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Board of Directors subcommittee. Building the Profession, September 1994-April 1995.

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As of 12-31-94

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Max Fisher
Joshua Fishman
Charles Goodman
Alfred Gottschalk
Robert Hirt
Gershon Kekst
Norman Lamm
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AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

TO: MORT MANDEL

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: AGENDA FOR COMMITTEE ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

At this point I thougth it would be important to put this committee meeting into a context. I am assuming that our goal is to create an agenda for the committee that requires four or five meetings a year if we are to actually address any of these issues in a real way. I have suggested that we start with on-going professional development for Jewish eduactors because of the policy brief that will emerge from Adam and Ellen's report. (After which, we might go on to Pre-Service Preparation of Educators.)
The way I am picturing the progression of topics at this point goes something like this:

MEETING ONE

Professional Development and the Denominations

MEETING TWO

Professional Development at the Communal Level

MEETING THREE

Role of Professional Organizations in Professional Development

MEETINGS FOUR AND FIVE

Experts' Presentations on Characteristics of "Best Practices" in Professional Development

A. Role of Universities in Professional Development

B. Characteristics of Quality Professional Development Programs

MEETING SIX

What We Have Learned and Implications for Professional Development

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

MEMORANDUM

TO: Members of the CIJE Board Committee On Building the Profession

FROM: Morton L. Mandel, Chair

RE: Committee Meeting of October 6, 1994

DATE: September 26, 1994

As you know, the board meeting on October 6th will concentrate on the outcomes of the research on personnel in Jewish education conducted by CIJE staff consultants, Drs. Adam Gamoran and Ellen Goldring.

This study has significant policy implications for Jewish education throughout North America, and for our committee in particular. After the presentation, each of the CIJE board committees will have the opportunity, in a separate meeting, to discuss the importance of these findings for its particular area.

In our committee, we will discuss the implications of the personnel report for on-going professional development of educators in the field. We will hear responses to the issues and findings raised in the report from representatives of two of the national denominations. Dr. Bob Abramson, director of the department of education of the United Synagogue of America, and Rabbi Robert Hirt, vice president for administration and professional education, Yeshiva University. We will then have an opportunity to discuss the challenges to developing a comprehensive approach to issues of ongoing professional development.

October 6th promises to be a most stimulating day. I look forward to seeing you at the meeting. Warmest wishes for a Happy New Year.

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

Board Committee On Building the Profession

October 6, 1994

AGENDA

I. Introduction	Morton Mandel
CIJE Personnel Report: Implications for Professional Development	
II. Professional Development: Two National Perspectives	Bob Abramson
III. Professional Development: The Implications for Building the Profession - A Preliminary Discussion	Gail Dorph
IV. Next Steps	Morton Mandel

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

Building the Profession Committee Meeting

October 6, 1994

Attendance: Robert Abramson, Guest; Joshua Fishman, Robert Hirt, Jim Joseph, Florence Melton, Louise Stein, Isadore Twersky; Mort Mandel, Acting Chair; Gail Dorph, Staff

Summary of Meeting and Committee Members' Recommendations:

The report by Drs. Adam Gamoran and Ellen Goldring on the educational background of the teaching force in the three lead communities points to the importance of tackling the area of in-service education for teachers. During our meeting, the committee focused its attention on this crucial issue.

After discussing two reports, one from Robert Abramson, Director of the Department of Education of the United Synagogue of America, and one from Robert Hirt, Vice President of Yeshiva University, committee members were asked to offer advice to CIJE about its role in the area of in-service education. Committee members recommended that CIJE:

1. develop a plan to enhance professional development opportunities for teachers;
2. devise approaches to issues of credentialling and standards.

Gail Dorph will begin working on both these recommendations and report back to the committee.

Summary of Robert Abramson's Report:

Robert reported that his experiences in the field corroborate the findings reported by Adam and Ellen in the morning. Based on the structure and resources of his agency, he devised two interventions to begin to address the issues: U-STEP, a program for teachers and PEER COACHING, a program for Solomon Schechter Day School principals.

U-STEP (United Synagogue Teacher Enhancement Program):

According to Robert, one of the most common problems principals describe is a shortage of teachers, particularly in supplementary schools. From the principals' vantage point, missing even one or two teachers is a serious shortage. U-STEP was conceived to address this situation. The basic premise of U-STEP is that any teacher who can be kept in the system and improved is one less teacher you have to find out there to fill the shortage.

Underlying Assumptions of the Program:

* Teachers are concerned and dedicated, and welcome opportunities to enhance their teaching skills and to grow Jewishly.

* A sustained program can make a difference.

* Creating a synagogue based program mobilizes principals and creates *esprit des corps* among staff.

* Teachers' knowledge base (Jewish and pedagogic) requires enhancement.

* Course offerings must work in terms of both content and pedagogy.

Characteristics of the program:

* The program is a two year program requiring 12 hours of in-service class time each year (a much higher requirement than the norm reported by the study presented in the morning, which found teachers studying about 29 hours over 5 years).

* The program is synagogue based, involving no travel time for participants.

* United Synagogue pays the instructor's fee. The local congregation picks up travel/lodging expenses as well as the cost of staff time.

* First class teacher/educators who specialize in the teaching of Jewish subject matter are hired to teach in the program in order to provide the best possible role models.

So far, 75 synagogue schools across the United States have participated in the program. The hope is that in-service education will be permanently added to the budgets of these schools. The assumption that the program can work towards many goals simultaneously -- can enrich teachers' knowledge and skills, foster greater teaching expertise, model good teaching, facilitate the building of a stronger faculty, and increase job satisfaction - has been borne out by the consistently enthusiastic evaluations returned by program participants.

Although Robert is very positive about the program (teachers in the program are studying approximately 24 hours in a two year period rather than 4-6 hours, the norm reported in the CIJE survey report), he recognizes that it has limitations. It does not deal with systematic learning of subject matter, and does not successfully address issues regarding specific age groups.

PEER COACHING:

The other program Robert described is a peer coaching program for principals. It involves both training sessions and visits to the school of your partner in the peer coaching process. A fine

group of principals has participated in the project, and it has been successful in increasing collegiality as well as in building skills.

Robert Hirt's Report:

Basic Assumptions:

Robert began by sharing some assumptions about professional development:

* In-service is no substitute for pre-service.

* It is important to create a climate which encourages professional growth within lay and professional leadership.

* If in-service is to be meaningful, then patience is necessary.

* There is more support for any program if both teachers and principals are involved in planning.

* Incentives such as salary, sabbatical, and release time are all necessary to create a climate for serious in-service education. They make the statement that learning is part of the job.

* One shot deals do not work.

* On-site sustained professional development programs are the most popular and successful.

* Seminars are more attractive if taught by an outside consultant who does not have an evaluative role in the school.

* The best times for scheduling substantive training programs are June, July and August or January vacation.

* All stakeholders need to be kept informed about programs.

* Audiences for some programs clearly ought to be ideological; for other programs, communal audiences make more sense. Some things could be focused across a single grade; others, at school-wide or city-wide initiatives.

Successful Programs:

Robert gave a variety of examples of successful ongoing programs. First was the Azrieli block program built around summer graduate programs for professionals in the field. This is an EdD program based on three summers (2 at YU and 1 in Israel) and an MS program based on two

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summers (1 at YU and 1 in Israel). The other programs mentioned were school-based programs. Among the programs he mentioned were the program for teachers at Ramaz (NY), planned and executed in cooperation with the Melton Centre at Hebrew University, and the Yeshivat Rambam (Baltimore) program which requires its teachers to enroll in courses of study .

Robert also mentioned a central agency model from Chicago where schools' subventions and teachers' contracts are tied to professional development.

Additionally, he suggested four new programs:

* a mentorship program for principals;

* a think tank for principals in which new thinking could be explored and implications discussed;

* regional seminars in August, June, and January;

* a forum for teachers and principals who could share their thinking and practice through papers, discussions and site visits.

Discussion:

After the presentations, Mort asked committee members whether or not CIJE should be investing in in-service education. In general, the committee members who were present expressed their feelings that improvement of the teaching force is critical and that it is imperative for CIJE to deal with the issue of in-service education for teachers.

Several specific questions were raised during the discussion:

* Jim Joseph mentioned that in Florida the bureau allocates money to day schools based not on a per capital formulation but on teachers' education and professional development. He also raised a question about the creation of curricular materials as a way of upgrading teachers.

* Florence Melton suggested that perhaps there are issues of common interest in the area of in-service education on which CAJE and CIJE can work together.

* Isadore Twersky suggested a metaphor for CIJE's role. He told story of his grandfather, the Talner Rav, describing the way in which the steam engine works: the steam engine is a "heise," the one hot one which pulls along the "kalte", the cold one (the other cars that do not create their own fire).

The recommendations of the committee can be found at the beginning of this document.

Changing Teaching Takes More Than a One-Shot Workshop

Excerpted from: *Educational Leadership* (November, 1991), pp. 69 -76;
Journal of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

To genuinely improve teaching, we must say goodbye to quick-fix workshops and hello to staff development that provides intellectual stimulation and opportunities to develop new knowledge and skills.

CLAUDE GOLDENBERG AND RONALD GALLIMORE

The school reform movement is in trouble. In more than a century, no fundamental changes have been made in the way American teachers teach (Cuban 1990; Sarason 1971, 1983; Warren 1985). Further, student achievement is unchanged from 20 years ago, the Educational Testing Service recently concluded (Mullis et al. 1990). Perhaps most damning, ETS asserted that the rhetoric of instructional innovation far surpasses the reality of classroom change.

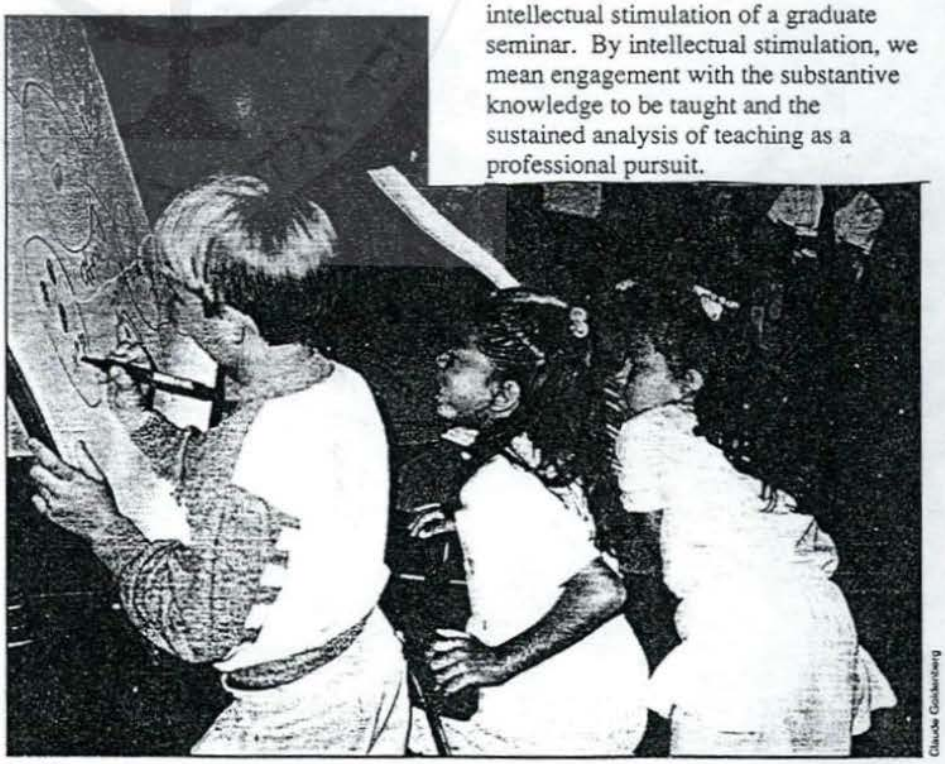
Once again, it seems, reformers have underestimated the difficulty of achieving genuine changes in the ways teachers teach (Sarason 1971, 1990). This underestimation has occurred even in some otherwise commendable efforts, such as the new California curriculum frameworks (e.g., California State Department of Education 1987). These visionary frameworks are part of a more general movement toward active, constructive, goal-oriented learning by students (Shuell 1986, Putnam et al. 1990, Resnick and Klopfer 1989).

If we are to achieve the goals of this new framework and similar efforts, important changes in teaching practices will be required. Unfortunately, however, if past experiences are any guide, these changes will elude the reformers.

Everyone seems to want change, but with a few exceptions, the reform movement is not achieving its aims. What's the problem? Our research suggests that (1) the "new kinds of teaching" required to implement the reforms are described in terms too general for teachers to use, and (2) even if these new kinds of teaching were clearly defined, current staff development practices are inadequate to effect meaningful changes.

One solution, we suggest, is to say goodbye to quick-fix workshops. We must, instead, create contexts in teachers' work lives that assist and sustain meaningful changes. These contexts should consist, preeminently, of engaging teachers in rigorous examinations of teaching: the concrete challenges and problems they face, the range of possible solutions, and, most important, close examination of whether, over time, there is progress in addressing these challenges.

Staff development, in other words, must be grounded in the mundane but very real details of teachers' daily work lives and in a form that provides the intellectual stimulation of a graduate seminar. By intellectual stimulation, we mean engagement with the substantive knowledge to be taught and the sustained analysis of teaching as a professional pursuit.



Claude Goldenberg

Children engaged in an "instructional conversation" with a skillful teacher are interested and engaged, focused and participative.

Ed Week 7/13/94

Teacher Training A Key Focus for Administration

By Ann Bradley

Washington

Most of the attention paid to the Clinton Administration's education agenda has centered on its push to set rigorous academic standards and create a new system for assessing students' progress.

But the Administration also is placing a major emphasis on professional development, arguing that teachers need more sustained, intensive training to prepare them to teach to higher standards.

The focus on professional development is most obvious in the Goals 2000: Educate America Act and in the Administration's proposals for the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

The Education Department also has formed a task force that is to recommend ways to make better use of the professional-development money appropriated under existing federal programs.

