able to work with the supervisor to develop a plan to maintain the former and modify or eliminate the latter. It is here that most building principals would not have the training to be of much help. For that reason, it is urged that these observations and supervisory conferences be conducted by curriculum and instruction specialists rather than by building administrators and/or superintendents. Principals in small school districts without curriculum and instruction specialists should take it upon themselves, through their own professional development program, to become skillful in classroom observation and the supervisory conference. ference.

The failure of most teacher-principal conferences does not lie only with the administrator. Classroom teachers do not understand the nature or purpose of the conference either. Teachers generally enter such a conference "in fear and trembling." Doubt about this can be resolved by visiting any teachers' lounge prior to an upcoming teacher-principal conference. Many otherwise calm and collected teachers exhibit a nearly pathological fear of the conference with the principal. It would seem that this fear should dissipate given the innocuous nature of most conferences but it does not. Pre-service teacher education must also teach about observation instruments and techniques, how and why they are used, the research base behind them, and how they are useful for instructional improvement. Defensiveness against any suggestion for improvement must somehow be countered by pre-service training if the new teacher is to establish a teacher-supervisor relationship which leads to instructional improvement.

One of the stumbling blocks that prevents supervisory conferences from resulting in instructional improvement is the dual role of the principal as instructional leader and administrative evaluator. ASCD recently published a report of a committee on "Roles and Responsibilities of Supervisors" in which the recommendation was made that supervision be divided into two distinct roles: consultative and administrative.[12] Ness, a member of that committee, strongly dissents from that recommendation,[13] but the view expressed by the committee is the one which has been held by the author for some time. As long as the principal, or other administrator, is the person responsible for the dismissal of teachers, conferences between that administrator and teachers will continue to be superficial. Ideally, that should not have to be the case but is a fact of life. For this reason, the functions of administration and that of instructional improvement should be separated wherever possible. The supervisor in charge of instructional improvement should have no connection whatever with the evaluation of teachers for salary or tenure purposes. This might require two sets of observations—one from an instructional supervisor and one from an administrator—but this duplication of effort could result in greatly improved teaching by creating supervisory conferences which really result in change.

Self-directed Professional Development

The most powerful tool for instructional improvement lies in equipping all teachers with skills in self-assessment. Teacher self-assessment practices are the topic of another article so will not be discussed in detail here.[14] The classroom teacher with thorough grounding in the theory and practice of self-assessment will be able to

effect much instructional improvement independently, will be able to enter the supervisory conference with knowledge and understanding of what it is all about, and will serve as a role model for colleagues to improve the instructional climate of the whole school.

In order for teachers to engage in self-assessment, the school district has a responsibility to provide for training, hardware, and time for the effort. Teacher self-assessment is an excellent topic for in-service education with the hope that some of the threat from external evaluation could be removed. Video cameras, recorders, and monitors should be available for use by teachers to examine their own teaching. Sufficient time should be included in the teachers' professional day to make use of self-assessment practices. Schools or districts should provide an up-to-date professional library which includes educational research journals, content journals, curriculum projects, and recent books on topics relevant to the improvement of instruction.

The New Teacher

Providing help for the new teacher is probably one of the most important aspects of an adequate staff development program. It was previously indicated that the best in-service education comes from fellow teachers. Unfortunately, many new teachers are assigned the worst teaching schedule, given three coaching and "extracurricular" assignments, and then left to their own devices to "sink or swim." Every new teacher should be assigned to a master teacher for help and counseling and given a limited teaching schedule for the first year of teaching. Observations and supervisory conferences of the type suggested in this article should be frequent and supportive. Professional development and instructional improvement would then be seen as an on-going function of the teaching process from the first day in the classroom and would cease to be reserved for that terrifying 20 minutes of observation and five minutes of evaluation conferencing.

Conclusion

Staff development is a complex mix of activities which requires the involvement of university faculty, school administrators, curriculum and instruction specialists, and classroom teachers. This article suggests that university faculty exercise their expertise in the training of teacher-leaders who, in turn, will extend this training to their colleagues in the schools. Selection of the content of such in-service training should be made by those teachers who will receive it. With real teacher input, in-service training programs would better meet the needs of teachers than would programs designed by school administrators and/or university members without reference to such input. The in-service training programs thus developed would comprise an on-going learning process for teachers and not be limited to a series of unrelated ad hoc experiences. For the in-service effort to be effective, it needs to be available during paid school days with teachers released from their usual duties. It is the responsibility of school administrators to make provisions for such training and to serve in a capacity which is supportive of the effort but not demanding of it.

In-service education is not the sole answer to effective staff development. Teachers should have the opportunity to interact freely and frequently with curriculum and instructional supervisors in non-threatening super-

visory conferences, the major purpose of which is to increase learning through improved instruction.. These conferences lose much of their efficacy if conducted with a supervisor responsible for administrative personnel decisions or with a supervisor not well grounded in observation techniques, instructional theory, and teaching methodologies. Teachers also need to be instructed as to the nature and purpose of these supervisory conferences if they are to take maximum advantage of them.

The most effective way to improve instruction is through a self-directed approach to instructional improvement. Administrators, curriculum and instruction specialists, and university personnel need to assist teachers in gaining the skills necessary, to provide appropriate hardware and publications, and to make the time available for teachers to engage in the self assessment process. It is suggested that training in the use of this process could be a valuable part of in-service education.

Finally, staff development efforts need to be intensified for the new teacher. Pre-service teacher education can not be expected to produce a highly effective teacher in just four academic years and a few weeks of student teaching. A helpful, supportive, staff development effort from the first day on the job should provide all teachers with the impetus to continually strive for instructional improvement throughout their careers.

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Constantly changing hats, educators must be mindful of improvement

Vocational teachers and staff development

By Thomas O. Harris

Today's vocational education instructor must possess the qualities of leadership, human relations, public relations, resourcefulness, the desire to teach and enthusiasm, just to name a few. Constantly changing hats, the vocational instructor must be ever mindful of personal development in all these areas, not to mention the ever present process of updating in the technical speciality, the effects of computer technology, new legislation, etc. In other words, staff development is a big job for the vocational classroom teacher.

The classroom teacher is the focal point of staff development. This is what it is all about, making the classroom teacher more efficient. In the final analysis, it is the teacher who decides what to teach, what in-service courses to take, what professional association to join, what a professional development plan will consist of; no one else can do it for the teacher. It cannot be taken for granted that the vocational instructor knows how to do these things. A college degree, a workshop or a few courses does not guarantee that the new vocational instructor can do anything. But, when that teacher makes the decision to do something about becoming a good teacher, then there is a starting place.

Professional in Every Sense

Masterful vocational teachers must be highly competent in their field of expertise, but they must be more than that.

Vocational teachers must possess pedagogical competence, i.e., competence in the art and science of teaching. A teacher who is highly knowledgeable and skilled in his or her technical area, but who does not possess a high level of pedagogical competence is fulfilling only part of the prerequisites for a good teacher. A teacher must be both technically and pedagogically **competent.**[1]

The efficient and effective vocational instructor strives to become a professional in every sense of the word.

Professionals are prepared.

They do not think that lesson plans, for example, are a waste of time. They realize that, "those who fail to prepare, prepare to fail," and that the preparation must be done by themselves. They soon realize that those college courses of analysis, methods of teaching, preparation of instructional materials and student evaluation all come together in the lesson plan.

Professionals do not punch clocks.

The professional teacher does not beat the students out the door at quitting time. The teacher is getting ready for tomorrow, and next week, and next year. The teacher puts in as much time as is necessary to do a good job, realizing that some of that time may be known as "free time" to others. The professional teacher's job is done when the job is done.

Professionals make it better.

The true professional is eager to find a better way. When a better way is found, tested, and compared, it is written about for all to read. The professional associations are constantly seeking articles for publication in their journals which are written by classroom teachers. As a consequence, everybody benefits.

Professionals are current.

Vocational instructors realize that the minute they step out of industry and into the classroom, the ease with which they maintain their knowledge of the technical specialty is vastly diminished. University workshops, industry-sponsored seminars, special return-to-work contracts all speak distinctly to this problem. The professional vocational instructor subscribes to trade journals, gains access to various house organizations and is actively involved in local, state, and national professional organizations for the purpose of keeping updated.

Professionals are creative.

Every vocational instructor sooner or later realizes that everything they want will not be available in their classroom or laboratory. These teachers learn to be resourceful and creative in order to do a good job of teaching. In the parlance of the street, it is called "scrounging." We all do it . . . we've had to in order to survive. Some teachers are just better at it than others. Resourcefulness is the ability to make do with what is available. If that is not good enough, creativity comes into play and the effective teacher makes it better.

Community-Oriented

Professional vocational instructors are community-oriented. They are aware that the local school system is a highly coordinated function of the entire community. These teachers assist the community and the community assists them. Many instructors promote community involvement for their students by means of the vocational student organizations (VSO). Most of the VSO's now have some type of program which integrates the VSO activity into the curriculum and makes the two virtually impossible to separate. These VSO activities almost always include a certain amount of involvement in the activities of the community. Such things as ushering at civic events, helping with the American Dental Education Week, promoting safety in the home and workplace, working on firearm safety projects, participating in drug abuse programs, developing career days at elementary schools, and working with handicapped children are a few of the growing list of activities.