"If what we're trying to do is to change teaching and learning," asked Undersec-

Continued on Page 20

Professional Development Is High on Administration Agenda

Continued from Page 1

retary of Education Marshall S. Smith, "isn't the most important thing we can do is try to help teachers get the training they need to be able to work with students in an effective manner?"

While many educators welcome the attention, there are disagreements over how the government can best encourage professional development that goes beyond the typical one-shot workshops.

Training seen key in push for higher academic standards for students.

The debate is one that has not been heard in Washington for about 20 years, said John F. Jennings, the education counsel for the House Education and Labor Committee.

President Ronald Reagan cut the teacher-development programs that had been started in the 1970's, though Congress began putting money into training mathematics and science teachers in the mid- and late 80's, through the National Science Foundation and the Eisenhower math and science program.

"This will be a big chore," Mr. Jennings said. "We're not going to revive professional development in a year or two."

A growing body of research suggests that without attention to teachers' knowledge and skills, reform efforts may be wasted.

"The Achilles' heel of school curricular reform and higher standards is the relative lack of depth and the execution of staff development," said Michael W. Kirst, a professor of education at Stanford University. "There is just no conceptual understanding as to what it takes to implement complex curricular material."

Good professional development, researchers have learned, brings teachers together in networks that wrestle, over time, with important issues. Teachers should also receive coaching and follow-up help in using new practices in the classroom.

Goals and Funds

A new national education goal, added by Congress to the original six goals negotiated by the Bush Administration and the National Governors' Association, signals the new federal interest in professional development by calling for teachers to have access to "programs for the continued improvement of their professional skills."

The Goals 2000 law enacted earlier this year, which codified the goals, also requires states that apply for federal school-reform grants to draft improvement plans spelling out how they will help develop teachers' capacity to provide high-quality instruction centered on content and performance standards.

States are to make grants to districts to develop their own reform plans, which must include strategies for improving teaching. They also can make grants to districts or groups of districts to work with colleges and universities to improve teacher education.

The Goals 2000 law puts school districts in the driver's seat in seeking out partnerships with colleges and universities that can meet their needs, said David G. Imig, the chief executive officer of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

"The school of education or the dean has to look outside the university for a connection and a partnership in a much more aggressive way," Mr. Imig said.

Links to Standards

The Education Department's proposals for reauthorizing the E.S.E.A. also heavily stress professional development, calling for it to become "a vehicle for reform."

The Administration proposed creating a new Eisenhower professional-development program, expanding the existing mathematics and science program to support professional development in a variety of disciplines.

The Administration had proposed eliminating the Chapter 2 block grant and combining the funding authorized for that program and the current Eisenhower program to set a funding ceiling of $752 million for the new effort.

HR 6, the E.S.E.A. bill that has cleared the House, and S 1513, the companion bill pending in the Senate, both reject the proposal to scrap Chapter 2. But both would create an expanded professional-development initiative as well.

Both versions of the E.S.E.A. bill make it clear that professional-development activities should be linked to challenging content and performance standards.

But the legislation is flexible, providing not mandates but a list of possible activities that differs somewhat between the two versions.

The money could be used for such purposes as developing new ways of assessing teachers and administrators for licensure, supporting local and national professional networks, or providing incentives for teachers to become certified by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. School districts could use the money to release teachers from their classes.

In a related effort, the Administration has proposed consolidating more than 50 technical-assistance centers now funded under Chapter 1, bilingual education, drug-free schools, and other categorical programs into a system of 10 regional centers that would take an integrated approach to helping states and districts with professional development and school reform.

Both versions of the E.S.E.A. legislation endorse the consolidation.

A Chapter 1 Set-Aside?

The Senate bill also calls for creating a "national teacher training project," modeled after the National Writing Project.

Lawmakers are also considering how and whether to address professional development under the Chapter 1 compensatory-education program.

The Independent Commission on Chapter 1, formed by a group of child advocates, is pushing for a provision setting aside some Chapter 1 money specifically for professional development.

But the Administration argues that requiring districts to set aside money under Title I—the name Chapter 1 would revert to under the E.S.E.A. bills—would contradict its commitment to local flexibility and schoolwide strategies.

The Senate bill would earmark 10 percent of districts' funding for professional development; HR 6 contains no such provision.

"We thought it didn't make sense to come up with an arbitrary percentage required across the board in all Title I schools," said Thomas W. Payzant, the assistant secretary for elementary and secondary education.

But Kati Haycock, a member of the Chapter 1 commission's steering committee, argued that a set-aside would be controlled by educators who are responsible for raising student achievement. Eisenhower money, she noted, would be "in the hands of the district."

"What tends to happen is schools that most desperately need the help don't get it," she said. "Title I has the wonderful benefit of putting the greatest investment in the schools with the greatest problems."

Are Schools Ready?

While praising the effort to improve professional development, some observers fear that states and districts lack the know-how to follow through.

"How in the world do you now do site-based, continuous in-service education or professional development without any kind of preparation of principals and lead teachers and others to do this?" asked Mr. Imig of the A.A.C.T.E.

In some of the legislation, he said, "there is a presumption that you put two teachers together and they have a wonderful conversation that leads to change."

Glen Cutlip, a senior policy analyst at the National Education Association, said the union seconds the Administration's view that "standards and assessments may not be a magic bullet without other things."

But Mr. Cutlip said he still worries that some politicians and educators are placing too much faith in a "mechanistic" view that assumes a direct link between setting standards for students, training teachers, and improving outcomes.

"Clearly, it's going to be hard to do this," Undersecretary Smith said of improving professional development. But he argued that a policy calling for training teachers to help students reach higher standards will "begin to focus behavior."

"The only way to get going is to start to stimulate it, showing examples, reinforcing and rewarding, and providing resources when people need it," he said.

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Time to Act
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Executive Director
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October 25, 1994

Florence Melton
1180 S Ocean Blvd #9B
Boca Raton, FL 33432-7629

Dear Florence:

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting on October 6. I think that the meeting was a productive one and moved forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession." In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

In the meantime, I encourage you to keep in touch with me or with Gail Dorph if you have any comments or suggestions that can further our work.

I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

Warmest regards,

Morton L. Mandel

P.O. Box 94553, Cleveland, Ohio 44101 • Phone: (216) 391-1852 • Fax: (216) 391-5430
15 East 26th Street, New York, NY 10010-1579 • Phone: (212) 532-2360 • Fax: (212) 532-2646

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October 25, 1994

Dr. Robert Abramson
United Synagogue of America
115 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10010

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October 25, 1994

Rabbi Joshua Fishman
Torah Umesorah
160 Broadway
New York, NY 10038

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Rabbi Robert Hirt
Yeshiva University
500 West 185th Street
New York, NY 10033

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Jim Joseph
The Jim Joseph Foundation
494 Salem Street
Paramus, NJ 07652

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Morton L. Mandel

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15 East 26th Street, New York, NY 10010-1579 • Phone: (212) 532-2360 • Fax: (212) 532-2646

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Time to Act
CIJE Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

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David Teutsch
Isadore Twersky
Bennett Yanowitz

Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Ms. Louise Stein
2510 West Dean Road
Milwaukee, WE 53217

Dear Louise:

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting on October 6. I think that the meeting was a productive one and moved forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession." In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

In the meantime, I encourage you to keep in touch with me or with Gail Dorph if you have any comments or suggestions that can further our work.

I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

Warmest regards,

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Rabbi Isadore Twersky
Harvard University
6 Divinity Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138

Dear Isadore:

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting on October 6. I think that the meeting was a productive one and moved forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession." In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

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Warmest regards,

Mort

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Max M. Fisher
Fisher Building
3011 Grand Boulevard
Detroit, MI 48202

Dear Max:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting, along with two brief articles on in-service education that were distributed during the meeting. In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Charles H. Goodman
222 North LaSalle Street
Chicago, IL 60601

Dear Corky:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

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With warmest regards,

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Gershon Kekst
Kekst & Co., Inc.
437 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Dear Gershon:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

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In the meantime, I encourage you to keep in touch with me or with Gail Dorph if you have any comments or suggestions that can further our work.

I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

With warmest regards,

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Norman Lipoff
1221 Brickell Avenue
Miami, FL 33131

Dear Norman:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

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With warmest regards,

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A Time to Act

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Richard H. Meyer
Milwaukee Jewish Federation
1360 N Prospect Avenue
Milwaukee, WI 53202

Dear Rick:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting, along with two brief articles on in-service education that were distributed during the meeting. In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

In the meantime, I encourage you to keep in touch with me or with Gail Dorph if you have any comments or suggestions that can further our work.

I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

With warmest regards,

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Dr. Ismar Schorsch
Jewish Theological Seminary
3080 Broadway
New York, NY 10027

Dear Ismar:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

Enclosed you will find the minutes of our committee's meeting, along with two brief articles on in-service education that were distributed during the meeting. In the coming months, you will be receiving materials updating the work of CIJE in this arena which will ask for your input.

In the meantime, I encourage you to keep in touch with me or with Gail Dorph if you have any comments or suggestions that can further our work.

I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

With warmest regards,

Mort

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Maynard Wishner
Rosenthal & Schanfield
55 East Monroe Street #4600
Chicago, IL 60603

Dear Maynard:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

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I look forward to seeing you again at our next Board meeting on April 27, 1995 when our committee will meet again.

With warmest regards,

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Dr. Alfred Gottschalk
Hebrew Union College
3101 Clifton Avenue
Cincinnati, OH 45220-2488

Dear Fred:

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Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Mr. Lester Pollack
Lazard Freres & Company
One Rockefeller Plaza
New York, NY 10020

Dear Lester:

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Executive Director
Alan Hoffmann

October 25, 1994

Dr. Norman Lamm
Yeshiva University
500 West 185th Street
New York, NY 10033

Dear Norman:

I am sorry that you were unable to attend our committee's recent meeting on October 6th. The meeting was both stimulating and helpful in moving forward our CIJE agenda for "Building the Profession."

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DEC 2 9 1994

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

To: Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen

From: Gail Dorph

CC: Alan Hoffmann, Barry Holtz, Ginny Levi, Nessa Rapoport

Date: December 19, 1994

Re: Tentative Agenda for our Meeting on December 28

The following are many of the issues raised in the discussions that I have had with each of you in planning for this meeting. Please feel free to address in your presentations any other issues you would like to discuss that you may not see listed below.

Enclosed with this memo, you will find two items: a copy of the planning document we used in Montreal and an article about models for in-service education. I am hoping that we will reflect on each in the first two items on the agenda below.

1. Where are we in terms of Personnel Action Plans in our communities?

I would like each of you to think about addressing these and any other questions that we should discuss in terms of disseminating the results of the Educators' Survey and creating communal personnel action plans. A discussion will follow your presentation.

a. What are issues/challenges/problems you are facing?

b. How is the process organized?

c. What is the communal timetable for this process?

d. In six months time, what will be benchmarks indicating successful process?

e. In what way(s) do your activities and process include (follow/diverge/contradict) suggestions made in "the critical path" document distributed last November at our GA consultation (included with this packet)?

f. Are there initiatives already in the planning process?

2. "Towards Community Personnel Action Plans"

Barry and I plan to make a presentation which will also be followed up by a discussion. (We thought the article on models on in-service education might serve as a part of the background to this discussion--sorry, it's not a clearer copy.)

3. Planning for our work in 1995

I have spoken to each of you in the past weeks about issues that could benefit from common consultation over the next few months. Two issues of this sort that we have all discussed are:

a. input and connection of denominations to community personnel action plans;

b. professional development programs for the untrained new teachers in our communities (particularly in supplementary schools).

This discussion, I am hoping, will enable us to generate a list of such issues for future discussions. Bring your ideas about this as well.

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

Five Models of Staff Development for Teachers

This article organizes what is known about effective staff development into five models currently being espoused and used by staff developers. A review of the supporting theory and research on these models is followed by a description of what is currently known about the organizational context that is required to support successful staff development efforts.

DENNIS SPARKS
SUSAN LOUCKS-HORSLEY

Dennis Sparks is executive director, National Staff Development Council, 517 North York, Dearborn, Michigan 48128. Susan Loucks-Horsley is program director for teacher development, The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, 290 South Main Street, Andover, Massachusetts 01810.

In the early 1970s, a growing concern about the effectiveness of inservice education resulted in a spate of studies to determine the attitudes of educators about these programs (Ainsworth, 1976; Brim & Tollett, 1974; Joyce & Peck, 1977; Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977). The findings indicated nearly unanimous dissatisfaction with current efforts, but a strong consensus that inservice was critical if school programs and practices were to be improved (Wood & Kleine, 1987).

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, several major studies and reviews contributed to our understanding of the characteristics of effective staff development, focusing not on attitudes, but on actual practices (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Kells, 1980; Lawrence, 1974; Yarger, Howey, & Joyce, 1980). The resulting list of effective practices, well known by now, included:

- Programs conducted in school settings and linked to school-wide efforts
- Teachers participating as helpers to each other and as planners, with administrators, of inservice activities
- Emphasis on self instruction, with differentiated training opportunities
- Teachers in active roles, choosing goals and activities for themselves
- Emphasis on demonstration, supervised trials, and feedback; training that is concrete and ongoing over time
- Ongoing assistance and support available on request

Staff development came of age in the 1980s. It was the focus of countless conferences, workshops, articles, books, and research reports. State legislators and administrators of local school districts saw staff development as a key aspect of school improvement efforts. Many school districts initiated extensive staff development projects to improve student learning. Research on these projects and craft knowledge generated by staff developers have substantially advanced our understanding of effective staff development practices beyond the overview studies of the early 1980s referred to above.

Introduction

In spite of this recent intense, widespread interest in staff development, much remains to be learned about the process. This article organizes what is known about effective staff development into five models currently being espoused and used by staff developers. A review of the supporting theory and research on these models is followed by a description of what is currently known about the organizational context that is required to support successful

staff development efforts. The conclusion discusses what can be said with confidence about effective staff development practice and what remains to be learned. First, however, are definitions of the key terms and a description of the literature that is used throughout the article.

Definitions

Staff development is defined as those processes that improve the job-related knowledge, skills, or attitudes of school employees. While participants in staff development activities may include school board members, central office administrators, principals, and non-certified staff, this article focuses on staff development for teachers. In particular, it examines what is known about staff development that is intended to improve student learning through enhanced teacher performance.

Two uses of the word "model" have been combined in an effort to both conceptualize staff development and make this conceptualization useful to staff developers. First, borrowing from Ingvarson's (1987) use of the term, a model can be seen as a design for learning which embodies a set of assumptions about (a) where knowledge about teaching practice comes from, and (b) how teachers acquire or extend their knowledge. Models chosen for discussion differ in their assumptions. Second, adapting Joyce and Weil's (1972) definition of a model of teaching, a staff development model is a pattern or plan which can be used to guide the design of a staff development program.

Each staff development model presented below is discussed in terms of its theoretical and research underpinnings, its critical attributes (including its underlying assumptions and phases of activities), and illustrations of its impact on teacher growth and development. The literature supporting these models is of several types. First, for each model, the theoretical and research bases that support its use in improving teachers' knowledge, skills, or attitudes are considered. The question asked was: Why should one believe that this model *should* affect teachers' classroom behavior? Second, program descriptions were reviewed in which these models were applied. The question asked was: What evidence exists that demonstrates that this model can be implemented by staff developers in schools and school districts? Third, data about outcomes was sought. The question asked was: What evidence indicates that this model actually makes a difference in teacher performance?

An Overview

This article presents five models of staff development: (a) individually-guided staff development, (b) observation/assessment, (c) involvement in a development/improvement process, (d) training, and (e) inquiry.

Individually-guided staff development refers to a process through which teachers plan for and pursue activities they believe will promote their own learning. The observation/assessment model provides teachers with objective data and feedback regarding their classroom performance. This process may in itself produce growth or it can provide information that may be used to select areas for growth.

Involvement in a development/improvement process engages teachers in developing curriculum, designing programs, or engaging in a school improvement process to solve general or particular problems. The inquiry model requires that teachers identify an area of instructional interest, collect data, and make changes in their instruction based on an interpretation of those data. The training model (which may be synonymous with staff development in the minds of many educators) involves teachers in acquiring knowledge or skills through appropriate individual or group instruction.

Next, this article examines the organizational context that is required to support these models. Our discussion includes organizational climate, leadership and support, district policies and systems, and participant involvement.

The final section looks for gaps in the knowledge base of staff development, identifying areas about which there is still more to learn and areas that as yet remain unexplored by researchers. The hope is that this article and the chapter from which it is adapted will serve as both a signpost for how far we have come in the past 20 years in our understanding of effective staff development practices and a springboard for future research in this vital area.

Staff development came of age in the 1980s. It was the focus of countless conferences, workshops, articles, books, and research reports. State legislators and administrators of local school districts saw staff development as a key aspect of school improvement efforts. Many school districts initiated extensive staff development projects to improve student learning.

Five Models of Staff Development

1. Individually-Guided Staff Development

Teachers learn many things on their own. They read professional publications, have discussions with colleagues, and experiment with new instructional strategies, among other activities. All of these may occur with or without the existence of a formal staff development program.

It is possible, however, for staff development programs to actively promote individually-guided activities. While the actual activities may vary widely, the key characteristic of the individually-guided staff development model is that the learning is designed by the teacher. The teacher determines his or her own goals and selects the activities that will result in the achievement of those goals. Perhaps a sense of this model is best represented in an advertisement for the Great Books Foundation which reads: "At 30, 50, or 70, you are more self-educable than you were at 20. It's time to join a Great Books reading and discussion group."

Underlying assumptions. This model assumes that individuals can best judge their own learning needs and that they are capable of self direction and self-initiated learning. It also assumes that adults learn most efficiently when they initiate and plan their learning activities rather than spending their time in activities that are less relevant than those they would design. (It is, however, true that when individual teachers design their own learning there is much "reinventing of the wheel," which may seem inefficient to some observers.) The model also holds that individuals will be most motivated when they select their own learning goals based on their personal assessment of their needs.

Theoretical and research underpinnings. According to Lawrence's (1974) review of 97 studies of inservice programs, programs with individualized activities were more likely to achieve their objectives than were those that provided identical experiences for all participants. Theory supporting the individually-guided model can be found in the work of a number of individuals. Rogers' (1969) client-centered therapy and views on education are based on the premise that human beings will seek growth given the appropriate conditions. "I have come to feel," Rogers wrote, "that the only learning which significantly influences behavior is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning" (p. 153).

The differences in people and their needs are well represented in the literature on adult learning theory, adult development, learning styles, and the change process. Adult learning theorists (Kidd, 1973; Knowles, 1980) believe that adults become increasingly self-directed and that their readiness to learn is stimulated by real life tasks and problems. Stage theorists (Levine, 1989) hold that individuals in different stages of development have different personal and professional needs. Consequently, staff development that provides practical classroom management assistance to a 22-year-old beginning teacher may be inappropriate for a teaching veteran who is approaching retirement.

Learning styles researchers (Dunn & Dunn, 1978; Gregorc, 1979) argue that individuals are different in the ways they perceive and process information and in the manner in which they most effectively learn (e.g., alone or with others, by doing as opposed to hearing about). Research on the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall & Loucks, 1978) indicates that as individuals learn new behaviors and change their practice, they experience different types of concerns that require different types of responses from staff developers. For instance, when first learning about a new instructional technique, some teachers with personal concerns require reassurance that they will not be immediately evaluated on the use of the strategy, while a teacher with management concerns wants to know how this technique can be used in the classroom.

Taken together, these theorists and researchers recognize that the circumstances most suitable for one person's professional development may be quite different from those that promote another individual's growth. Consequently, individually-guided staff development allows teachers to find answers to self-selected professional problems using their preferred modes of learning.

Phases of activity. Individually-guided staff development consists of several phases: (a) the identification of a need or interest, (b) the development of a plan to meet the need or interest, (c) the learning activity(ies), and (d) assessment of whether the learning meets the identified need or interest. These phases might be undertaken informally and almost unconsciously, or they may be part of a formal, structured process. Each phase is explained in greater detail below.

With the identification of a need or interest, the teacher considers what he or she needs to learn. This assessment may be done formally (e.g., the completion of a needs assessment process or as a result of evaluation by a supervisor) or occur more spontaneously (e.g., a conversation with a colleague or reflection upon an instructional problem). The need or interest may be remedial (e.g., "I've really come to dislike my work because of the classroom management problems I'm having") or growth-oriented (e.g., "I'm intrigued by recent research on the brain and want to better understand its implications for student learning").

Having identified the need or interest, the teacher selects a learning objective and chooses activities that will lead to accomplishing this objective. Activities may include workshop attendance, reading, visits to another classroom or school, or initiation of a seminar or similar learning program.

The learning activity may be single session (e.g., attendance at a workshop on new approaches to reading in the content areas) or occur over time (e.g., examination of the research on retaining students in grade). Based on the individual's preferred mode of learning, it may be done alone (e.g., reading or writing), with others (e.g., a seminar that considers ways of boosting the self-esteem of high school students), or as a combination of these activities.

When assessing formal individually-guided processes the teacher may be asked to make a brief written report to the funding source or an oral report to colleagues. In other instances the teacher may simply be aware that he or she now better understands something. It is not uncommon that as a result of this assessment phase the teacher may realize how much more there is to be learned on the topic or be led to a newly emerging need or interest.

Illustrations and outcomes. Individually-guided staff development may take many forms. It may be as simple as a teacher reading a journal article on a

topic of interest. Other forms of individually-guided staff development are more complex. For instance, teachers may design and carry out special professional projects supported by incentive grants such as a competitive "teacher excellence fund" promoted by Boyer (1983) or "mini-grants" described by Mosher (1981). Their projects may involve research, curriculum development, or other learning activities. While evidence of outcomes for such programs is not substantial, there are indications that they can empower teachers to address their own problems, create a sense of professionalism, and provide intellectual stimulation (Loucks-Horsley, Harding, Arbuckle, Dubea, Murray, & Williams, 1987). This strategy proved effective in New York City and Houston, where teachers were supported to develop and disseminate their own exemplary programs through Impact II grants. They reported changes in their classroom practices, as well as increases in student attendance, discipline, and motivation (Mann, 1984-85).

Teacher evaluation and supervision can be a source of data for individually guided staff development. McGreal (1983) advocates that goal setting be the principal activity of teacher evaluation. Supervisors would assist in the establishment of those goals based on the motivation and ability of the teacher. The type of goals, the activities teachers engage in to meet the goals, and the amount of assistance provided by supervisors would differ from teacher to teacher based upon developmental level, interests, concerns, and instructional problems.

Similarly, Glatthorn's (1984) "differentiated supervision" calls for "self-directed development" as one form of assistance to teachers. Self-directed development is a goal-based approach to professional improvement in which teachers have access to a variety of resources for meeting their collaboratively identified needs.

Research on teacher centers also demonstrates the value of individually guided staff development. Hering and Howey (1982) summarized research conducted on 15 teacher centers sponsored by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development from 1978 to 1982. They concluded that, "the most important contribution of teachers' centers is their emphasis on working with individual teachers over time." (p. 2). Such a focus on individual teachers is absent from many traditional staff development programs, which teacher centers appear to complement quite effectively.

Hering and Howey (1982) reported that mini-grants of up to $750 provided by the St. Louis Metropolitan Teacher Center were used to fund a variety of classroom-oriented projects. Interviews with participants found that teachers made extensive use of the ideas and products they developed. Some of these projects eventually affected not only an individual classroom, but a school or the entire district. Regarding this project, Hering and Howey concluded:

> *As would be expected, teachers who were given money and support reported high levels of satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment. Also not surprisingly, they developed projects anchored in the realities of the classroom and responsive to the needs and interests of their students. Perhaps most important, however, is the strong suggestion that they can, indeed, influence change and innovation in other classrooms, as well as their own, through projects they design at minimal costs. (p. 6)*

Hering and Howey (1982) also report the findings for a study done on individualized services provided at the Northwest Staff Development Center in Livonia, Michigan. Even though these awards rarely exceeded $50, 78 percent of the recipients reported that they had considerable control over their own learning and professional development. Almost 85 percent of the recipients thought that these services made a substantive difference in their classrooms. In summarizing the value of individualized services, the researchers wrote, "Individual teacher needs and concerns have to be attended to, as well as school-wide collective ones, or enthusiasm for the collective approach will quickly wane" (p. 6).

While there are many illustrations of an individualized approach to staff development in the literature and many more in practice, research on its impact on teaching is largely perceptual and self-report. Perhaps as more resources are directed to

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supporting this strategy — particularly in the form of incentive grants to teachers — more will be learned about its contribution to teacher, as well as student, growth.

2. Observation/Assessment

"Feedback is the breakfast of champions" is the theme of Blanchard and Johnson's (1982) popular management book, *The One Minute Manager.* Yet many teachers receive little or no feedback on their classroom performance. In fact, in some school districts teachers may be observed by a supervisor as little as once every 3 years, and that observation/feedback cycle may be perfunctory in nature.

While observation/assessment can be a powerful staff development model, in the minds of many teachers it is associatedith evaluation. Because this process often has not been perceived as helpful (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1985), teachers frequently have difficulty understanding the value of this staff development model. However, once they have had an opportunity to learn about the many forms this model can take (for instance, peer coaching and clinical supervision, as well as teacher evaluation), it may become more widely practiced.

Underlying assumptions. One assumption underlying this model, according to Loucks-Horsley and her associates (1987), is that "Reflection and analysis are central means of professional growth" (p. 61). Observation and assessment of instruction provide the teacher with data that can be reflected upon and analyzed for the purpose of improving student learning.

A second assumption is that reflection by an individual on his or her own practice can be enhanced by another's observations. Since teaching is an isolated profession, typically taking place in the presence of no other adults, teachers are not able to benefit from the observations of others. Having "another set of eyes" gives a teacher a different view of how he or she is performing with students.

Another assumption is that observation and assessment of classroom teaching can benefit both involved parties — the teacher being observed and the observer. The teacher benefits by another's view of his or her behavior and by receiving helpful feedback from a colleague. The observer benefits by watching a colleague, preparing the feedback, and discussing the common experience.

A final assumption is that when teachers see positive results from their efforts to change, they are more apt to continue to engage in improvement. Because this model may involve multiple observations and conferences spread over time, it can help teachers see that change is possible. As they apply new strategies, they can see changes both in their own and their students' behavior. In some instances, measurable improvements in student learning will also be observed.

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Theoretical and research underpinnings. Theoretical and research support for the observation/assessment model can be found in the literature on teacher evaluation, clinical supervision, and peer coaching. Each of these approaches is based on the premise that teaching can be objectively observed and analyzed and that improvement can result from feedback on that performance.

McGreal's (1982) work on teacher evaluation suggests a key role for classroom observation, but expresses a major concern about reliability of observations. The author points to two primary ways to increase the reliability of classroom observations. The first is to narrow the range of what is looked for by having a system that takes a narrowed focus on teaching (for instance, an observation system based on the Madeline Hunter approach to instruction), or by using an observation guide or focusing instrument. The second way is to use a pre-conference to increase the kind and amount of information the observer has prior to the observation. Glatthorn (1984) recommends that clinical supervisors (or coaches) alternate unfocused observations with focused observations. In unfocused observation the observer usually takes verbatim notes on all significant behavior. These data are used to identify some strengths and potential problems that are discussed in a problem-solving feedback conference. A focus is then determined for the next observation, during which the observer gathers data related to the identified problem.

Glickman (1986) suggests that the type of feedback provided teachers should be based on their cognitive levels. Teachers with a "low abstract" cognitive style should receive directive conferences (problem identification and solution come primarily form the coach or supervisor); "moderate-abstract" teachers should receive collaborative conferences (an exchange of perceptions about problems and a negotiated solution); and "high-abstract" teachers should receive a nondirective approach (the coach or supervisor helps the teacher clarify problems and choose a course of action).