The teacher educators support the efforts of the local instructor by sowing the seeds of the VSO into the professional courses at the university and creating an involvement-attitude among the would be teachers by using the involvement method (or role-playing method) in their own classes. The innovation methods creating involvement in the learning process have allowed students to learn and have fun at the same time.

Today's vocational educator is also rediscovering the little-known fact that they do not have to do all the teaching in their class. Because the VSO's encourage public speaking, the vocational instructors are beginning to let the students do some of the lecture/demonstration activities in class. Of course, the teacher must do a little extra work to make it all come out right in the end. For example, the teacher could assign the topic, show the student how to research it, illustrate how to write a speech outline, model how to give the demonstration and describe how to remain poised in front of a group. Then the teacher, after discussing the evaluation process, could have the class critique the presentation. Since all students would be giving presentations and be critiqued sometime during the year, they will quickly learn to look for areas needing improvement and provide constructive criticism. Does this process sound familiar? Sounds a lot like judging a speaking contest doesn't it? The procedure is exactly the same and is an excellent teaching tool.

The VSO's also encourage a basic knowledge of parliamentary procedure. Many instructors, not only vocational instructors, throw up their hands when those "nasty" words "parliamentary procedure" are used. What these teachers fail to realize is that they have been using the process of parliamentary procedure, ever since they were youngsters. However, they just didn't call it parliamentary procedure; rather they called it "rules and regulations." Parliamentary procedure is nothing more than a set of rules by which a group (class) conducts its business. Once the student and/or instructor master the terminology, they quickly see the reasons behind the process. For example, when the instructor requires the students to raise their hands and be recognized before speaking, it is the same as "gaining recognition from the chair" in parliamentary language. Once the relationship is understood, the whole process becomes simple. This knowledge carries over into adult life and is useful in many situations. As a consequence, the whole community benefits from better meetings . . . civic, social and educational.

Conclusion

Staff development is ultimately the responsibility of the vocational classroom teacher. Commitment, diligence, creativity and community-oriented strategies earmark quality staff development activities necessary for effective vocational educators.

The rewards of self-directed professional development in vocational education were very aptly summarized by Miller and Rose in 1975:

One of the most satisfying experiences a person can have is to know that through their efforts someone has become more competent, developed a better self image, become a better human being and more useful as a citizen. Through the application of your skill as an instructor you can bring new opportunities to others.[2]

FOOTNOTES

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Educational associations can have a positive impact in school districts

The case of the North Central Association

By Edward Brainard

Each year hundreds of educators are involved in school improvement activities organized in concert with a state committee of an accrediting association. For example, in Colorado alone about 600 educators annually serve schools as members of visiting resource teams. Under the auspices of the Colorado State Committee of the North Central Association (NCA) of Colleges and Schools, these teams are at schools to serve in a helping relationship and to share ideas about improved programs and services for students. In addition, about 2,800 faculty members in schools throughout Colorado are conducting school self-studies each year to analyze the quality of education for their students. These annual efforts represent not only an extensive state-wide self-help program, but wide-ranging program evaluation and school improvement endeavors.

Of interest here, however, are these significant questions: To what extent do self-studies, visiting teams, and follow-up activities of individual schools and districts contribute to the purposes of staff development? And, what are some practical ways in which schools and districts might use these activities to foster staff development programs? It is these questions that this article addresses.

In contrast to in-service and teacher education, staff development is an advancement in the approach to professional development and improvement. The focus of staff development is on school or institutional, as well as individual improvement. In the field of staff development long-term growth potentials are important. Furthermore, effective staff development means the involvement of a school's faculty, or at least a portion of the staff, on school improvement projects.[1]

A school's faculty working together over a period of time on school improvements is a major component of an effective staff development program. In Colorado and elsewhere, the North Central Association exists to provide schools with two services: school improvement-evaluation services and accreditation services. With an interest in these two concepts, the NCA is simply an association of schools that have joined together for the purpose of assisting each other to improve and to maintain basic standards.

It is within the NCA school improvement-evaluation thrusts that major staff development components exist. Essentially, there are three aspects of this process. These are:

1. The school's self-study of its services, opportunities, and programs for its students.
2. The opportunity for a school's faculty and community to gain the assistance and perspectives of a visiting resource team of able educators from other schools serving in a helping relationship.
3. School implementation of important ideas and improvements gained through this process.

With special reference to staff development, each of these three phases is discussed below.

School Self-Study.

In their self-study the school completes, over at least a six month period, a substantial assessment of its educational programs and services. Typically, parents and students are also involved. In conducting the self-study, the school's faculty develops recommendations for themselves concerning program improvement and staff development. A variety of different procedures and materials are available to schools for conducting self-studies.

The program developed by the Arvada (Colorado) High School is typical. It illustrates the concept of staff development reported at the outset of this article. A description follows:

Using some different ways of attacking the school self-study, Arvada High School is now in the midst of preparing a school improvement program.

"We feel our approach is unique because we will identify areas in which we will be able to make improvements. We also have a theme for our study: 'School ... the total learning environment'," said George Bethel, Principal.

"We're directing all our efforts towards school improvement, but we are picking areas which are important to us, and areas in which it is realistic to believe we can make improvements," Bethel said.

As an example, Bethel said, the Jefferson County curriculum is effectively designed and thoroughly developed, and one which we called good. Therefore, the thrust of his group will be on implementing that curriculum rather than changes in the curriculum itself.

It might also be unrealistic to expect to make changes such as building structure. Accordingly, Bethel said his group hopes to not take time to study

that area of concern.

To kick off their program, Bethel and nine staff members will take one full day for a retreat. Meeting at the home of one of the steering committee members, the group will put it's plans into the final stages, dealing with guidelines for involving the community, determining how to best involve the whole staff, and setting time lines and target dates. The group will also consider the composition of the visiting team it will request.

They expect their study to uncover areas of concern in their high school, including organizational climate and social settings.

To assist in its preparations, the group attended the February 8 Colorado NCA workshops sponsored by Jefferson County Public Schools.

Tentative plans call for the Arvada school to use this spring, 1980, semester for a self-study, with the target date for finishing it sometime in June. "We hope for a visiting team to come here in November. That way we can complete the study and hopefully implement suggestions and see some change and improvement by the end of the 1980-81 school year," Bethel said.[2]

As illustrated above, it is within the self-study phase that extensive opportunities exist for staff leadership. Initially a faculty steering committee is organized to guide a school's self-study. The leadership development opportunities of the committee members and chairperson are extensive. Listed below are some of the leadership responsibilities of the chairperson. The chairperson, working with the principal and the steering committee

- —Defines the decision making processes of the committee.
- —Determines the method for identifying the members of the committee.
- —Assists in the selection of the chairperson of the visiting resource team.
- —Serves as a liaison with the principal and the steering committee.

In 1980 the Colorado State Committee of the NCA conducted an "Impact Study" involving each of the 54 middle, junior high, and senior high schools hosting Colorado NCA visiting resource teams from September 1977 through November 1979. In this study a principal and a teacher in each of these schools responded to a series of survey items. Two of the questions and the results regarding school self-studies follow:

Question: How valuable was the most recent self-study to your school?

	Percent
Not valuable	0
Somewhat valuable	15
Valuable	50
Very valuable	35
	100

Question: In regard to the school self-study, how much respect and confidence do you have in its ability to deal with practical school problems?

	Percent
No confidence	0
Some confidence	19
Confidence	62
Great confidence	19
	100

In addition to the traditional approach, other designs are possible for an individual school conducting a self-study. Colorado school districts which have used a K-12 approach in their self-studies include: Greeley, Eaton, Poudre, and Lamar. In addition to program articulation, a unique staff development dimension of this approach concerns the organization of self-study committees of faculty members from several schools. A brief description of this approach follows:

A K-12 self-study is now being conducted in the Greeley Public Schools mathematics program. Greeley mathematics educators headed by Gary Steward and Merle Smith, math coordinators, are conducting the self-study.

Dean Pedersen, Director of Curriculum Services for the Poudre School District, will chair the resource team which will visit the schools April 7-11. Pedersen, who said he views resource team projects as visits, not inspections, said he sees as the real value of the self-study, "the fact that it causes a school district to sit down and really see where it's been and where it's going. I see the self-study as the most valuable aspect of it, with the visiting team providing extra insight," he said.

Adriadne (Dee) Gazewood, math specialist, Norghlenn-Thorton School District, will be associate chairperson on the mathematics study.

Virginia Way, on leave from School District 50 in Westminster, while she works on her doctorate, will be chairperson of a science visiting team of 12 at Greeley Public Schools April 21-25.

"I look forward to this study as a highlight of my career," said Way who expects the visiting team to focus on giving staff members feedback on their self-evaluation. Way said this type of K-12 evaluation in science has not been done before, and she sees the similarities between the size and suburban location of her district and those of the Greeley district as helpful during the study.

Greeley science coordinators Jean Krause and Richard Hodge are heading the self-study.[3]

The various dimensions of a faculty engaging in an examination of its programs for students as well as organizing recommendations for improvements represent a ready-made staff development vehicle. The accomplishment of such an endeavor necessitates the use of varied leadership skills on the part of the faculty and the principal. In districts with organized staff development programs, it is this writer's experience that staff developers, typically, are not involved in assisting schools that are using this process. Assistance to schools conducting self-studies and using the resulting improvement ideas could be a significant aspect of a district's staff development program. Workshops and other learning activities on such aspects as leadership skills for faculty chairpersons and effective processes for developing school improvement ideas through the self-study procedure represent a few of the means through which staff development could be implemented.

Assistance from visiting resource teams.

The service to the school of a visiting resource team represents the second major phase. A visiting committee of educators from other schools reviews the school's assessment of its programs and provides additional ideas in the form of recommendations as well as commendations. The team members consist of colleagues from throughout a state who assist the school in a team relationship by providing low or no cost curriculum improvement ideas.

School idea implementation.

The last phase of implementation, concerns follow-up activities through which the school considers recommendations gained from the school's self-study and the visiting resource team.

The opportunities extended each year to educators throughout Colorado and other states to serve on NCA visiting resource teams represents a district and unique staff development opportunity. Except for this type of endeavor few educators have an opportunity to study (in depth) another school in another district. According to the **1980 Impact Study of the Colorado NCA State Committee**, this staff development opportunity is rated as highly valuable. In this study the principal and a teacher in each of 54 middle, junior high, and senior high schools hosting visiting teams from September 1977 through November 1979 were asked these two questions about serving on a Colorado NCA visiting resource team. The questions and results follow:

Question: Of what value has your participation on a visiting resource team been to your school?

	Percent
Not valuable	0
Somewhat valuable	11
Valuable	37
Highly valuable	52
	100

Question: How would you rate your experience as a visiting resource team member as it relates to your professional growth?

	Percent
Not valuable	0
Somewhat valuable	0
Valuable	29
Highly valuable	71
	100

In the same study, questions were also asked about the value of a visiting resource team to the school hosting the team as an aspect of its school improvement-evaluation program. Two of the questions and results for each follow:

Question: How valuable were the most recent services of the visiting resource team to your school?

	Percent
Not valuable	2
Somewhat valuable	23
Valuable	53
Very valuable	22
	100

Question: In regard to the services of the visiting resource team, how much confidence do you have in its ability to deal with practical school problems?

	Percent
No confidence	2
Some confidence	27
Confidence	59
Great confidence	12
	100

Members of visiting resource teams represent a unique mixture of persons associated with public education. For example, the yearly data collected on Colorado NCA visiting resource teams indicates that about seven of every 10 team members are classroom teachers. The remaining members, approximately 30 percent, represent principals, assistant principals, faculty in higher education, the state education department personnel, school district level educators and administrators, board members of cooperative services, members of boards of education and citizens on committees. In addition, each team consists of persons from a number of different school districts.

Given the above information about visiting resource teams, service on such a group represents a distinct staff development opportunity. An educator with an assigned responsibility for his/her district's staff development program should not overlook the opportunity to include service on visiting resource teams as a formal aspect of the district's professional development endeavor. In addition, the visiting resource team program, which exists in most stages, has possibilities to assist a district in achieving specialized purposes. For example, many districts have curriculum development teams of educators scheduled each summer. Prior to becoming a part of a curriculum writing team, it would be important to encourage members of the curriculum team serve on varied NCA visiting teams to schools in other districts. In data previously reported, such service is valuable for gaining ideas and observing actual curriculum in practice.

Schools can design the type of visiting resource team most needed to enhance their school improvement-evaluation program. At least three types of teams are possible:

— The visiting resource team is the most common design. The essential purpose of this team is that of colleagues helping colleagues through the sharing of practical school improvement ideas. Through this helping relationship, the visiting team shares ideas and practices and provides largely low or no cost school improvement. (Depending on the size of the school, such teams generally consist of from 12 to 22 members.)

— An audit team merely reviews the self-study for completeness and accuracy. (Such teams consist of from four to six members.)

— A recommendations team works with the school in developing plans for achieving many of the priorities and recommendations emerging from the institutional self-study.

Different visitation schedules for teams also exist. Some of the designs that have been used by Colorado schools and districts include the traditional model consisting of about three days; e.g. the visiting resource team is at the school from late afternoon on a Monday through noon on a Thursday. This is the traditional model consisting of about three days.

The latter four examples provide a visiting resource team more time for reflective thinking:

—The team is at the school for one day, another day about a month later, and for approximately two days another month later.

—The team is at the school for about two days and for another 1½ days approximately four months later.

—The team is at the school for about two days and for another 1½ days, two weeks later.

—A small team of from four to six members visits the school periodically over an 18-month period of time.

Another phase of the NCA School Improvement-Evaluation Program is follow-up or implementation. The follow-up phase includes using the ideas, typically in the form of recommendations, gained by a school from its self-study and visiting resource team. Again, a major component of this phase is staff development. Here is a description of a typical program of one school:

The most crucial part of the NCA school improvement-evaluation process, according to Morris Ververs, principal at Big Sandy High School in Simla, is follow-up. It's the stage when the school involved gets the recommendations of the visiting resource team, puts them with the school's own recommendations, and takes action.

At that point, Ververs said, the school doing the study must organize the two sets of recommendations, decide on a plan of action, and then set a timeline for making improvements.

Big Sandy High School, with 108 students in grades 9-12, is now getting ready to implement recommendations gleaned from a self-study that started a year ago. Additionally, the school hosted a visiting resource team in October.

To make sure the school carries through with the improvement process, Ververs said his group is putting all the accepted suggestions on a large master sheet, along with a timeline, names of those responsible for the improvement action, and a check list to keep track of progress. "The master sheet will stay up until the end of the process," Ververs said.

"I've been here through two NCA evaluations," said Ververs. For the most recent study, with the Colorado NCA orientation gained by the school, the process was tailor-made, Ververs said.

"The faculty is enthusiastic," he added. We spent a lot of time on the idea of the resource team helping us to better our program, and the hard work has paid off."

Gary Miller, Superintendent, Manitou Springs District 14, was chairperson of the visiting resource team. Superintendent at Big Sandy School District is Richard Ullom.[4]

In all, activities conducted by schools in relation to accrediting associations can have a positive impact on the advancement of education within a school and school district. These activities can also be a significant aspect of an effective program of staff development.

FOOTNOTES

1. Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller. **Staff Development: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives.** New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1979, p. ix.

2. "Retreat will Kick off Arvada Study," **Colorado NCA,** Vol. IV (February 1980), p. 1.

3. "Greeley District Takes on Broad K-12 Studies," **Colorado NCA,** Vol. IV (February 1980), p. 3.

4. "Follow-up is Crucial Principal Notes," **Colorado NCA,** Vol. IV (February 1980), p. 2.

Wise and prudent use can lead to a better development program

Effective use of consultants

By J. Harvey Littrell

If the role of the outside consultant is defined and perceived properly by instructional leaders and teachers in a school system, then this person can be an effective addition to a staff development program. To insure that such a condition exists, the administrator has several important tasks to accomplish. The administrator needs to know when to use outside consultants, how to select them, and how to work with them.

The thesis stated above is not new. A review of texts[1] on instructional supervision published more than 10 years ago revealed that most texts discussed the outside consultant's role in facilitating instructional improvement. There was general consensus that the outside consultant's role was to help the school community make decisions. For a staff development program these decisions would be concerned with goals for the program, feasible means for accomplishing these goals, ways of evaluating both the processes used and the products accomplished; and finally, ways for revising programs, if needed, to better reach the goals.

More recent texts[2] on instructional improvement make little or no mention of the outside consultant. Therefore, recent graduates in school administration, curriculum, or supervision may not be aware of the functions of the outside consultant, nor of the proper use of these individuals. Lack of such knowledge can lead to frustrated program participants, waste of school district funds, and unsatisfactory staff development procedures.

The steps administrators should follow in selecting and utilizing outside consultants in a staff development program are outlined in Figure 1. For each step, the major tasks to be performed by the administrator have been delineated. Clarification of these steps and tasks follows:

Step 1. Determination of Need.

Every staff development program requires that the school community involved in the program be aware of the philosophical and psychological implications of such a program. Participants also need to benefit from the knowledge gained from the latest research on instructional improvement. Teachers and administrators should be aware of the current trends and techniques in instructional improvement and the ramifications of these trends. The administrator must decide whether or not the expertise to provide such information is available in the local school community.

If such assistance locally is nonexistent, then an outside consultant will be needed. However, if there are individuals on the local staff who have the needed knowledge, then the administrator must decide whether these staff members can communicate effectively with other staff members. The desire to utilize local staff members as program leaders to save money or to hurry the process, may lead to ineffectiveness or collapse of the program. Local staff members may consider the leadership of a staff development program as "extra work" and therefore not plan adequately the necessary processes. They may allow their regular duties to have first priority, and the staff development program suffers.