Peer coaching is a form of the observation/assessment model that promotes transfer of learning to the classroom (Joyce & Showers, 1982). In peer observation, teachers visit one another's classrooms, gather objective data about student performance or teacher behavior, and give feedback in a follow-up conference. According to Joyce and Showers (1983):

> *Relatively few persons, having mastered a new teaching skill, will then transfer that skill into their active repertoire. In fact, few will use it at all. Continuous practice, feedback, and the companionship of coaches is essential to enable even highly motivated persons to bring additions to their repertoire under effective control. (p. 4)*

Joyce (Brandt, 1987) says that up to 30 trials may be required to bring a new teaching strategy under "executive control." Similarly, Shalaway (1985) found that 10 to 15 coaching sessions may be

necessary for teachers to use what they have learned in their classrooms.

Phases of activity. The observation/assessment model — whether implemented through evaluation, clinical supervision, or peer coaching — usually includes a pre-observation conference, observation, analysis of data, post-observation conference, and (in some instances) an analysis of the observation/assessment process (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). In the pre-observation conference, a focus for the observation is determined, observation methods selected, and any special problems noted.

During the observation, data are collected using the processes agreed upon in the pre-observation conference. The observation may be focused on the students or on the teacher, and can be global in nature or narrowly focused. Patterns found during instruction may become evident. Hunter (1982) recommends three points of analysis: (a) behaviors that contribute to learning, (b) behaviors that interfere with learning, and (c) behaviors that neither contribute nor interfere, but use time and energy that could be better spent.

In the post-observation conference both the teacher and observer reflect on the lesson and the observer shares the data collected. Strengths are typically acknowledged and areas for improvement suggested (by either the teacher or observer, depending upon the goals established in the pre-observation conference). An analysis of the supervisory (or coaching) process itself, while not necessarily a part of all forms of this model, provides participants with an opportunity to reflect on the value of the observation/assessment process and to discuss modifications that might be made in future cycles.

Illustrations and outcomes. Acheson and Gall (1980) report a number of studies in which the clinical supervision model has been accepted by teachers when they and their supervisors are taught systematic observation techniques. They further note that this process is viewed as productive by teachers when the supervisor uses "indirect" behaviors (e.g., accepting feelings and ideas, giving praise and encouragement, asking questions). While the authors report that trained supervisors helped teachers make improvements in a number of instructional behaviors, they were unable to find any studies that demonstrated student effects.

The most intensive and extensive studies of the impact of observation/assessment on learning comes from the work of Showers and Joyce. Discussed in more detail in the training section, these authors and their associates have found that powerful improvements have been made to student learning when the training of teachers in effective instructional practices is followed by observations and coaching in their classrooms (Joyce & Showers, 1988). In a study that contrasted different sources of coaching, Sparks (1986) contrasted a workshop-only approach with peer coaching and with consultant coaching. Her findings indicated that peer coaching was most powerful in improving classroom performance.

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3. Involvement in a Development/Improvement Process

Teachers are sometimes asked to develop or adapt curriculum, design programs, or engage in systematic school improvement processes that have as their goal the improvement of classroom instruction and/or curriculum. Typically these projects are initiated to solve a problem. Their successful completion may require that teachers acquire specific knowledge or skills (e.g., curriculum planning, research on effective teaching, group problem-solving strategies). This learning could be acquired through reading, discussion, observation, training, and/or trial and error. In other instances, the process of developing a product itself may cause significant learnings (e.g., through experiential learning), some of which may have been difficult or impossible to predict in advance. This model focuses on the combination of learnings that result from the involvement of teachers in such development/improvement processes.

Underlying assumptions. One assumption on which this model is based is that adults learn most effectively when they have a need to know or a problem to solve (Knowles, 1980). Serving on a school improvement committee may require that teachers read the research on effective teaching and that they learn new group and interpersonal skills. Curriculum development may demand new content knowledge of teachers. In each instance, teachers' learning is driven by the demands of problem solving.

Another assumption of this model is that people working closest to the job best understand what is required to improve their performance. Their teaching experiences guide teachers as they frame problems and develop solutions. Given appropriate opportunities, teachers can effectively bring their unique perspectives to the tasks of improving teaching and their schools.

A final assumption is that teachers acquire important knowledge or skills through their involvement in school improvement or curriculum development processes. Such involvement may cause alterations in attitudes or the acquisition of skills as individuals or groups work toward the solution of a common problem. For instance, teachers may become more aware of the perspectives of others, more appreciative of individual differences, more skilled in group leadership, and better able to solve problems. While the learnings may be unpredictable in advance, they are often regarded as important by teachers.

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Theoretical and research underpinnings. We have chosen to represent curriculum development and school improvement as types of staff development; involvement in these processes nurtures teachers' growth. Others see staff development (perhaps viewed more narrowly as training) as a key component of effective curriculum development and implementation. As Joyce and Showers (1988) write, "It has been well established that curriculum implementation is demanding of staff development — essentially, without strong staff development programs that are appropriately designed a very low level of implementation occurs" (p. 44).

Whichever perspective one has, staff development and the improvement of schools and curriculum go hand in hand. Glickman (1986), who argues that the aim of staff development should be to improve teachers' ability to think, views curriculum development as a key aspect of this process. He believes that the intellectual engagement required in curriculum development demands that teachers not only know their content, but that they must also acquire curriculum planning skills. He recommends that curriculum development be conducted in heterogeneous groups composed of teachers of low, medium, and high abstract reasoning abilities. According to Glickman, the complexity of the curriculum development task should be matched to the abstract reasoning ability of the majority of teachers in the group.

Glatthorn (1987) describes three ways in which teachers can modify a district's curriculum guide. They may operationalize the district's curriculum guide by taking its lists of objectives and recommended teaching methods and turning them into a set of usable instructional guides. Or they may adapt the guide to students' special needs (e.g., remediation, learning style differences, etc.). Finally, teachers may enhance the guide by developing optional enrichment units. Glatthorn recommends that these activities be done in groups, believing that, in doing so, teachers will become more cohesive and will share ideas about teaching and learning in general, as well as on the development task at hand.

The involvement of teachers in school improvement processes, while similar in its assumptions and process to curriculum development, finds its research and theory base in other sources. General approaches to school improvement come from the literature on change and innovation. For example, Loucks-Horsley and Hergert (1985) describe seven action steps in a school improvement process that are based in research on implementation of new practices in schools (Crandall & Loucks, 1983; Hall & Loucks, 1978; Louis & Rosenblum, 1981). The research on effective schools underpins other approaches to school improvement (Cohen, 1981). Finally, an approach to school improvement through staff development developed by Wood and his associates was derived from an analysis of effective staff development practices as represented in the research and in reports from educational practitioners (Thompson, 1982; Wood, 1989). The result is a five-stage RPTIM model (Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation, and Maintenance) used widely in designing and implementing staff development efforts (Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981). As a result of involvement in such improvement efforts, schools (and the teachers within them) may develop new curriculum, change reporting procedures to parents, enhance communication within the faculty, and improve instruction, among many other topics.

Phases of activity. This model begins with the identification of a problem or need by an individual, a group of teachers (e.g., a grade-level team or a secondary department), a school faculty, or a district administrator. The need may be identified informally through discussion or a growing sense of dissatisfaction, through a more formal process such as brainstorming or the use of a standardized instrument (such as a school improvement survey or needs assessment), or through examination of student achievement or program evaluation data.

After a need has been identified, a response is formulated. This response may be determined informally or formally. In some cases, the necessary action may become immediately evident (e.g., the need for new lunchroom rules). At other times, teachers may need to brainstorm or search out alternatives, weigh them against a set of predetermined criteria, develop an ac-

tion plan, and determine evaluation procedures. This process may take several sessions to complete and require consultation with a larger group (e.g., the schoolwide staff development committee may receive feedback on the tentative plan from the entire faculty).

Typically it becomes evident during this phase that specific knowledge or skills may be required to implement the plan. For instance, the faculty may decide that it wants to study several discipline systems before implementing the new lunchroom management system. The improvement of students' higher-order thinking may involve the selection of new textbooks, requiring that committee members better understand which features to look for in a textbook to support this goal. The development or selection of a new elementary science curriculum may require study of the latest research on science teaching and the examination of other curricula.

At this point the plan is implemented or the product developed. This process may take several days, several months, or several years. As a final step, the success of the program is assessed. If teachers are not satisfied with the results, they may return to an earlier phase (e.g., acquisition of knowledge or skills) and repeat the process.

Illustrations and outcomes. While teachers have long been involved in curriculum development, little research on the impact of these experiences on their professional development has been conducted. The research that has been done has assessed the impact of such involvement on areas other than professional development (for example, job satisfaction, costs, and commitment to the organization) (Kimpston & Rogers, 1987). Similarly, although the engagement of teachers in school improvement processes has increased in the last few years, little research has been conducted on the effects of that involvement on their professional development. There are, however, numerous examples that illustrate the various ways schools and districts have enhanced teacher growth by engaging them in the development/improvement process.

In the past few years, many state education agencies have supported implementation of state-initiated reforms through the encouragement (and sometimes mandating) of school improvement processes. For example, the Franklin County (Ohio) Department of Education used a staff development process to assist five school districts to meet mandated state goals (Scholl & McQueen, 1985). Teachers and administrators from the districts learned about the state requirements and developed goals and planning strategies for their districts. A major product of the program was a manual that included a synthesis of information and worksheets that could be used to guide small group activities in the five districts.

School districts have also initiated programs which involved teachers in improvement planning. In the Hammond (Indiana) Public Schools, decision making is school based (Casner-Lotto, 1988). School improvement committees (each composed of 15-20 members, including teachers, administrators, parents, students, and community members) received training in consensus building, brainstorming, creative problem solving, and group dynamics. After this training, each committee develops a "vision of excellence" for its school. As a result, schools have initiated projects in individualized learning, peer evaluation, cross-grade-level reading, and teacher coaching/mentoring.

Sparks, Nowakowski, Hall, Alec, and Imrick (1985) reported on two elementary school improvement projects that led to large gains on state reading tests. The first school's staff decided to review the reading curriculum and to investigate alternative instructional approaches. Teachers task-analyzed the six lowest-scoring objectives on the state test, studied effective instructional techniques, and participated in self-selected professional growth activities. In 2 years the number of students who scored above the average rose from 72 percent to 100 percent. In the second school, teachers adopted a new reading series, revised the kindergarten program, and created a booklet that included practice test items and effective instructional practices for improving student achievement. The percentage of students achieving the reading objectives increased almost 20 percent in 3 years.

The Jefferson County (Colorado) School District has long involved teachers in curriculum development and adaptation (Jefferson County Public Schools, 1974). A cyclical process of needs assessment, curriculum objective statements, curriculum writing, pilot testing and evaluation, and district-wide implementation has been used on a regular basis in the majorontent areas. Teachers involved in writing and pilot test teams hone their skills as curriculum planners and developers and as masters of the new techniques that are incorporated into the curriculum (these have included such strategies as cooperative learning and individualized instruction). They also often take on the role of teacher trainers for the district-wide implementation that follows pilot and field tests (Loucks & Pratt, 1979).

E. J. Wilson High School in Spencerport (New York) is one of many across the country that has implemented elements of effective schools through a systematic school improvement process. Teachers in the school participate with building administrators on a Building Planning Committee which spearheads the achievement of "ideal practices" within the school through a seven-step process that engages the entire faculty in assessment, planning, implementation, and evaluation. As a result, the school climate and student achievement have improved, as have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the teachers involved. This school's outcome is representative of other schools that have implemented similar improvement processes (Kyle, 1985).

These state, school, and district-level efforts illustrate the wide variety of ways in which this model of staff development is being used. While the research and evaluation evidence regarding the impact of these processes on teacher knowledge and skills is not substantial, research does support many of the ingredients contained within these processes. These include commitment to the process by school and building administrators, which includes giving authority and resources to the team to pursue and then implement its agenda; development of knowledge and skills on the part of the teacher participants; adequate, quality time to meet, reflect, and develop; adequate resources to purchase materials, visit other sites, hire consultants to contribute to informed decision making; leadership that provides a vision, direction and guidance, but allows for significant decision

making on the part of the teacher participants; and integration of the effort into other improvement efforts and into other structures that influence teaching and learning in the school (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). When these factors are present, a limited amount of research data and a great deal of self-report data indicate clearly that the desired outcomes of staff development are achieved.

4. Training

In the minds of many educators, training is synonymous with staff development. Most teachers are accustomed to attending workshop-type sessions in which the presenter is the expert who establishes the content and flow of activities. Typically the training session is conducted with a clear set of objectives or learner outcomes. These outcomes frequently include awareness or knowledge (e.g., participants will be able to explain the five principles of cooperative learning) and skill development (e.g., participants will demonstrate the appropriate use of open-ended questions in a class discussion). Joyce and Showers (1988) cite changes in attitudes, transfer of training, and "executive control" (the appropriate and consistent use of new strategies in the classroom) as additional outcomes. It is the trainer's role to select activities (e.g., lecture, demonstration, role-playing, simulation, microteaching) that will aid teachers in achieving the desired outcomes.

Whatever the anticipated outcomes, the improvement of teachers' thinking is an important goal. According to Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987):

> *. . . the purpose of providing training in any practice is not simply to generate the external visible teaching "moves" that bring that practice to bear in the instructional setting but to generate the conditions that enable the practice to be selected and used appropriately and integratively. . . . a major, perhaps the major, dimension of teaching skill is cognitive in nature. (pp. 85-86)*

Underlying assumptions. An assumption that undergirds the training model of staff development is that there are behaviors and techniques that are worthy of replication by teachers in the classroom. This assumption can certainly be supported by the large number of research-based effective teaching practices that have been identified and verified in the past 20 years (Sparks, 1983).

Another assumption underlying this model is that teachers can change their behaviors and learn to replicate behaviors in their classroom that were not previously in their repertoire. As Joyce and Showers (1983) point out, training is a powerful process for enhancing knowledge and skills. "It is plain from the research on training," they say, "that teachers can be wonderful learners. They can master just about any kind of teaching strategy or implement almost any technique as long as adequate training is provided" (p. 2).

Because of a high participant-to-trainer ratio, training is usually a cost-efficient means for teachers to acquire knowledge or skills. Many instructional skills require that teachers view a demonstration of their use to fully understand their implementation. Likewise, certain instructional techniques require for their classroom implementation that teachers have an opportunity to practice them with feedback from a skilled observer. Training may be the most efficient means for large numbers of teachers to view these demonstrations and to receive feedback as they practice.

Theoretical and research underpinnings. The theoretical and research underpinnings for the training model come from several sources, but the most recent and intensive research has been conducted by Joyce and Showers (1988). They have determined that, depending upon the desired outcomes, training might include exploration of theory, demonstration or modeling of a skill, practice of the skill under simulated conditions, feedback about performance, and coaching in the workplace. Their research indicates that this combination of components is necessary if the outcome is skill development.

In addition to those components identified by Joyce and Showers, Sparks (1983) cites the importance of discussion and peer observation as training activities. She notes that discussion is useful both when new concepts or techniques are presented and as a problem-solving tool after teachers have had an opportunity to try out new strategies in their classrooms. Training sessions that are spaced 1 or more weeks apart so that content can be "chunked" for improved comprehension, and so that teachers have opportunities for classroom practice and peer coaching are shown to be more effective than "one-shot" training (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; Sparks, 1983).

Sparks (1983), Wu (1987), and Wood and Kleine (1987) point out the value of teachers as trainers of their peers. Sparks indicates that teachers may learn as much from their peers as from "expert" trainers. She also argues that school districts can afford the type of small-group training that she recommends when peers are used rather than more expensive external consultants. In reviewing the research, Wood and Kleine found that teachers preferred their peers as trainers. Wu's review of the research also confirmed this, finding that when their peers are trainers, teachers feel more comfortable exchanging ideas, play a more active role in workshops, and report that they receive more practical suggestions. There is, however, evidence that indicates that expert trainers who have the critical qualities teachers value in their peers (e.g., a clear understanding of how a new practice works with real students in real classroom settings) can also be highly effective (Crandall, 1983).

Phases of activities. According to Joyce and Showers (1988), "Someone has to decide what will be the substance of the training, who will provide training, when and where the training will be held and for what duration" (p. 69). While training content, objectives, and schedules are often determined by administrators or by the trainer, Wood, McQuarrie, and Thompson's (1982) research-based model advocates involving participants in planning training programs. Participants serve on planning teams which assess needs (using appropriate sources of data), explore various research-based approaches, select content, determine goals and objectives, schedule training sessions, and monitor implementation of the program.

Joyce and Showers (1988) point out that there are specific "learning-to-learn" attitudes and skills that teachers possess or can develop that aid the training process. They cite persistence, acknowledgment of the transfer problem (the need for considerable practice of new skills in the classroom), teaching new behaviors to students, meeting the cognitive demands of innova-

tions (developing a "deep understanding" of new practices), the productive use of peers, and flexibility. The authors list several conditions of training sessions that foster these aptitudes and behaviors: adequate training, opportunities for collegial problem solving, norms that encourage experimentation, and organizational structures that support learning. Sparks' (1983) review of staff development research suggests that a diagnostic process (such as detailed profiles of teaching behaviors based upon classroom observations) may be an important first step in the training process.

After training, in-classroom assistance in the form of peer observation and coaching is critical to the transfer of more complex teaching skills (Joyce & Showers, 1988). The process of data gathering and analysis that accompanies most forms of peer observation is valuable to the observer as well as the observed teacher (Brandt, 1987; Sparks, 1986). A more thorough discussion of this topic can be found in the observation/assessment model described earlier in this article.

Illustrations and outcomes. The power of training to alter teachers' knowledge, attitudes, and instructional skills is well established. Its impact on teachers, however, depends upon its objectives and the quality of the training program. Joyce and Showers (1988) have determined that when all training components are present (theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching), an effect size of 2.71 exists for knowledge-level objectives, 1.25 for skill-level objectives, and 1.68 for transfer of training to the classroom. (The effect size describes the magnitude of gains from any given change in educational practice; the higher the effect size, the greater the magnitude of gain. For instance, an effect size of 1.0 indicates that the average teacher in the experimental group outperformed 84% of the teachers in the control group.) "We have concluded from these data," Joyce and Showers (1988) report, "that teachers can acquire new knowledge and skill and use it in their instructional practice when provided with adequate opportunities to learn" (p. 72). Coaching and peer observation research cited earlier in the observation/assessment model also supports the efficacy of training.

Wade (1985) found in her meta-analysis of inservice teacher education research that training affected participants' learning by an effect size of .90 and their behavior by .60. An effect size of .37 was found for the impact of teacher training on student behavior. Wade also concluded that training groups composed of both elementary and secondary teachers achieved higher effect sizes than did those enrolling only elementary or only secondary teachers.

Gage (1984) traces the evolution of research on teaching from observational and descriptive studies to correlational studies to nine experiments that were designed to alter instructional practices. "The main conclusion of this body of research," Gage wrote, "is that, in eight out of the nine cases, inservice education was fairly effective — not with all teachers and not with all teaching practices but effective enough to change teachers and improve student achievement, or attitudes, or behavior" (p. 92).

Numerous specific illustrations of training programs are available that have demonstrated impact on teacher behavior and/or student learning. For instance, studies indicate that teachers who have been taught cooperative learning strategies for their classrooms have students who have higher achievement, display higher reasoning and greater critical thinking, have more positive attitudes toward the subject area, and like their fellow students better (Johnson, Johnson, Holubec, & Roy, 1984).

Good and Grouws (1987) describe a mathematics staff development program for elementary teachers. In this 10-session program teachers learned more about mathematics content and about instructional and management issues. As a result of the training, the researchers found changes in teachers' classroom practice and improved mathematics presentations. Student mathematics performance was also improved.

Kerman (1979) reports a 3-year study in which several hundred K-12 teachers were trained to improve their interactions with low-achieving students. The five-session training program included peer obser tion in the month interval between e: session. The researchers found that k achieving students in experimental clas made significant academic gains over th counterparts in control groups.

As the preceding discussion indicates, there is a much more substantial research literature on training than on the models presented earlier. Under the appropriate conditions, training has the potential for significantly changing teachers' beliefs, knowledge, behavior, and the performance of their students.

Rauth (1986) describes an American Federation of Teachers training program that brought research on teaching to its members. Teacher Research Linkers (TRLs) first determine which aspects of the research will be most valuable in their teaching. Between sessions they carry out implementation plans in their own classrooms. TRLs are then taught how to effectively share this research with their colleagues. A study of this program indicated that teachers made significant changes in their practice and that, in addition, their morale and collegiality increased dramatically.

Robbins and Wolfe (1987) discuss a 4-year staff development project designed to increase elementary students' engaged time and achievement. Evaluation of the training program documented steady improvement for 3 years in teachers' instructional skills, student engaged time, and student achievement in reading and math. While scores in all these areas dropped in the project's fourth and final year, Robbins and Wolfe argue that this decline was due to insufficient coaching and peer observation during that year.

As the preceding discussion indicates, there is a much more substantial research literature on training than on the models presented earlier. Under the appropriate conditions, training has the potential for significantly changing teachers' beliefs, knowledge, behavior, and the performance of their students.

5. Inquiry

Teacher inquiry can take different forms. A high school teacher wonders if an alteration in her lesson plan from her first period class will produce improved student understanding in second period. A brief written quiz given at the end of the class indicates that it did. A group of teachers gathers weekly after school for an hour or two at the teacher center to examine the research on ability grouping. Their findings will be shared with the district's curriculum council. Several elementary teachers study basic classroom research techniques, formulate research questions, gather and analyze data, and use their findings to improve instruction in their classrooms.

Teacher inquiry may be a solitary activity, be done in small groups, or be conducted by a school faculty. Its process may be formal or informal. It may occur in a classroom, at a teacher center, or result from a university class. In this section teacher inquiry is explored as a staff development model.

Underlying assumptions. Inquiry reflects a basic belief in teachers' ability to formulate valid questions about their own practice and to pursue objective answers to those questions. Loucks-Horsley and her associates (1987) list three assumptions about a teacher inquiry approach to staff development:

- Teachers are intelligent, inquiring individuals with legitimate expertise and important experience.
- Teachers are inclined to search for data to answer pressing questions and to reflect on the data to formulate solutions.
- Teachers will develop new understandings as they formulate their own questions and collect their own data to answer them.

The overarching assumption of the model is that

> *the most effective avenue for professional development is cooperative study by teachers themselves into problems and issues arising from their attempts to make their practice consistent with their educational values. . . . [The approach] aims to give greater control over what is to count as valid educational knowledge to teachers. (Ingvarson, 1987, pp. 15, 17)*

One of the important tenets of the inquiry approach is that research is an important activity in which teachers should be engaged, although they rarely participate in it other than as "subjects."

Theoretical and research underpinnings. The call for inquiry-oriented teachers is not new. Dewey (1933) wrote of the need for teachers to take "reflective action." Zeichner (1983) cites more than 30 years of advocacy for "teachers as action researchers," "teacher scholars," "teacher innovators," "self-monitoring teachers," and "teachers as participant observers."

More recently, various forms of inquiry have been advocated by a number of theorists and researchers. Tikunoff and Ward's (1983) model of interactive research and development promotes teacher inquiry into the questions they are asking through close work with researchers (who help with methodology) and staff developers (who help them create ways of sharing their results with others). Lieberman (1986) reports on a similar process in which teachers serving on collaborative teams pursued answers to school-wide rather than classroom problems. Watts (1985) discusses the role of collaborative research, classroom action research, and teacher support groups in encouraging teacher inquiry. Simmons and Sparks (1985) describe the use of action research to help teachers better relate research on teaching to their unique classrooms.

Glickman (1986) advocates action research in the form of quality circles, problem-solving groups, and school improvement projects as means to develop teacher thought. Cross (1987) proposes classroom research to help teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their own teaching. Glatthorn (1987) discusses action research by teams of teachers as a peer-centered option for promoting professional growth. Loucks-Horsley and her colleagues (1987) discuss teachers-as-researchers as a form of teacher development that helps narrow the gap between research and practice. Sparks and Simmons (1989) propose inquiry-oriented staff development as a means to enhance teachers' decision-making abilities.

One of the important tenets of the inquiry approach is that research is an important

activity in which teachers should be engaged, although they rarely participate in it other than as "subjects." Gable and Rogers (1987) "take the terror out of research" by describing ways in which it can be used as a staff development tool. They discuss both qualitative and quantitative methodology, providing specific strategies that teachers can use in their classrooms. They conclude by saying ". . . the desire to and ability to do research is an essential attribute of the professional teacher of the Eighties" (p. 695).

Phases of activity. While the inquiry model of staff development can take many forms, these forms have a number of elements in common. First, individuals or a group of teachers identify a problem of interest. Next, they explore ways of collecting data that may range from examining existing theoretical and research literature to gathering original classroom or school data. These data are then analyzed and interpreted by an individual or the group. Finally, changes are made, and new data are gathered and analyzed to determine the effects of the intervention.

This process can be adapted to the unique needs of a particular approach to inquiry. For instance, Hovda and Kyle (1984) provide a 10-step process for action research that progresses from identifying interested participants, through sharing several study ideas, to discussing findings, to considering having the study published or presented. Glatthorn (1987) describes a four-step process for action research. Collaborative research teams (a) identify a problem, (b) decide upon specific research questions to be investigated and methodology to be used, (c) carry out the research design, and (d) use the research to design an intervention to be implemented in the school.

Watts (1985) describes "reflective conversations" in which teachers carefully observe and thoughtfully consider a particular child or practice. Using a standard procedure, the group shares observations, reviews previous records and information, summarizes their findings, and makes recommendations. As a final step, the group reviews the process to assess how well it went, looks for gaps, and identifies ideas to repeat in future conversations.

Organizational support and/or technical assistance may be required throughout the phases of an inquiry activity. Organizational support may take the form of structures such as teacher centers or study groups, or of resources such as released time or materials. Technical assistance may involve training in research methodologies, data-gathering techniques, and other processes that aid teachers in making sense of their experiences.

Illustrations and outcomes. The forms inquiry as a staff development model may take are limited only by the imagination. Simmons and Sparks (1985) describe a "Master of Arts in Classroom Teaching" degree designed to help teachers meet their individually identified improvement goals. Teachers in this program learn about educational research, identify and analyze classroom problems, pursue topics of professional interest, and improve their overall teaching ability. The authors report evidence of change in participant knowledge (e.g., concerning effective teaching-learning), thinking (e.g., enhanced problem-solving skills, increased cognitive complexity), and patterns of communication and collegiality.

Teacher development in school districts does not take place in a vacuum. Its success is influenced in many ways by the district's organizational context.

Watts (1985) presents a number of ways in which teachers act as researchers. She discussed collaborative research in teacher centers funded by the Teachers' Center Exchange (then located at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development) that was conducted in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Fourteen projects were funded in which teachers collaborated with researchers on topics of interest to the individual teachers' center. Watts also described ethnographic studies of classrooms conducted collaboratively by teachers and researchers. In addition, she provided examples of classroom action research and teachers' study groups as forms of inquiry. Watts concluded that these three approaches share several outcomes. First, as a result of learning more about research, teachers make more informed decisions about when and how to apply the research findings of others. Second, teachers experience more supportive and collegial relationships. And third, teaching improves as teachers learn more about it by becoming better able to look beyond the immediate, the individual, and the concrete.