It is unfortunate, but probably true, that, "A prophet is without honor in his own country." In other words, it is possible that an outside consultant will receive more attention and respect than a local person. Other considerations which must be made by the administrator are: Do we need the objective viewpoints of an outside consultant? Will such a person have the organizational experiences we will need? Is there a motivational problem which can be better resolved by an outsider? Will we need more than one consultant to meet our needs adequately?

Step 2. Interview and Select the Prospective Consultant.

The usual sources for outside consultants employed to assist in staff development programs are state departments of education, national subject area organizations and faculties of colleges of education. Administrators should not overlook two other sources for consultants for staff development programs:

(1) Classroom teachers who have established reputations as excellent instructional leaders; and (2) employees of industry, particularly personnel officials. Teachers who have successfully employed various staff development techniques in their own classrooms have a credibility which is convincing to teachers. Industry employees have valuable motivational schemes or ideas for organization which can be adapted for use in schools. Their ideas may create enthusiasm and/or orderly manner of procedure in the program.

Before selecting outside consultants, the administrator should ascertain answers to the following questions:

1. Does the person consider the consultant's role to be that in which the consultant identifies problems and gives solutions, or one in which the consultant helps others to identify and arrive at solutions? If the latter role does not seem to be the consultant's perception, then look elsewhere for help.

2. Is this person familiar with the local school community, or willing to become familiar with it prior to the service? If the prospective consultant fails to ask for information about the community or does not suggest meetings or correspondence for the purpose of becoming familiar with the situation, then proceed with caution. Such an individual probably is not interested in the specific situation and probably has a "canned" program used in all situations.

3. Has this person demonstrated a knowledge of staff development procedures through publication and/or successfully conducted workshops? Ask for such evidence. If none is available, then try to determine whether the prospective consultant has developed unpublished materials which have been carefully devised and are worthy of a trial.

Step 3. Initial Meeting of the Instructional Leaders with the Consultant.

A major task of the administrator is to hold a conference with the outside consultant(s) chosen to help with the staff development program for the purpose of defining exactly what role each one is to have in the program. Research findings indicate that when administrators and consultants agree on the preferred role of each, the consultant was rated high; when there was disagreement, the consultant was rated low. In other words, if there is a complete understanding of roles, the chances for a better program will be enhanced.[3]

Prior to the start of the development program, the administrator should also arrange for the consultant to meet with all of the instructional leaders who will be involved in the program. In addition to the superintendent, these leaders are usually principals, curriculum coordinators, special supervisors and head teachers. If the school has a faculty committee working on program plans, then the consultant should also have an opportunity to meet with them. During these meetings, plans for the procedures to be followed should be discussed. These plans should include activities used to motivate, instruct, and evaluate. Roles should be assigned. The instructional leaders and the consultant should know their exact responsibilities and the responsibilities of others.

During these meetings the consultant's role must be carefully explained. It must be understood that it is not the consultant's role to tell people, but to help people. Misunderstanding of the consultant's role is not unusual. If the consultant is perceived as giving too much information or advice, then the consultant is rejected by the participants. If the participants perceive the consultant as not making much input, then they feel the individual has not earned his pay. Unhappiness with "highly paid" consultants is not unusual. All of the instructional leaders can help such a situation from occurring by understanding the role of the consultant and helping teachers to understand the consultant's role also.

A decision must be made and agreed upon by the administrator and consultant concerning the length of time needed for planning the staff development program. The administrator knows the financial support which can be given, and the consultant should be knowledgeable about the length of time needed for accomplishing certain planning tasks. At this time it may be necessary to modify the program to stay within the funds allocated for the project. It is better to make modifications in the project at this time rather than have to terminate the program before completing tasks which have been started.

The administrator should also have the consultant assist the instructional leaders in making decisions about the types of subcommittee chairpersons.[4] The roles of members of the various faculty subcommittees should be specified prior to the selection of the members.

The tasks in Step 3 are vital to the success of the staff development program. Time and effort spent in making wise decisions in Step 3 will make the tasks in the remaining steps much easier to accomplish.

Step 4. Meetings of Consultant and Staff.

The administrator and the instructional leaders of the school must demonstrate to the faculty members that they believe staff development is important. There are two ways they can accomplish this task:

(1) By positive comments to faculty members concerning the processes and products of the work sessions; and (2) through their attendance at the work sessions. If the administrators and instructional leaders show evidence of negative attitudes, then teachers will tend to be negative. Not all aspects of the program will be equally pleasing to all participants. Leaders, therefore, must accent the positive aspects and try to get changes made to eliminate the negative aspects during the planning sessions. If administrators and other instructional leaders do not attend meetings, they are communicating to the faculty that the program is not as important to them as other tasks which await in their offices.

In Step 3, the consultant should plan with the administrator and instructional leaders for the first meeting of all participants. A similar meeting attended by the consultant, administrator, instructional leaders and faculty committee members **should be held prior to each meeting or work session** of the faculty. Items of business similar to those in Step 3 will comprise the agenda for these subsequent meetings.

Step 5. Evaluation of the Process and Products of the Work Sessions.

Evaluation of the processes should be an on-going activity. If Step 4 is followed, then an opportunity is afforded not only to plan meetings, but to discuss revisions which need to be made and to review the extent to which all participants are fulfilling their roles. During these sessions both positive and negative criticisms of the process and products should be considered carefully. Decisions should be made which will lead to improvement or to continued success in the processes. Instructional leaders and faculty committee members should be attuned to comments from faculty members. Evaluation forms can also be devised and given to faculty members to complete. If these are anonymous, then a more valid assessment may be made of faculty attitudes than if the forms are signed.

The products of the staff development program must be evaluated also. However, the evaluation of a product should not take place immediately after a work session. When participants have worked for a long period of time on a product, it is difficult to be objective in viewing the product. A "cooling off" period after a work session would be preferable before faculty are asked to evaluate a product.

Step 6. Operation of the Staff Development Program.

Failure to make operational the plans which teachers develop is the one factor most frustrating to teachers. It discourages them from future participation in programs for curriculum development, instructional improvement or staff development. It is imperative that administrators

54

STEPS	ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS
STEP 1: Determination of Need	a. Determine, if possible, the background information needed for the program. b. Assess available local talent for planning and directing the program. c. Decide whether or not an outside consultant will bring more objective viewpoints than local personnel. d. Decide whether or not an outside consultant will be better able to motivate the participants than would a local person.
STEP 2: Interview and Select the Prospective Consultant	a. Determine the best source for obtaining outside consultants. b. Through correspondence or telephone conversations assess the prospective consultant's (a) interest in the program and (b) view of the consultant's role. c. Ask for evidence of the prospective consultant's expertise. d. Have complete understanding concerning the payment of fees and expenses. e. Based on information obtained, select the consultant.
STEP 3: Initial Meeting of Instructional Leaders with the Consultant	a. Arange a meeting of the local instructional leaders and the selected consultant. b. Clarify the roles of all participants in the program. c. Ask the consultant to outline the proposed procedures to follow in developing the program. d. Negotiate procedures, frequency of meetings with the staff, time span for development, selection of subcommittee chairpersons. e. Prior to the first meeting of consultants and staff, the administrator should make certain that all participants understand the roles played by all participants.
STEP 4: Meetings, or Work Sessions, of Consultant and Staff	a. Local instructional leaders and administrators show interest in the program by attending all work sessions of the staff and consultants. b. Prior to each meeting or work session, the administrator and instructional leaders should plan with the consultant the procedures which will be followed during the sessions.
STEP 5: Evaluation of Process and Products of the Work Sessions	a. All participants should have input into the evaluation procedures, either individually or through representatives. b. The work of the consultant should be evaluated periodically by instructional leaders and staff members. c. Instructional leaders and staff members should have periodic self-evaluations. d. The instructional leaders and consultants should use the periodic evaluations as means for improving procedures. e. Faculty and instructional leaders should evaluate the final product (the staff development program) after it has been operative for a period of time.
STEP 6: Operation of the Staff Development Program	a. Local administrators and instructional leaders must be certain that the staff development program is used by the staff members. b. Keep consultants informed of the successes and/or failures of various aspects of the program.

assure teachers that the programs they have produced will be used. He must make certain that he and other instructional leaders have developed organizational plans, secured the finances and selected the personnel necessary to make the staff development program operational.

The consultant should not be neglected. The consultant who has performed his role in a professional manner has a vested interest in the program's operation. Therefore, administrators should keep the consultant informed of the progress being made by the participants as

the staff development program is implemented.

Conclusion.

Administrators and other instructional leaders have very specific steps to follow and tasks to perform in using a consultant for staff development programs. Consultants can be helpful and extremely valuable, but only if the administrator knows when to use them, how to select them and how to work with them. The success or failure of the program which is developed will probably depend upon the extent to which the steps and tasks for using consultants are followed.

FOOTNOTES

1. Texts authored by Douglas, Bent, Boardman; Harrison; Harris; Gwynn
2. Texts authored by Lucio and McNeill; Wiles and Bon; Oliva; Alfonso
3. Harris, Ben M., **Supervisory Behavior in Education**, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliff, N.J., 1963, p. 433.
4. Littrell, J. Harvey, "A Research-based Technique for Selecting Chairpersons," **NASSP Bulletin**, April, 1978, pp. 24-28.