The effects of the teacher inquiry model of staff development may reach beyond the classroom to the school. An example of school-wide impact comes from the report of a high school team convened to reflect on a lack of communication and support between teachers and administrators (Lieberman & Miller, 1984). As a result of working together to define the problem, learn each other's perspectives, gather evidence, and formulate solutions, teachers and administrators address important school problems collaboratively. Note that there is a substantial overlap between this kind of "school-based" inquiry and some of the school improvement processes discussed earlier in the model described as involvement in a development/improvement process.

Organizational Context

Teacher development in school districts does not take place in a vacuum. Its success is influenced in many ways by the district's organizational context (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Sparks, 1983). Key organizational factors include school and district climate, leadership attitudes and behaviors, district policies and systems, and the involvement of participants.

While staff development fosters the professional growth of individuals, organiza-

tional development addresses the organization's responsibility to define and meet changing self improvement goals (Dillon-Peterson, 1981). Consequently, effective organizations have the capacity to continually renew themselves and solve problems. Within this context, individuals can grow.

In earlier sections of this article, five models of staff development were discussed that have solid foundations in research and/or practice, and are being used in increasingly robust forms throughout the country today. While each model requires somewhat different organizational supports to make it successful, it is also true that research points to a common set of attributes of the organizational context without which staff development can have only limited success (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). In organizations where staff development is most successful:

- Staff members have a common, coherent set of goals and objectives that they have helped formulate, reflecting high expectations of themselves and their students.
- Administrators exercise strong leadership by promoting a "norm of collegiality," minimizing status differences between themselves and their staff members, promoting informal communication, and reducing their own need to use formal controls to achieve coordination.
- Administrators and teachers place a high priority on staff development and continuous improvement.
- Administrators and teachers make use of a variety of formal and informal processes for monitoring progress toward goals, using them to identify obstacles to such progress and ways of overcoming these obstacles, rather than using them to make summary judgments regarding the "competence" of particular staff members (Conley & Bacharach, 1987).
- Knowledge, expertise, and resources, including time, are drawn on appropriately, yet liberally, to initiate and support the pursuit of staff development goals.

This section briefly highlights the research that supports these organizational attributes.

Organizational Climate

Little (1982) found that effective schools are characterized by norms of collegiality and experimentation. Simply put, teachers are more likely to persist in using new behaviors when they feel the support of colleagues and when they believe that professional risk taking (and its occasional failures) are encouraged. Fullan (1982) reports that the degree of change is strongly related to the extent to which teachers interact with each other and provide technical help to one another. "Teachers need to participate in skill-training workshops," Fullan writes, "but they also need to have one-to-one and group opportunities to receive and give help, and more simply to converse about the meaning of change" (p. 121).

The degree of change is strongly related to the extent to which teachers interact with each other and provide technical help to one another.

Joyce and Showers (1983) point out that "in a loose and disorganized social climate without clear goals, reticent teachers may actually subvert elements of the training process not only for themselves but also for others" (p. 31). While teacher commitment is desirable, it need not necessarily be present initially for the program to be successful. Miles (1983) found that teacher/administrator harmony was critical to the success of improvement efforts, but that it could develop over the course of an improvement effort. Initially, working relationships between teachers and administrators had to be clear and supportive enough so that most participants could "suspend disbelief," believing that the demands of change would be dealt with together (Crandall, 1983). In their study of school improvement efforts that relied heavily on staff development for their success, both Miles and Crandall found that in projects where a mandated strategy caused some initial disharmony between teachers and administrators, the climate changed as the new program's positive impact on students became clear. When a new program was selected carefully and teachers received good training and support, most who were initially skeptical soon agreed with and were committed to the effort. Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) support the position that, at least initially, teachers' ability to use a new practice in a competent way may be more important than commitment.

Few would disagree with the importance of a school and district climate that encourages experimentation and supports teachers to take risks, i.e., establishes readiness for change (Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981). Yet a supportive context consists of more than "good feelings." The quality of the recommended practices is also critical. Research conducted by Guskey (1986) and Loucks and Zacchei (1983) indicates that the new practices developed or chosen by or for teachers need to be effective ones — effective by virtue of evaluation results offered by the developer or by careful testing by the teachers who have developed them. These researchers found that only when teachers see that a new program or practice enhances the learning of their students will their beliefs and attitudes change in a significant way.

Leadership and Support

According to the Rand Change Agent Study (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978) active support by principals and district administrators is critical to the success of any change effort. According to McLaughlin and Marsh (1978):

> *The Rand research sets the role of the principal as instructional leader in the context of strengthening the school improvement process through team building and problem solving in a "project-like" context. It suggests that principals need to give clear messages that teachers may take responsibility for their own professional growth. (p. 92)*

Stallings and Mohlman (1981) determined that teachers improved most in staff

development programs where the principal supported them and was clear and consistent in communicating school policies. Likewise, Fielding and Schalock (1985) report a study in which principals' involvement in teachers' staff development produced longer-term changes than when principals were not involved.

In their discussion of factors that affect the application of innovations, Loucks and Zacchei (1983) wrote ". . . administrators in successful improvement sites take their leadership roles seriously and provide the direction needed to engage teachers in the new practices" (p. 30).

According to Huberman (1983), teachers' successful use of new skills often occurs when administrators exert strong and continuous pressure for implementation. He argues that ". . . administrators, both at the central office and building levels, have to go to center stage and stay there if school improvement efforts are to succeed" (p. 27). While administrator presence is important, administrators must also act as gate-keepers of change so that "innovation overload" can be avoided (Anderson & Odden, 1986).

While much research points to administrators as being key leaders in staff development and change, it is also true that others can take on leadership and support roles — and may in fact be better placed to do so. Research on school improvement indicates that a team approach can help orchestrate leadership and support "functions" which can be shared by administrators (building and district level), district coordinators or staff developers, teachers, and external trainers and consultants (Loucks-Horsley & Hergert, 1985). For example, Cox (1983) reports that while principals seem to play an important role in clarifying expectations and goals and stabilizing the school organization, central office coordinators, who often know more about a specific practice, can effectively coach teachers in their attempts to change their classroom behavior. Coordinated leadership can also help avoid situations such as a school's textbooks and curriculum not matching the instructional models teachers are being taught to use (Fielding & Schalock, 1985).

District Policies and Systems

Staff development activities occur within the context of a school district's staff development program. According to Ellis (1988), a comprehensive staff development program includes a philosophy, goals, allocation of resources, and coordination. The philosophy spells out beliefs that guide the program. District, school, and individual goals (and their accompanying action plans) provide direction to staff development efforts. Resources need to be allocated at the district, school, and individual levels so that these goals have a reasonable chance of being achieved. Staff development programs need to be coordinated by individuals who have an assigned responsibility for this area. Ellis also supports the use of a district-level staff development committee to aid in coordination of programs.

While much research points to administrators as being key leaders in staff development and change, it is also true that others can take on leadership and support roles — and may in fact be better placed to do so.

The selection, incorporation, or combination of the models of staff development described in this article are the responsibility of the district's staff development structure. Decisions about their use need to match the intended outcomes if they are to be effective (Levine & Broude, 1989), but these decisions are also influenced by state and/or community initiatives aimed at the improvement of schools and/or teaching (Anderson & Odden, 1986).

Participant Involvement

Research clearly indicates that involving participants in key decisions about staff development is necessary for a program to have its greatest impact. According to Lieberman and Miller (1986), a supportive context for staff development requires both a "top-down" and "bottom-up" approach. The top-down component sets a general direction for the district or school and communicates expectations regarding performance. The bottom-up processes involve teachers in establishing goals and designing appropriate staff development activities.

The establishment of common goals is important to the success of staff development efforts (Ward & Tikunoff, 1981). Odden and Anderson's (1986) research indicates that a clearly defined process of data collection, shared diagnosis, and identification of solutions to problems must be employed during the planning phase. Collaboration, from initial planning through implementation and institutionalization, is a key process in determining these goals and in influencing lasting change (Lambert, 1984; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Wood, Thompson, & Russell, 1981).

Lortie (1986) argues that when teachers perceive that they can participate in important school-level decisions, the relationship between the extra efforts required by school improvement and the benefits of these efforts becomes clearer. Following this argument, he recommends that schools be given relatively little detailed supervision, but be monitored instead for results based on explicit criteria.

Others report that, when teachers cannot be involved in initial decisions regarding staff development (e.g., when it is mandated by state legislation or when it supports the use of district-wide curriculum), their involvement in decisions about the "hows" and "whens" of implementation can be important to success. Furthermore, teachers' involvement in developing curriculum and as trainers for staff development programs can contribute in important ways to the success of an effort (Loucks & Pratt, 1979).

Odden and Anderson (1986) capture the reciprocal relationship between organization and individual development in this discussion of their research:

> *When instructional strategies, which aim to improve the skills of individuals, were successful, they had significant effects on schools as organizations. When school strategies, which aim to improve schools as organizations, were successful, they had significant impacts on individuals. (p. 585)*

The importance of paying attention to the context of staff development is underscored by Fullan (1982). He responds to educators who say that they cannot provide the elements required to support change (e.g., supportive principals, a 2- or 3-year time period for implementation):

> *Well don't expect much implementation to occur . . . I say this not because I am a cynic but because it is wrong to let hopes blind us to the actual obstacles to change. If these obstacles are ignored, the experience with implementation can be harmful to the adults and children directly involved — more harmful than if nothing had been done. (p. 103)*

Staff development both influences and is influenced by the organizational context in which it takes place. The impact of the staff development models that have been discussed depends not only upon their individual or blended use, but upon the features of the organization in which they are used.

Conclusion

Staff development is a relatively young "science" within education. In many ways the current knowledge base in staff development is similar to what was known about teaching in the early 1970s. During the 1970s and early 1980s research on teaching advanced from descriptive to correlational to experimental (Gage, 1984). With the exception of research on training, much of the staff development literature is theoretical and descriptive rather than experimental. The remaining two sections describe what can be said with some confidence about the research base for the staff development models and what remains to be learned.

What Can Be Said with Confidence

Staff development possesses a useful "craft knowledge" that guides the field. This craft knowledge includes ways to organize, structure, and deliver staff development programs (Caldwell, 1989). It has been disseminated in the past decade through publications such as *The Journal of Staff Development*, *Educational Leadership*, and *Phi Delta Kappan*, and through thousands of presentations at workshops and conventions. As a result, in the past 20 years hundreds of staff development programs have been established in urban, suburban, and rural school districts throughout the United States and Canada. This craft knowledge serves another useful purpose: It can guide researchers in asking far better questions than they could have asked a decade ago.

Of the five models discussed in this article, the research on training is the most robust. It is the most widely used form of staff development and the most thoroughly investigated. As a result, it is possible to say with some confidence which training elements are required to promote the attainment of specific outcomes. Likewise, research on coaching has demonstrated the importance of in-classroom assistance to teachers (by an "expert" or by a peer) for the transfer of training to the classroom.

The consensus of "expert opinion" is that school improvement is a systemic process (Fullan, 1982). This ecological approach recognizes that changes in one part of a system influence the other parts. Consequently, staff development both influences and is influenced by the organizational context in which it takes place. The impact of the staff development models that have been discussed depends not only upon their individual or blended use, but upon the features of the organization in which they are used.

While this appears to relate to the "art" of making staff development work (i.e., the judgment with which one combines and juggles the various organizational interactions), there is also much "science" that can be drawn from when it comes to the organizational supports necessary for effective staff development. Study after study confirms the necessity of:

- Schools possessing norms that support collegiality and experimentation
- District and building administrators who work with staff to clarify goals and expectations, and actively commit to and support teachers' efforts to change their practice
- Efforts that are strongly focused on changes in curricular, instructional, and classroom management practices with improved student learning as the goal
- Adequate, appropriate staff development experiences with follow-up assistance that continues long enough for new behaviors to be incorporated into ongoing practice

Interestingly enough, it appears that these factors apply to a wide variety of school improvement and staff development efforts. While there are little hard research data on some of the models discussed above (see next section), most if not

all of these factors will certainly persist as being important, regardless of what is learned about other models.

What We Need to Learn More About

While the work of staff developers during the past decade has been grounded in theory and research from various disciplines (e.g., adult learning, organization development, training), the scientific base of their own practice (with the exception of training and coaching) is quite thin. Unfortunately, the systematic study of some of the models discussed earlier is difficult because their use is not widespread or because they have been implemented only recently as part of comprehensive staff development programs. Listed below are areas for further study.

1. We need research to determine the potency of the models described above (with the exception of training). We need to learn which models are most effective for which outcomes with which teachers. For instance, we might ask: How effective is individually-guided staff development for knowledge level outcomes for self-directed experienced teachers? Or: How effective is an inquiry approach in helping beginning teachers learn their craft?

2. We need a better understanding of the impact on student learning of the four non-training staff development models. Do non-training models alter teacher knowledge or skills in a way that improves student learning?

3. We need to know more about the impact on teachers of blending the models described above in a comprehensive staff development program. How are teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and skills altered when they choose among and blend various models as the means of reaching one or more "growth" goals? For instance, what would be the result if a teacher blended individually-guided staff development (e.g., reading research on tracking), observation/assessment (e.g., peer observation), and training (e.g., in cooperative learning) as means to alter classroom practices that are viewed as disadvantageous to a sub-group of students?

4. We need a systemic view of comprehensive staff development at the district level. Most districts provide a variety of staff development opportunities to teachers. Some purposely support individual, school-based, and district-based activities. We need descriptive studies of what these programs look like, both from the overall, coordination point of view and from the individual teacher point of view. We need to know: How are goals set and coordinated? How are resources allocated? How equitable are opportunities for individual teachers? How do different contextual factors (e.g., resources, state mandates) influence success?

5. We need to understand more about the relative costs of different staff development models and combinations of the models. Moore and Hyde (1978, 1979, 1981) have conducted some useful analyses of how many school district resources actually go for staff development purposes. But more micro-analyses would be useful to understand the cost-effectiveness of relatively labor-intensive models (e.g., coaching) versus those that rely only on the activity of a single teacher (e.g., individually-guided staff development).

6. Finally, we need to look at staff development as it contributes to teacher professionalism and teacher leadership. Many believe that teacher professionalism and leadership must characterize our education system in the future if that system is to survive. Yet there are as many different definitions of the terms as there are ideas of how to implement them. One role of staff development research is to help identify and clarify the various meanings given to these concepts. We then need descriptive studies of staff development's contributions to these efforts, with special attention to how these efforts influence the conduct of staff development.

It is possible that future research may contradict current craft knowledge (this, for example, has occurred with the learning that attitude change does not always have to precede behavior change), or, as is likely, future research will support current practice. Many questions about effective staff development remain unanswered. The need is great for well-designed, long-term studies of school improvement efforts that are based on staff development. The field of staff development seeks a solid base that moves beyond description and advocacy to a better understanding of those factors that support and improve classroom practice.

Reference Note

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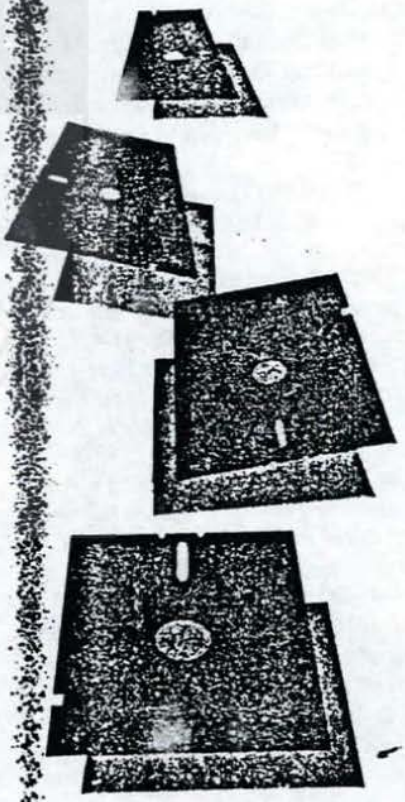

Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

Projected First Year Outcomes in Personnel

Critical Path to Developing Individual Lead Community Personnel Action Plan

Overview

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

I. Data Analysis Completed

II. Reports Discussed

III. "Action" before the Action Plan: Pilot Projects

IV. Planning Committee Prepares Action Plan

V. Action Plan for Personnel Discussed in Community

VI. Stages of Implementation

Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

Projected First Year Outcomes in Personnel

Critical Path to Developing Individual Lead Community Personnel Plan

I. Data Analysis Completed

A. Professional Lives of Educators

B. Educator's Survey

*survey administered

*what are the critical questions we want to have answered

*who will convey them to Ellen

*data analysis returned to communities

C. Report on Policy Implications Received from Ellen and Adam

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

II. Reports Discussed

Goals of the discussions:
To shape the personnel plan of the community
To engage the leadership -- lay and professional -- in a discussion about the issues of personnel in the community

A. Professional Lives of Educators

*what do we want to come out of the discussion?
*who should lead and organize the discussion?
*who should the participants be?
*when?

B. Educator's Survey

*what do we want to come out of the discussion?
*who should lead and organize the discussion?
*who should the participants be?
*when?

C. Policy Implications Report

*what do we want to come out of the discussion?
*who should lead and organize the discussion?
*who should the participants be?
*when?

The result of these discussions: policy implications for action plan

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

III. Planning Committee Prepares Action Plan

A. Mapping current and future situations:

1. Implications of data analysis reports-- results of Step II above.
   (recruitment, pre-and in-service needs, shortages, etc.)

2. Predict future needs with input from local educators

   * demographic trends
     (does community have demographic data, e.g. need for early child ed.?)
   * retirements
   * impact of plans of individual institutions in community
     (are there plans on the books for expansion of day school into high school, family educator positions in synagogues, new Israel programs)

3. Current and future financial picture
   (campaign, community foundation, endowments, grants)

Results = Issues in Personnel that our community needs to address

B. So what are we going to do?

1. What are appropriate strategies to address issues raised by mapping?

   *best practice currently available
   *new ideas to community's issues (e.g. programmatic, structural)

2. Lay out options and resources available
   (resources include things like: local, national, international training institutions; denominations; local universities, etc.)

3. Apply "screens" of content, scope and quality to options

   scope:
   *does initiative cover major settings and institutions in which all or most of education takes place?
   *will all or most people in the community be touched by the initiative?
   *is the initiative aimed at effecting profound and lasting change?

   content:
   *is the initiative substantive, content-filled, thoughtful?
   *is it based in a projection of a vision of Jewish education with a striving toward specified goals?
   *is it reflective of the learnings from "Best Practice"

4. Cost out options

5. Feasibility of options

   *resources (human and financial) available
   *demands of scheduling, etc.

6. Prioritize the options?

Results: Issues in Personnel that our community needs to address

IV. Action Plan for Personnel Discussed in Community

A. Where will action plan be discussed?

B. When?

C. By whom?

D. Projected outcomes (pilot projects)

E. Who is responsible to carry the plan out?

V. Stages of Implementation

A. Plans

B. Who provides service?

C. Funding

D. Timetable

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

File

FROM: Gail Dorph, 73321,1217
TO: Ginny, 73321,1223
CC: Alan, 73321,1220
Barry, 73321,1221
DATE: 2/24/95 12:50 PM

Re: committee minutes

SUMMARY OF COMMITTEE ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

Date: February , 1995
Present: Gail Dorph, Annette Hochstein, Morton Mandel

Gail's report at the Steering Committee highlighted CIJE's plans for building the profession through building capacity for teacher and leadership training. At the meeting of the Committee on Building the Profession, we discussed some of the issues and challenges that emerge from the conceptualization of the plans to create a high quality cadre of teacher trainers to deliver inservice programs at the local and national level were discussed. A strategy for thinking about the plan in a way that departs from the way in which Gail presented it in the morning meeting was developed.

The issues discussed included:

1. The difficulty in getting sufficient time from the "Virtual College" faculty to actually use them as primary faculty for inservice programs.

2. The challenge for CIJE to serve as a catalyst for inservice training if our plans only include an intervention at the topmost level of the pyramid.

3. Isadore Twersky's suggestion to create a program for Master Teachers who would practically immediately engage in the teaching of other teachers.

The strategy that emerged suggests beginning not only by identifying and working with the virtual college faculty but also with a larger pool of potential teacher trainers (including not only central agency personnel and principals, but also with master teachers). This strategy addresses the concerns inherent in all the issues that we discussed. Gail will develop this strategy more fully and report back.

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

B-T-P

Summary of Committee on Building the Profession
April 27, 1995

participants: Walter Ackerman (guest), Raymond Bloom, Gail Dorph (staff), Joshua Fishman, Alfred Gottschalk, Jim Joseph, Gershon Kekst, Morton Mandel (acting chair), Louise Stein

Last October, this committee, after listening to Adam Gamoran's summary of the CIJE findings on the background and training of Jewish educators, instructed Gail Dorph to draw up a plan for CIJE's work in the area of in-service education particularly for teachers. Dorph's presentation and the reports at today's board meeting began to outline CIJE's response to this complicated issue.

At the committee meeting, Dorph presented an outline of CIJE's 1995 workplan in the area of professional development. It follows these minutes.

Rather than devote itself to studying the details of this plan, the committee responded to possible policy implications of the report that Dorph had presented to the board in the morning. At that time, she spoke about the content and characteristics of effective professional development as well as the conditions that would need to be present for such profssional development opportunities to exist. Certain policy implications emerge from this approach to professional development. In order to get some sense of the kinds of policy implications, Dorph brought a set of policy recommendations developed by William McDiarmid and his colleagues at the National Center for Research on Teacher Learning at Michigan State University.

Our committee studied the seven recommendations, prioritized them and made suggestions as to their importance for Jewish education.

The list of recommendations included the following:

1. establish a task force on professional development
2. create teacher networks
3. develop on-line programs
4. create school professional development plans
5. establish a principals' center
6. create subject matter councils
7. document efforts aimed at teacher development

The committee was unanimous in its feelings that CIJE ought to develop a task force on progessional development (recommendation #1). It also concurred that Recommendation #3, interpreted as exploring the potential of technology for Jewish education, was important. It was not clear that this fell under CIJE's rubric, but it was felt that this exploration ought to be encouraged. The third issue that the committee discussed was the option of developing a national principals' center (Recommendation #5) ala the Harvard principals' center. This led to an interesting discussion about what other kinds of national institutes might "make sense." One participant described the Whizin Institute focusing on

Family Education at the University of Judaism as an example of a type of Institute. One suggestion was the development of a national curriculum institute.

Because meeting time was short, we left the discussion at this point.

Gail Dorph handed out a recent article from Education News about professional development. It is included with these notes.

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

Building the Profession Committee

Name	Attending 4/21 Meeting?
Morton Mandel, Chair	Yes
Gail Dorph, Staff*	Yes
Max Fisher	No
Joshua Fishman*	Yes
Charles Goodman	No
Alfred Gottschalk	No
Robert Hirt*	Yes
Gershon Kekst	(Arriving 1:00)
Norman Lamm	Yes
Norman Lipoff	No
Ismar Schorsch	Yes
Louise Stein*	No
Maynard Wishner	Yes

[Expect 8 people, including G. Kekst.]

*Not a Board member

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

TO: MEMBERS OF CIJE COMMITTEE ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

FROM: LESTER POLLACK

RE: APRIL 27 COMMITTEE MEETING

4/11/95

At our October meeting, Drs. Adam Gamoran and Ellen Goldring presented the findings of the CIJE Study of Educators on the background and training of teachers in the three laboratory communities. These findings suggested the importance of creating serious ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers. Our committee recommended that CIJE design a plan to address this challenge. A first version of that plan will be presented at our committee meeting, where we will have time to review and discuss it.

Included with this memo are two items:

1. An update of CIJE's recent activities in the domain of building the profession. You will hear more about some of these initiatives during the board meeting itself.

2. A short piece from a recent issue of the New York Times that raises the critical need for ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers. Although written about general educational settings, this article addresses many of the issues and challenges we have been discussing in the area of building the profession of Jewish education.

This is a very important meeting; I hope to see you there.

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COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

COMMITTEE ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

AGENDA

April 27, 1995

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

1.	Welcome	Morton Mandel
2.	1995 Workplan	Gail Dorph
3.	Discussions	Morton Mandel

COMMITTEE ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

April 27, 1995

CIJE'S 1995 WORKPLAN ON BUILDING THE PROFESSION

Building National Teacher Education Capacity

Develop a cadre of educators to work in the planning and implementation of professional development in early childhood, supplementary and day school settings

National Pilot Initiatives

1. Harvard Principal Center Model -- "Creating Learning Communities"
2. Create cadre of "Mentor Educators" for supplementary schools (Cummings Grant)
3. Cadre of Mentor Educators to work in early childhood settings
4. Develop a cadre of "lead teachers" to work in day school settings (Teachers Teaching Teachers)

Development of Community Personnel Action Plans

Development of Pilot Initiatives in Communities

Begin a Series of Consultations on Issues of Standards, Certification, Benefits

First Steps Towards Creating a Comprehensive Plan for Personnel

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AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

CIJE
Building The Profession

UPDATE
From October, 1994 through April, 1995

Building National Teacher Education Capacity

CIJE has been developing a plan to create a cadre of "Mentor-Educators" who can work with communities and institutions both to develop and to implement In-Service offerings on the local level. A national task force of experts will plan and serve as the faculty for the first cohort of participants. This first cohort will then become part of the faculty of this College Without Walls and will participate in educating future cohorts.

This first cohort will be made up of educators who have extensive Judaica background, years of experience in the field of Jewish education and experience helping others learn to teach. A seminar for this group cohort is being planned for this summer.

Developing Pilot Initiatives at the National Level

CIJE and the Harvard Principals' Center developed a seminar for educational leaders on "Building a Community of Leaders: Creating a Shared Vision." The seminar was designed to bring together educational leaders across denominations and across settings (pre-school, supplementary school, and day school). Over fifty educational leaders participated in the seminar taught by educators and scholars, such as, Roland Barth, Terence Deal, Arthur Green, Ellen Goldring, and Isadore Twersky. In the three lead communities, the educators who participated in the seminar continue to meet together to discuss substantive shared issues. These meetings have included sharing the ways in which they have adopted and adapted the materials and strategies learned at the seminar in their own settings. Often these sessions have been facilitated by the central agency and lead community professionals who also attended the Harvard seminar.

Development of Communal Personnel Action Plans

Each of the lead communities has been involved in the development of a comprehensive personnel action plan. The logistics of the planning process has taken a unique form in each community. In all three cases, educational

professionals are key players in the process. CIJE has been assisting communities in this work by consulting on the process, co-planning meetings and sometimes attending meetings as well.

In order to provide guidance and information as well as to facilitate cross community feedback, CIJE has held two consultations in December and March with another planned for May. Each of these consultations was structured around an issue critical to the development of these action plans. Educational papers were mailed out before and after.

In preparation for the December consultation, Dr. Gail Dorph and Dr. Barry Holtz prepared an outline of a generic personnel action plan along with planning tools to facilitate the use of the outline. Because the format was so fruitful, a longer (two day) consultation was planned for March.

In March, Dr. Dorph supplied communities with a working paper outlining what is currently considered "best practices" in In-Service education in general education. In addition, Holtz and Dorph suggested a strategy for using the guide to both evaluate current in-service offerings and design new programs.

The March consultation also provided an opportunity for representatives of the denominations to present their thinking about the arena of in-service education. Participants included: Rabbi Robert Hirt and Dr. Alvin Schiff of Yeshiva University, Dr. Kerry Olitzky of Hebrew Union College, Dr. Robert Abramson of United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism and Aharon Eldar of the Torah Department of the World Zionist Organization. In the discussion which ensued, lead community representatives were also able to share the issues with which they are struggling. These include:

1. How do we induct new teachers into the system?
2. How do we develop supervisors and mentors to provide on-site guidance and support to teachers?
3. How do we provide for on-going professional development for our educational leaders?
4. How do we create standards for our teachers in all of our settings, but particularly in supplementary and early childhood settings?