Schools must learn to deal with dynamics of educational change

Surfacing teacher perceptions

By John Carlin and Robert E. Scott

Change is characteristic of our time. This characteristic demands that individuals and institutions deal effectively with change if they are to survive and flourish. The problems related to change are particularly acute for organizations serving the general public. These organizations are designed to respond to the needs of their publics and these needs are changing so fundamentally and rapidly that new structures, services and delivery systems are constantly demanded. The various educational systems serving the general public are certainly prime examples of organizations experiencing such demands related to change.

At the present time it is fair to say that local school systems are under attack. Put simply, taxpayers are demanding more and better quality services for their money. Therefore, alert local school systems are determinedly looking for effective ways to change their structures, services and delivery systems to meet the changing and expanding needs of their clients. Given this situation, schools must learn to deal more effectively with the demands for educational change.

Needs and Needs Assessment

In planning for change, an important first step is the identification of needs. A "need" can be defined as the measurable discrepancy (gap) between current outcomes (what is) and desired or required outcomes (what should be) (Kaufman, 1972). This definition underlies most of the needs assessment models currently in use.

With a "need" thus defined, a "needs assessment" can be described as a process designed to determine (1) a desired or required situation in the area being assessed, (2) the present or real situation, and (3) a priority ranking of the kinds and degree of discrepancies between (1) and (2) (Witkin, 1975; English and Kaufman, 1975).

Given this structure, a major task for model and process builders is to design activities and strategies which insure that the product or products of each stage of the needs assessment are as accurate and valid as possible. Moreover, while it is important the product be an accurate picture of current needs, it is equally important that a majority of those who will actively implement the change effort perceive the end product (identified needs) to be accurate. This point is crucial and often overlooked or underestimated by many educational planners.

Perceived Needs

In a review of over 100 empirical studies of change completed since 1970, Paul (1977, p. 46) was able to generalize that "recognition of school needs and congruence of the change program with needs facilitates change." The studies reviewed showed need recognition to be the first step toward successful change and school improvement. Furthermore, the same studies indicated that the change should address the perceived needs of teachers. Conversely, if teachers do not perceive the need for a change then successful implementation is doubtful. Paul is supported by Rockafellow (1975) who, in commenting on strategy selection for change in local school districts, stresses that for successful change members of the social system affected should recognize the need for change and participate in a needs assessment activity as a means to that end. Similarly, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) reported research data clearly indicating that change agent success is positively related to the degree to which the innovation (change) is compatable with the felt needs of clients.

For those who participate in the needs assessment to perceive the identified needs as accurate is important because a needs assessment does not exist in a vacuum. It is only a part of the larger change process. This larger process is best observed when needs surfaced in the assessment process are perceived as representing the real situation by a majority who comprise the system to be changed.

To speak of needs assessment as the starting point in planning for change and to stress the need for those actively involved in change to participate in the needs identification process may seem obvious to many; however, Baldridge (Baldridge and Deal, 1975, p. 14) remarked, "To mention the requirement for careful needs assessment seems ridiculous. After all, is not all change preceded by such analysis? Unfortunately, this is not always the case." In fact, innumerable educational change efforts have taken place without a needs assessment or with a needs assessment which did not meet the criteria defined earlier. Often the results have been disastrous.

Perhaps an example may help clarify this point. Take the case of the superintendent who attends an educational convention and observes a K-12 individualized mathematics program being showcased. The presenter reports statistics which indicate that students scored significantly better in mathematics than in the past, student self-concept improved and the teachers learned

new classroom management skills. Returning to his home district, the superintendent distributes awareness information from the project and announces that the district will attempt to adopt the program the following school year.

Granting, for sake of the example, that the program lives up to it's claims and can be replicated with similar results. It is easy to predict that there will be a great deal of resistance from the teachers. The reason is clear. They were not involved in the decision to make the change.

The resistance is likely to be greatest if the majority of the teachers perceive mathematics as an area of strength and the curriculum, in general, to be adequate. Resistance will still be strong if mathematics is perceived as an area of concern, but there is a strong feeling that career education is the top need for the students of the district. Successful adoption and implementation of the program could still be in question even if the teachers perceived mathematics as the area of greatest need and have no real objection to a program of individualized instruction, but have not been involved in identifying the need or in selecting the solution.

Needs Assessment and the Process of Change

Common sense and experience with this type of resistance to change are supported by numerous research findings over many years and in every kind of setting. In their classic study on the communication of innovations, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) offered a simple, yet quite useful approach to understanding the relationship of needs and needs assessment to the change process. Two factors are involved in this analysis: recognition of need and origin of the new idea (innovation). Each of these factors can originate either internal or external to the system undergoing change, (i.e., the need can be recognized by members of the social system or by someone outside the system and the new idea or practice may originate inside or outside the system undergoing change).

Four types of change as described by Rogers and Shoemaker from the interrelationship of these possibilities.

Imminent change occurs when members of a system identify their own needs and design their own programs or changes to meet their needs. Selective contact change occurs when members of a system identify their own needs and adopt a change appropriate to their needs designed outside the system. Induced imminent change occurs when sources outside the system identify or impose a need and those internal to the system design the appropriate change. Directed contact change occurs when both the need and the change come to the system from outside.

Changes which tend to be effective, easily internalized and require the least amount of supervision result from imminent change. The next most effective source is selective contact change, followed by induced imminent change, with directed contact change or mandated change generally yielding the least productive results overall. Since imminent and selective contact change each include internal need recognition by the system undergoing change, the analysis suggests that needs assessment is an important step in a successful change process.

Strategies

So far a great deal has been written concerning what ought to be done and very little about how to do it. Before offering a description of a simple needs assessment process meeting the above criteria, some discussion of the central strategies or techniques involved is required and necessary.

It has been suggested that all teachers involved in the implementation of educational change need to be involved in the first step of planning for change, that is, the needs assessment. It has also been suggested that it is crucial for the majority of teachers to perceive that the identified needs are accurate. If this is the case, certain techniques or strategies are necessary, within the framework of the needs assessment process, to surface the perceptions of all participants and enable the group as a whole to reach some agreement on the relative importance of these perceptions. In the needs assessment process suggested below, two central strategies are employed—participation and consensus decision making.

In a summary of research data on the adoption of organizational change, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971, p. 3) observed that "Perhaps the most important element in the decision function is the degree to which the adopting unit participates in decision-making." Therefore, needs assessment process design must provide for effective participation throughout the entire process. The term "effective participation" must be stressed, because inappropriate and unplanned participation can be as ruinous to a change effort as effective participation can be helpful or enabling.

There is some ambivalence about participation in the literature, even in Organizational Development literature where participation is almost a byword. Writers in this field observe dangers in "participation" or "participative management," but stress that, "A major route to increased organizational effectiveness is through creating conditions under which organization members can make larger contributions to organizational goals," (French and Bell, 1973, p. 72).

After an extensive review of the literature on participation, White and Rhue (1973) reported some ambiguities in research findings on the value and nature of participation citing conflicting studies and failure to replicate results. They found some research indicating that only workers with higher order needs value participation and that many other workers do not value participation. However, in their own studies White and Rhue found employees had a consistently positive reaction between job attitudes and participation in decision-making.

Black and Mouton (1969) stressed the importance of participation, but warned that it is no panacea in and of itself. While participation can create feelings of ownership and thereby effect involvement and commitment, some kinds of participation can be unhealthy. For example, people can be allowed to participate, but their input is ignored, creating further tensions. Participation can take the form of voting to make decisions by majority rule, often alienating the minority. Participation can also take the form of a win/lose confrontation, resulting in a hostile impasse. Finally, participation which is no more than a pooling of ignorance can be less than helpful in making constructive decisions.

Hall (1969) reported that his study involving 400 corporate managers produced data indicating a positive relationship between the amount of participation and

feelings of satisfaction, responsibility and commitment. In other words, people value and tend to support what they help create.

In discussing the trend toward participatory planning in education, Kaplan (1973) observed that as educational systems evolve from closed to more open-ended organizations, effective processes for participatory planning need to be more thoroughly developed and refined. Kaplan also raised concerns about the process of communication, the nature of group dynamics and the quality and use of the data generated.

In the design of the needs assessment process described below, the participative approach was selected as a technique because of its potential to create ownership, resulting in satisfaction, responsibility and commitment to change. The potential for negative effects from participation, as cited in the literature, was judged to be minimal for the following reasons:

(1) teachers were judged to have "higher order needs," (2) input would not be ignored because by design the needs assessment was to be a first stage in a planned change model, (3) a win/win situation was designed into the process, (4) teachers would be pooling expert opinions and information, and (5) voting was specifically avoided and consensus decision-making was adopted at every appropriate stage in the process.

As a second technique, the use of consensus as a decision-making style was employed to produce group decisions concerning perceived needs that most teachers in the group would actively support and which no one would purposely sabotage. Consensus was operationally defined as the condition in a group in which every member is willing to "go along" with the decision, even though it may not be everyone's first choice.

The Process

The following is a needs assessment process designed to surface teacher perceptions of educational needs. It is based on the criteria and strategies described earlier. It is, therefore, a discrepancy model, based on teacher perceptions, using a participative approach with group decisions reached by consensus. The process is designed to be facilitated by an outside change agent(s) and to require one working day for completion.

The process begins with an introduction to set the agenda and indicate the focus of the needs assessment. The first major activity is a warm-up with the total group of participants. This activity can be one selected to either surface general data in the focus area or a skill building activity on consensus decision-making. The warm-up is followed by a brief lecturette on the discrepancy model which is the framework of the needs assessment process.

When the total group size is over 40, it is split into equal size groups with a facilitator for each group. This completed, participants are asked to work as individuals and begin the construction of a discrepancy model by listing personal perceptions of ideal educational outcomes for their school system. Then triads are formed to allow each participant to share verbally individual perceptions of ideal educational outcomes and to have them clarified and understood by all members.

In the next step participants are again asked to work as individuals on the second phase of the discrepancy model by matching their ideal outcome statements with their perceptions of current educational outcomes. Immediately following this activity, participants are in-structed to identify any perceived discrepancies between the ideal outcomes and the current outcomes and translate them into brief need statement. (If the consensus building activity was not used as a warm-up, it should be introduced at this time.)

Small groups (quartets) are now formed and instructed to share their lists of needs and reach consensus on a list of five to seven top needs. On completion of this task, larger groups (of 12) are formed to again share their lists of needs and to reach consensus of a list of eight to 10 top needs. These need statements are clarified, compared and, where possible, combined. The resulting list is then priority-ranked by a process involving the total group. A short debriefing session follows this activity. General comments and feelings are allowed to surface and any necessary clarifications are made.

As a final activity, small groups are formed and instructed to select one of the top 10 needs from the final list. Groups are then asked to indicate their perceptions of major planning steps that will have to be taken in solving the need. This activity is intended to surface preliminary planning data and to identify individual teacher's areas of interest to be used in task force selection for the next phase of the change process. The day is ended with a general debriefing session and an evaluation of the results and the entire process.

This process can be used as part of a comprehensive model involving, parents, patrons and students, however, no data are available on its effectiveness with these groups. It can also be used in isolation when a comprehensive assessment is not undertaken.

A field test of this process with teachers K-12 yielded uniformly high mean scores (7.39 — 8.01 N = 310, on a 9-point scale) on five items designed to determine feelings of personal satisfaction with the amount and degree of participation in the process and feelings of responsibility for need identification, commitment to need solution and quality of needs surfaced. Detailed information on the use of this process is available on request from the Kansas Educational Dissemination Diffusion System, 1847 N. Chautauqua, Wichita, Kansas 67214.

Conclusion

Educators cannot escape the need to change. Change, with its problems and potentialities, is part of our individual and organizational nature. The challenge of change is to confront and solve its problems, to recognize and exploit its potentialities. This can only be accomplished through the application of our knowledge of people—their needs, individual and group behaviors, fears, hopes, abilities—in our efforts to meet the challenge of change. If we set ourselves to this task, we will improve not only the effectiveness of our organizations, but contribute to the growth and maturity of those who constitute them.

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Programs have potential to become integral part of university, or become extinct

Faculty development for higher education

By Delivee L. Wright

The decade of the 1970s might be described in higher education as a period of awakening to the need for expansion and revision of traditional in-service education. This may be a benchmark of one of the most significant changes of attitude in this century for higher education. Typically this in-service movement has been identified in the literature under the broad term of faculty development.

Changing Attitudes

Traditional concepts of college teaching were described in 1950 by Highet in **The Art of Teaching** as an art form growing out of a thorough knowledge of and love for one's field of expertise. This attitude was manifested among college faculties in development programs which emphasized content expertise. Activities supporting this included professional readings, support for travel to content-related professional meetings, conferences with colleagues on research, and sabbaticals for concentrated study.

A quarter of a century later, Eble (1976) proposed a significant change of attitude in **The Craft of Teaching**. He suggested that:

teaching is a craft, and as with any craft one's performance can be bettered by careful attention to detail . . . The center of all teaching and learning is the interaction between the teacher and the learner. The personal cannot and should not be set aside. Information and skills become important as they serve individual and social ends, ends inextricably bound up with our values and our perceptions.

The faculty development movement of the 1970s, which expanded the variety of teaching skills and the institutional approaches for accomplishing this goal, demonstrated that dominant opinion was consistent with Eble's view, i.e., that professors can learn how to improve their teaching. This paper reviews this movement in higher education.

Surveys of Practices

Surveys of faculty development practices in 1960 (Miller & Wilson) and 1969 (Many, Ellis, and Abrams) indicated a "death of well-articulated, comprehensively designed programs." In 1971 Eble reported in the AAUP Project to Improve College Teaching that faculty at 150 schools stated almost unanimously that their institutions did not have effective faculty development programs. Few of the institutions studied had budgets specified for faculty development.

This picture began to change in the early 1970s when Alexander and Yelon reported descriptions of 14 programs for instructional development. Growth in this movement has been gradual, but persistent through the decade. A 1976 survey conducted by Centra reported that over 40 percent of all responding higher education institutions had some kind of development unit, while two-thirds of the reporting universities had them. University offices have also generally been in existence longer than those in two- or four-year colleges and tend to have larger staffs.

Conditions Supporting the Movement

A number of forces influenced the urgency with which faculty development has been addressed. Centra (1976) termed the decrease in faculty mobility resulting from declining rates of growth in higher education as the "steady state condition." As a result of this, institutions could no longer depend upon new staff to help keep institutions vital. Professors could not expect to broaden their own perspectives by changing jobs.

Gaff (1976) cited as another important factor, the large number of middle-aged faculty who were "tenured-in." These professors would be part of the institution for the next 20-30 years. As a result, it was imperative for the health of the institution to maintain the vitality of this group.

In addition, research in education from the 1960s resulted in a great expansion of knowledge about learning and teaching. Increased awareness of conditions promoting learning, motivational factors, communication skills, instructional design and systematic observation contributed to the resources to support improved instruction. Faculty who became aware of these developments often attracted considerable attention with innovations in their classrooms. Colleagues were both skeptical and curious about these departures from the traditional. In some cases, these efforts received national attention from content-centered professional groups. New instructional methods including independent study, self-paced instruction, mediated instruction, experimental learning and interdisciplinary approaches also received

considerable attention.

Changing clientele also has contributed to the need for variety in teaching approaches. Ethnic minorities, first generation college students, and a wide range of adult-aged learners required a new look at classroom practices. Even the typical 18-22 year olds entered college with new characteristics. They often were more traveled and had extensive variety in their secondary school preparations.

Considerable motivation for instructional improvement resulted from rating forms introduced in the late 1960s. Student ratings were most commonly used to provide information for promotion/tenure decisions, to inform other students about the class, and to identify areas for improvement. Colleague and administrative assessments were also collected and used for decisions relating to teacher effectiveness.

A general "disenchantment" with the quality of college instruction had been expressed by students, parents and legislators (Centra, 1976). Pressures resulted in budgetary allocations to support improvement efforts.

New funds to support faculty development programs came from both public and private sources. State legislatures approved budgets for state supported programs. Federal agencies such as the Fund for the Improvement of Post-secondary Education (FIPSE) and the National Institute of Education (NIE) promoted these efforts in developing institutions. Private foundations also focused on faculty development in colleges and through consortia of small colleges.

Faculty Developer as a Professional

One might expect leadership in this movement to come from professional educators, and in many cases it has. However, people attracted to this "newest position in academe" (Gaff, 1976), often came from the faculty ranks and sometimes made a substantial career shift from their content areas. It involved being an internal consultant on teaching/and learning matters and serving as an educational leader in the institution.

Most individuals who entered this field did so with strengths in some areas and deficiencies in others. In some cases, skills in teaching and knowledge about learning and instructional methodology needed to be developed. Others had to improve their abilities in interpersonal communications and processes of change. Abilities for this position demanded a wide array of skills as well as infinite flexibility in work with diverse problems.

The particular background of the developer determined to a large degree the approach taken to improve teaching. A sociologist would perceive different needs than an organization/management specialist; the psychologist would approach problems differently than an instructional designer. Recognizing that the ultimate goal is "to make the profession of college teaching more successful and more satisfying," (Sikes & Barnett, 1977) many routes may be selected by the developer.

New professional associations have been formed for fostering communication among faculty developers. The Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education, the American Educational Research Associations (AERA) Special Interest Group in Faculty Development, and the National Council for Staff, Program and Organizational Development (NSPOD) are examples of new groups which have been formed in the 1970s for the benefit of the new faculty developers. POD emphasizes skills of the practicing faculty developer,

AERA focuses on development of new knowledge about this field, while NSPOD is concerned with this movement in the community and junior colleges.

Annotated bibliographies of books and articles as well as many other resources for faculty development have been summarized in a helpful book, **Professional Development: A Guide to Resources,** by Gaff, Festa & Gaff (1978).

Approaches to FD

Three alternative models or approaches to faculty development represent different foci and goals: personal development, instructional development and organizational development (Gaff, 1976; Berquist & Phillips, 1975).

The conceptual basis for the personal development approach is derived from psychology and sociology. Faculty members themselves are the target audience. Seminars, workshops and retreats are typically used to help them explore attitudes, acquire knowledge and sensitivities, and gain a personal perception of the teaching role—all with the objective of improving relationships with students and colleagues.

Instructional development arises from professional education and emphasizes the improvement of materials and processes to promote learning. Instructional design as well as teaching behaviors and methods receive special emphasis in workshops, seminars and individual consulting activities.

Organizational development emphasizes the creation of an environment within the institution which is conducive to effective teaching and learning. Typical activities include workshops for administrators, team-training, and observation of departmental groups. Concern is for clarifying goals, implementing policies and evaluating results. Organizational theory and group process knowledge are applied in this model.

While these three models form distinctly different conceptual approaches, in actual practice most faculty development programs involve all three. An individual developer will undoubtedly emphasize one model but may incorporate the other two.

Faculty development programs are organized in a variety of settings. Some have been associated with centers for research on teaching in higher education; others with media centers. Campus-wide faculty development centers have been used to develop a systematic, comprehensive, and integrated approach across departmental and college lines. Some colleges within universities have formed resource centers to serve a limited number of faculty more intensely. The consortium center offers resources to small campuses when one institution alone could not support such an effort.

Activities for Faculty Development

Specific activities of individual faculty development centers are varied according to local needs; however, a representative list of activities might include the following:

Newsletters function to provide efficient communication with a large number of faculty. They often include: Articles about teaching, announcements of programs to provide instruction on teaching, recognition for outstanding teaching efforts, suggestions of helpful "how-to" hints, etc.

Workshops, seminars and **retreats** are organized to provide instruction on topics relevant to teaching.

Workshops imply participative application, while seminars may be restricted to discussions or presentations. Retreats are often planned for longer periods of time, two to three days, and are used for more extensive instruction and for moving participants out of roles they assume on the campus.

Individualized consultation is used to work on problems that are important to the faculty member. The consultant can assist faculty in identifying problems, collecting relevant information, analyzing strengths and weaknesses, prescribing alternatives, and reviewing videotapes of classroom instruction. These all are considered in the context of the teacher's own content and specific situation. This activity has potential for both significant impact on teaching programs and for greater satisfaction to the teacher. Course development in which instructional design principles are applied incorporating appropriate instructional technologies can also be achieved by this individualized approach.

Informal Discussion Groups are often organized to promote communication among colleagues about teaching. For example, a monthly luncheon group provides an informal opportunity to test and share ideas. Colleagues who have strong interests in teaching and have applied knowledge about teaching/learning can be excellent models for other faculty. Sharing of projects or ideas of mutual interest contribute to attitudes supportive of teaching.

Resources including books, reprints, bibliographies, papers, videotapes, and self-instructional programs can be used in support of all programs described here. Availability of these materials is essential to an effective program.

Small Grants Programs for faculty teaching projects encourage the implementation of ideas which might not otherwise be possible. These grants can offer small amounts of "risk" money for untried ideas and may even lead to larger grants from external sources. Travel or summer fellowship grants with the purpose of instructional improvement can be part of this activity.

Awards for outstanding teaching are most common at universities. They publicize the institution's commitment to quality instruction and usually carry a monetary award.

Clearinghouse functions related to teaching can be important to generate faculty networks or linkages among those with related needs and interests. They can extend the impact of improvement efforts beyond a limited professional staff.

Faculty advisory committees can not only guide the direction of faculty development efforts, but can encourage participation among colleagues.

Faculty exchange programs and visitations to other institutions can be reasonably low-cost, but useful approaches for broadening perspectives on teaching.

Individual Growth Contracts or long-range professional development plans can be used as effective devices to target appropriate activities in a positive way and on an individual basis for maximum impact in a well-planned sequence.

Toward the Future

The decade of the 1970s has brought a whole new perspective to faculty development in higher education. Attitudes accepting the need for organized programs supporting improvement have encouraged a large number of efforts implemented in a variety of ways. Faculty participation is growing in many programs and they are viewed as important to the institution. In other cases programs have been closed from insufficient funding or lack of faculty and/or administrative support. Many programs are new enough that they are still being tested. The most effective ones will survive.

The next 10 years will offer new challenges to the viable faculty development center. A major task will be to broaden the impact by increasing the participation to a larger percentage of faculty, particularly to those who need improvement. This participation must be incorporated into the institution's rewards system.

The faculty developer will have pressing need for translation of theoretical aspects of teaching and learning into the context of college-level content, students, and professors. Great need for the study of college teaching practices exists now and will become increasingly important with the expansion of the faculty-development movement. Organizational development as well as faculty "career" development will demand greater attention.

Principles of program planning and evaluation must be applied to faculty development centers as well as other institutional units. Analysis of goals and objective consistent with local needs, combined with assessment of realistic outcomes will serve to refine existing programs to optimum effectiveness.

Faculty development may well become a strongly institutionalized resource for faculty or it may fade from the academic scene as a passing idea. This will partly depend on values of faculty and administrators, but more importantly on the leadership with which the program is implemented.

The need has been demonstrated. The raw materials for change exist. Strong leadership and effective programs will be required to shift momentum of an institution steeped in tradition to change.

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Educational Considerations

Book reviews

Bishop provides excellent guide

By Robert E. Scott

Staff Development & Instructional Improvement, by Les-
lee J. Bishop, Allyn & Bacon, Inc., Boston, Mass., 1976,
360 pp. $17.95

This authoritative guide, written by a professor of
education and Director of the Center for Curriculum Im-
provement and Staff Development at the University of
Georgia, is designed to assist the reader in acquiring new
planning and implementing skills for improving in-service
training, staff development and instructional effective-
ness.

The text follows a flow-chart type analysis which is
organized in a functional sequence and is broken down
into six major components. Not to be overlooked, how-
ever, are the excellent appendixes covering such items as
sample needs identification questionnaires, a monitoring
plan for staff development projects, and a superior discus-
sion of representative impact strategies and techniques. A
brief introduction sets the rationale for a higher priority
being given for staff development as it is so desperately
needed in the vast majority of school systems, whether
they be large or small, urban or rural. Such activities do
not just naturally occur, but well-drawn and carefully con-
ceived plans for such development are the most con-
clusive commitment that any school system can exhibit
towards its personnel and their achievements.

(1) The first component covers diagnosing and deter-
mining **needs**, setting priorities and developing ob-
jectives. Although it is not fair to say that any one of the
six components is more important than the others, it is
critical that this step be completed successfully, because
individuals in the past have had a tendency to minimize
this phase of the program by not involving all personnel or
faculty and seeking out as wide a research/data base as
possible. Unless an awareness for change is forthcoming,
all that happens during the following stage will be of no
avail.

(2) The second component, **diagnosis-analysis**, estab-
lishes procedures for good settings, identification of ob-
jectives and production of a table of specifications. Re-
sources, both staff or outside experts, also are identified.

(3) Program **development** deals with selection, com-
mitments, and adoption of the instructional change under
consideration. Different alternative changes also need to
be considered and possibly built in at this point.

(4) **Validation** of the change can be a most exciting
though painful process. Most staffs are usually critical of
the appropriateness of the assessment procedures. But
this component offers an important contribution in iden-
tifying problems as well as determining the impact,
soundness and efficiency of the proposed solutions.

(5) The functions of the **implementation** step is to in-
stall, train and support the change. This demands a full
commitment from the staff, and especially those directly
involved in the new program. This will require full leader-
ship and support from those in authority, such as superin-
tendents, curriculum supervisors, building principals,
boards of education, parents and other members of the
community.

(6) Finally, the formative and summative **evaluation**
procedures that have monitored installation, collected
data, and assessed discrepancies should involve the en-
tire staff in diagnostic, development, research and evalua-
tion activities. As the data are evaluated and communi-
cated, implications for staff review and professional
growth should emerge. As the cycle is completed, the pro-
gram and its staff will mature in their understanding and
performance, due to the fact that all participants and each
educational segment are vital to the process, and each is
held accountable in accordance with his or her responsi-
bility and contributions.

Bishop believes the most credible results will be
evidenced by student learner gain, a more adequate staff,
and better community acceptance. He notes, however,
that such achievement must include process as well as
product modifications.

The author summarized the text best by stating: "We
recognize that education is not merely a building function,
that learning is not exclusive to the school, that teaching
is more than directing and telling, and that in-service, staff
development and instructional improvement are inter-
active processes and not a schedule, a day so-assigned, or
a non-personalized intervention." p.9 This book is an excel-
lent guide that can be of considerable value to anyone in-
terested in the staff development process.

Book a futuristic view for contemporary times

By Stephan L. Stark

Robert J. Shoop. **The Teacher and The Community: A Case Study Approach.** San Diego: Collegiate Publishing, Inc., 1979, 125 pp. $9.95

In **The Teacher and the Community: A Case Approach,** Robert Shoop has written a futuristic textbook for contemporary times. Concerned for the ability of the emerging classroom teacher to cope with the demands of public school education that has truly gone public, the author has written an excellent primer for the professional training of the classroom teacher.

The text is divided into two primary sections. The first deals with an overview of the role of the school and community and the relationship the classroom teacher must now play. Alternative concepts are discussed to bring into focus the role of the teacher and the increasing demand placed on schooling by society. The concept of community education is reviewed as one alternative that may hold the key for integration of the classroom and community. Finally, the first section concludes with a listing of realistic strategies that the teacher can use in order to begin to close the gap between the traditional school and contemporary society. These strategies include the role of volunteers in the classroom, senior citizens in the school as resource persons, nontraditional field trips, home visitations and the teacher as a referral agent to name a few.

Section II gives the student teacher a grouping of 15 case studies in four chapter headings that deal directly with the teacher's role as a professional, a liaison with community, students and the school curriculum. This section is perhaps the greatest strength of the book as it gives the student an exposure to the real world in a learning laboratory where solutions to problems outlined in the case study can be analyzed by peers and professionals with no penalties for poor judgment.

The cases are real and deal truly with the cutting edge issues of what the classroom teacher can expect in today's communities. Insights to these problems and carefully analyzed solutions can be invaluable to the classroom teacher of tommorrow who will have to make on the spot decisions that could very well determine the longevity of that teacher in the highly complex educational system of today. With law suits arriving daily in our courts dealing with teacher's accountability on all phases of educating children, the on the spot decisions made on a daily basis have a greater impact today then ever before in the history of education.

The weaknesses of **The Teacher and the Community** are minor when compared to its strength. The author provides questions for consideration at the end of each case study. He then immediately states his beliefs as to some of the acceptable solutions. This format makes it a bit awkward for making assignments in the classroom laboratory. However, more than one solution to each question is apparent, giving the student an opportunity to determining different solutions which may challenge those expressed by the author.

The Teacher and the Community is definitely worthwhile reading for the experienced teacher trying to stay up with the ever changing role they are expected to play in today's society. For the university professional conducting teacher training or in-service programs, this book provides a welcome change of pace from the traditional textbook approach and provides an excellent tool for classroom stimulation and simulation for the classroom teacher of tomorrow.

Ho-hum self-help book not so ho-hum

By G. Kent Stewart

Therapy American Style: Person Power Through Self Help.
Kenneth B. Mutheny and Richard J. Riordan; Nelson-
Hall Inc., Publishers, Chicago, Illinois 60606, 1979,
pp. 285, Index, $16.95

Ho hum, another self-help book guaranteeing escape
from all the tensions and frustrations of life? **NOT SO!**
Drs. Matheny and Riordan develop early the idea that
readers should not expect magical cures to their
problems. In setting the stage for using their self-help
book, they emphasize that while positive personal growth
and the accompanying success and happiness it can
bring is within reach of virtually everyone, it is a slow
process—in fact, a life-long process requiring a high level
of discipline, commitment and attention to specific
guidelines.

It is a truism of human nature that millions of
Americans engage in a life-long struggle to achieve that
illusive goal called success. Yet, most eventually suc-
cumb to a feeling of relative helplessness to control the
events and forces which shape their lives. They conclude
sadly, that the struggle is not worth the effort, that there is
little if any control over what life will bring, and that what
is to be will be. Again, not so, according to Matheny and
Riordan.

Given proper tools, adequate instruction, normal in-
telligence, health, and a reasonable level of motivation,
most people can take more responsibility for what hap-
pens to them and for what they become. This is ac-
complished by adjusting beliefs, attitudes, goals and
behavior. Admittedly, the whole process is painstakingly
slow, but through planning and discipline exciting and
satisfying change can be experienced.

The three remaining parts of this four-part book are
appropriately titled: The Desire To Change; Sound Mind,
Sound Body; and Influencing The Behavior Of Others.

In the four chapters of Part II—The Desire To
Change—the authors initiate discussion of the necessity
of motivation as a condition precedent to initiating
change resulting in meaningful personal growth and
enlightenment. Such change represents an important goal
in the mind of nearly everyone, but for a variety of reasons
the price tag is too high to nurture the goal to fruition. The
authors observe correctly, "the behavior is often em-
barrassingly inconsistent with stated resolutions" (p. 25).

As a first step in initiating and achieving personal
change, the authors suggest creative use of the
imagination. To see oneself as others see us is difficult in-
deed; but to see ourselves as we want ourselves to be is
even more challenging. The idea is to employ the
imagination and the thought process to achieve a mental
set toward a certain type of desired behavior. The authors
refer to the technique as autosuggestion. Others describe
it as visualization—the technique of visualizing in the
mind's eye a certain behavior or goal as already achieved.

The authors warn, however, that at this point the con-
ceived change can begin to die if the process is relaxed or
diluted through the entry of negative images into the
mind. This is the essence of the human predicament ac-
cruing from the incompatibility of desired behaviors with
behaviors required to cope with the reality of the moment.
The individual experiences a double bind to which the
authors suggest as a means for control continued
discipline and practice. Their formula:

Motivation × Program for Change × Practice × Time
= Change

Again, overnight success is not guaranteed, but a begin-
ning toward basic personal progress and improvement
has been initiated.

From this point, the authors suggest choosing com-
pany which facilitates rather than retards effort to change
and grow. These are various kinds of lay self-help groups.
Some authors in the self-help field call these master mind
groups while others refer to therapy, encounter, or
problem-solving groups. Whatever the name, the purpose
is essentially the same—to become involved with in-
dividuals possessing the same goals for breaking old
habits of behavior (thinking and acting) and establishing
new directions for personal growth.

In addition to the lay self-help group, with or without
professional involvement or leadership, the authors
recommend a specific reading program. They refer to this
as bibliotherapy or bibliocounseling which "refers to a
type of therapy where the patient is assigned certain
topics, books, or articles for the understanding or insight
they will bring." (p. 106). The authors note a variety of
books from the many which are available. Bookstores
stock nearly all the popular, time-tested titles and
regularly display an ever-increasing number of new books
in the self-help and inspirational category.

In Part III of the book, which contains three chapters,
the topics of health and stress are addressed in the
specialized context of the impact of the mind on the body.

Expanding on the cliche as one thinks so one feels,
the authors point out that people punish their bodies not
only by their behavior but more particularly by their
thinking. Inactivity or overeating have obvious effects
upon the body; but an even greater toll is exacted on the
physical system by faulty thinking.

Ill health, faulty thinking and stress are partners. Poor
health in itself is a stressor; yet excessive stress brings on
ill health! Faulty thinking, which is usually negative
thinking (negative, critical self-talk) is also a source of
stress. Excessive stress brings on more stress until finally
the energy necessary to cope is depleted. Each person
has a given supply of stress coping energy. It cannot be
replaced as it is used, and the supply level cannot be
measured. Once it is depleted, and the mind signals need
for more in responding to yet another stressor there is
none available. Death follows soon thereafter.

It is fascinating to contemplate that while stress can

kill prematurely, it is also the fuel of life. Without some stress there can be no action, no progress, and no achievement. Yet, with too much stress the result is the same.

The authors therefore provide a prescription for reducing excessive stress and for seeking ones optimum level of stress. First, they discuss diet and exercise, then relaxation and rest. From that point they explore in considerable detail the impact of one's thought patterns on stress control. "Much stress is self-generated. It results from **views** of what is happening to one." (p. 188). People engage regularly in self-talk. This self-talk is based on a persons beliefs—their view of the world—and these beliefs determine an individuals emotional response to a given event or experience. We respond to stimuli in the manner in which we tell ourselves to respond. Our order for a given response is occasioned by our early training, our experience, and our basic value system.

Coping effectively by bringing about change leading to positive growth requires examination of ones value system and the feelings and beliefs which condition how one reacts to a situation or event.

From this instructional effort, the authors introduce Part IV of their book by reminding the reader that the game of life is built around a rule book; and that while some people (the happily successful ones) master the rules, "most bumble along with mixed success, suffering heavily when interpersonal conflict occurs." (p. 211) So, Part IV is opened with an exploration of the com-munication process. Also included is discussion of the power and impact of expectations on human behavior. They close the book with an examination of principles for influencing human behavior.

In their discussion of the communication process, the authors devote considerable space to handling confrontations and to explaining the process of adult communication including transactional analysis and assertiveness training. Finally, they explore ways to cope with the threat of sending and receiving messages which communicate true feelings. Open communication is effective communication, but only the most secure and mature adults can practice it effectively. Yet, it is an important component of a concentrated effort to bring about change leading to higher levels of personal achievement, happiness, and success.

Finally, in the closing chapter of the book, the authors present guidelines for influencing behavior of others. Part of any persons success is having a positive impact on the behavior of those with whom they associate. This is especially true of those who realize their success through the success and achievement of others—and most human endeavor is undertaken in concert with other poeple.

In the epilogue, the authors state that while there is an available self help technology, ultimate success in the human arena is not where one finds it—it is where one looks for it. With this observation and with the book, this reviewer concurs.

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