The May consultation will be devoted to a discussion of the CIJE Study of Educators findings about the educational leaders in our communities and the implications of these findings for personnel action planning.

Development of Pilot Initiatives in Communities

CIJE has been involved in the planning of two pilot initiatives in building the

profession, one in Milwaukee and one in Baltimore.

In Milwaukee, the personnel action team's first decision in the creation of a personnel action plan has been the decision to create a local/regional opportunity for its educators to gain a masters degree in Jewish studies with a concentration in education. Milwaukee has received a grant from the Bader foundation to partially fund a masters program that will be run by the Cleveland College of Jewish Studies. The program will include courses in Milwaukee taught by the Cleveland College faculty, video-conference courses, and summer courses in Cleveland at the college. The program will be housed at MAJE (the Milwaukee Association for Jewish Education) which will also coordinate and co-staff the internship program. At this date, the program has been funded.

In Baltimore, a plan is being developed to create a model program for early childhood educators. The program will be geared to the enhancement of the Jewish content of early childhood programs in a limited number of settings. The program will include both teachers and directors of the institutions chosen to participate. Breishit: In the Beginning: Machon L'Morim for Jewish Early Childhood Educators comes at the initiation of the Children of Lyn and Harvey Meyerhoff Foundation and is being funded by the foundation.

Professional Meetings and Presentations

Drs. Holtz and Dorph have made presentations at the General Assembly (November) and at the Jewish Educators Association Conference (March) on "Using Best Practices to Improve Your Supplementary School." At the JEA, they also reported on the findings and implications of the CIJE Study of Educators. These presentations were well attended. Participants responses indicate the importance of both of these projects to both lay and professional leaders.

Gail Dorph

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NY Times · March 19, 1995

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Where We Stand

By Albert Shanker, President
American Federation of Teachers

Beyond Magic Bullets

Educators are always looking for a magic bullet—a hot, new idea that will take care of all the problems with our education system. That accounts for the love affair with vouchers and market schools, EAI-type ventures into privatization and, most recently, charter schools. And we can be sure that next year it will be something else. Like people who are always eager to try the latest miracle diet, they think that the next fix will be the one that finally turns things around.

But these fads don't get to the heart of the educational enterprise. If we want to change our schools for the better, we have to change what goes on in the classroom between teachers and students. There is nothing revolutionary about this idea: It is common sense. It is also extremely difficult to do. Leon Lederman's recent description of Teachers Academy for Math and Science (TAMS), a privately funded organization providing in-service training to elementary school teachers in Chicago, shows what is involved (*The Sciences*, January-February 1995).

This is not flashy stuff. It is basic common sense. It is also tough and demanding.

Lederman, a Nobel laureate in physics and director emeritus of the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory who now works with TAMS, believes that good early training in science and math opens some important doors for children:

> ...science and mathematics, taught in the right way, engage children, resonate with their own natural curiosity and open a door to the joy of learning.... A positive introduction to the study of science and mathematics serves as a foundation for an interest in those topics throughout a person's lifetime. And as for the relevance of the curriculum, the engines that drive the changes in contemporary society are science and science-based technology.

But none of this will happen—indeed kids are likely to be turned off math and science—if they don't have teachers who know these disciplines *and* how to guide children in learning them. And the sad truth is that many elementary school teachers do not have the background to do a good job. This is no reflection on their hard work or devotion. They are victims of poor preparation and a system that frustrates their efforts to learn and change while they are on the job instead of supporting these efforts. In Japan, as Lederman points out, teachers spend nearly half their time working together to improve the lessons they teach and the way they teach them, and there is ample money to support professional development activities. In the U.S., however, teachers seldom have a chance to consult with their peers about their teaching, and little or no money is spent on helping them upgrade their skills and knowledge; Lederman says the figure is usually less than 1 percent in Chicago. The problem of poor instruction in math and science is especially acute in an urban school system where expectations tend to be low—and, tragically, where youngsters have the most to gain from excellent instruction.

But, Lederman says, TAMS shows how, given the time and resources, teachers can learn the skills they need—and are elated by the process:

> In the past four years we have introduced seventy-two schools and some 3,200 teachers to our program—and some of them have been with us for as many as three years. On average, they have received roughly 120 hours of instruction in science, 140 hours in mathematics and more than 140 hours of additional close teaching supervision. That leaves only...420 schools and 14,000 teachers to go.
>
> Changing culture is never easy. That so much time and effort (and money) are needed should be no surprise to the funding agencies, but it is. We estimate that to sustain the efforts we have begun in Chicago will probably take an investment of between $3,000 and $4,000 a year per teacher for perhaps three to four years.... The total is equivalent to the tuition for one year at a mid-priced university. Yet one of the curious and inexplicable frustrations of our work has been the difficulty of getting the money to sustain it.
>
> Does the program work? Yes! Teachers love it. And when it is well managed, it creates an intense, joyous learning process. Such interventions also lead to a greatly energized teaching corps, in which the new teaching style spreads to other subjects and brings with it technology that can fruitfully enhance the teacher's effectiveness.

This is not flashy stuff. It is basic common sense. It is also tough, demanding and expensive, and it takes time—which may explain why educators often ignore this kind of thing in favor of quick-fix schemes. Lederman does not believe that schools can, by themselves, mount programs to bring about necessary changes in teaching and learning, and he may be right. But there are signs that the public is becoming skeptical of reforms that substitute flash and dazzle for attention to basic issues, and I believe and hope that reforms like the one he describes will increasingly find powerful public support.

Minutes:	CIJE Board Committee on Building the Profession
Date of Meeting:	April 27, 1995
Date Minutes Issued:	May 15, 1995
Present:	Morton Mandel (Acting Chair), Walter Ackerman, (Guest) Raymond Bloom (Guest), Joshua Fishman, Alfred Gottschalk, Jim Joseph (Guest), Gershon Kekst, Louise Stein
Staff:	Gail Dorph

Last October, this committee, after listening to Adam Gamoran's summary of the CIJE findings on the background and training of Jewish educators, instructed Gail Dorph to draw up a plan for CIJE's work in the area of in-service education particularly for teachers. Dorph's presentation and the reports at today's board meeting began to outline CIJE's response to this complicated issue.

At the committee meeting, Dorph presented an outline of CIJE's 1995 workplan in the area of professional development. It follows these minutes.

Rather than devote itself to studying the details of this plan, the committee responded to possible policy implications of the report that Dorph had presented to the board in the morning. At that time, she spoke about the content and characteristics of effective professional development as well as the conditions that would need to be present for such professional development opportunities to exist. Certain policy implications emerge from this approach to professional development. In order to get some sense of the kinds of policy implications, Dorph brought a set of policy recommendations developed by William McDiarmid and his colleagues at the National Center for Research on Teacher Learning at Michigan State University.

Our committee studied the seven recommendations, prioritized them and made suggestions as to their importance for Jewish education.

The list of recommendations included the following:

1. Establish a task force on professional development
2. Create teacher networks
3. Develop on-line programs
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The committee was unanimous in its feelings that CIJE ought to develop a task force on professional development (Recommendation #1). It also concurred that Recommendation #3, interpreted as exploring the potential of technology for Jewish education, was important.

It was not clear that this fell under CIJE's rubric, but it was felt that this exploration ought to be encouraged. The third issue that the committee discussed was the option of developing a national principals' center (Recommendation #5) ala the Harvard principals' center. This led to an interesting discussion about what other kinds of national institutes might "make sense." One participant described the Whizin Institute focusing on Family Education at the University of Judaism as an example of a type of institute. One suggestion was the development of a national curriculum institute.

Because meeting time was short, we left the discussion at this point.

Gail Dorph handed out a recent article from Education News about professional development. It is included with these notes.

AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

Signs Abound Teaching Reforms Are Taking Hold

By Ann Bradley

Meet Samantha, who is beginning her teaching career in an urban, multiethnic elementary school. Unlike countless new teachers who have preceded her, Samantha is unlikely to quit her job in the next five years.

Instead, she enters the classroom fully armed with the knowledge and skills she needs. She is a graduate of a nationally accredited preparation program, where she received a rigorous liberal-arts education, studied research-based pedagogy, and worked with real students in real schools.

Samantha also has passed a battery of exams focusing not only on what she knows, but also on whether she can put that knowledge into action. She has completed a yearlong, supervised internship in a professional-development school—a requirement for licensure in her state.

This new teacher understands children and how they learn, can tailor lessons to meet their needs, and can explain, based on research and proven practices, how she makes decisions. In short, she is a professional.

Scrutiny Yields Action

This illustration, drawn from a portrait created by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, may sound too good to be true. It contrasts sharply with existing standards for licensure in most states, which still look primarily at whether a candidate has completed certain coursework and attended a state-approved teacher education program.

But a decade of sustained scrutiny of the occupation's shortcomings has generated a multitude of signs that teaching is on the road toward becoming a true profession. Consider:

• The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, created in 1987 to elevate teaching by codifying what expert teachers should know and be able to do, this year awarded its first certificates.

• Spurred by the national board's work,

Continued on Page 16

Reforms Spur Teaching Toward Status as a True Profession

Continued from Page 1

states are overhauling their licensing standards for beginning teachers.

A consortium of 38 states has drafted model standards for licensing teachers that describe the knowledge, skills, and dispositions beginning teachers should possess. Four states have adopted the standards outright, and 10 more have modified them.

In addition, 10 states involved in the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, called INTASC, are creating assessments that examine how

candidates for licensure fare in classrooms.

The assessments, through videotapes and portfolios, look at several weeks of teaching and include samples of students' work.

• The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education continues to strengthen its standards and press the case for education schools to subject their programs to professional scrutiny.

• A blue-ribbon National Commission on Teaching and America's Future is examining how policymakers can capitalize on the momentum by overhauling the preparation, recruitment, selection, induction, and continuing professional development of teachers.

• With the active support of the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers, researchers at the University of Wisconsin at Madison are studying new ways to pay teachers.

They seek to design and pilot-

> *"This is the beginning of the generation that will professionalize teaching."*
>
> ■
>
> **Albert Shanker**
>
> *President, American Federation of Teachers*

test a compensation structure that would pay teachers for showing they had developed specific skills and expertise.

Experts say the activity in teaching is reminiscent of the strides toward professionalism that doctors took some 80 years ago.

"If you think about how long it took to professionalize medicine, it was a generation," observed Albert Shanker, the president of the A.F.T. "This is the beginning of the generation that will professionalize teaching."

'Taking Major Steps'

James A. Kelly, the president of the teaching-standards board, agreed.

"The teaching profession is taking major steps to take responsibility for its own standards, for defining expertise and codifying it and measuring it," he said. "Having said that, though, I don't pretend that we're there yet. We have a long way to go."

The current reforms were spurred, in large measure, by an influential 1986 report from a task force of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy

The report, "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century," called for the establishment of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards and sought changes in schools that would make teaching a more attractive job. *(See Education Week, May 21, 1986.)*

Since then, the drumbeat for increased student achievement has strengthened policymakers' attention to teaching. After all, high standards for students cannot be met without highly skilled teachers.

"This is the most important initiative to transform schooling going on in the country today," said Linda Darling-Hammond, a professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, and the executive director of the national commission on teaching. "We cannot do any of the other reforms if we don't do this."

She acknowledged a heightened rhetorical commitment to the importance of good teaching, but noted that decades of emphasis

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>
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>
> *Professor, Teachers College*

on the routine and less skilled aspects of teaching still heavily influence how teachers and schools are managed.

Ms. Darling-Hammond observed that contemporary calls for teaching students to think critically, synthesize information, and create knowledge mirror the suggestions of progressive educators for transforming schools around 1900, and again in the 1930's and 1960's.

Every time, reforms were "killed by an underinvestment in teacher knowledge and school capacity," she wrote in a recent paper for the commission.

These failures led, in turn, to a backlash in favor of standardizing teaching and learning.

Linking Standards

NCATE has taken a leading role in pulling together and making coherent much of the effort to professionalize teaching.

The council has launched a $2

million project to link the three quality-assurance mechanisms in the field—accreditation, licensing, and advanced-certification standards—and tie them to emerging benchmarks for student learning.

One strand of this New Professional Teacher Project involves revamping NCATE's standards for preparing teachers in mathematics, English, and other subject areas.

The new standards, to be created in partnership with subject-area groups, will express the knowledge and skills teacher candidates should have, rather than the content of courses that education schools should offer.

They also will be compatible with INTASC's standards for state licensure, which already have been incorporated into the accrediting body's guidelines for educa-

tion schools. Those guidelines are scheduled to take effect in the fall.

Arthur E. Wise, the president of NCATE, envisions a variety of uses for the performance-based standards for preparing teachers: as a beacon for education schools as they redesign their programs, as guidelines for NCATE to use in accrediting education programs, and as directions for states as they design new licensing systems.

As part of the New Professional Teacher Project, the accrediting group plans a series of forums in several states that will gather a wide range of stakeholders to discuss plans for improving teacher education and licensure.

"There has not been an educational process to help people see the benefits of a serious quality-

assurance system," Mr. Wise said.

Teacher education and teaching have suffered from "a pale imitation" of such a system, he said, and it is up to the states to fix the problem.

"The state is where the action is," he said.

Critics have charged that low state standards have allowed too many poor teacher education programs to produce graduates who then receive licenses to teach. Low standards also have given the public the damaging idea, Ms. Darling-Hammond said, that teaching does not involve any particular knowledge and skills.

One key to making teaching a profession, proponents believe, is establishing autonomous state boards to set standards for teacher education and licensing. Similar bodies, for example, regulate who can practice medicine and law.

Eleven states now have such standards boards for teaching, according to the N.E.A. The union has lobbied that teachers should make up a majority of the members of these boards.

In a new book, *A License to Teach: Building a Profession for 21st Century Schools*, Mr. Wise and Ms. Darling-Hammond argue that state legislatures and agencies, which traditionally have controlled standards in teaching, have "a conflict of interest in enforcing rigorous standards for entry to teaching, since they must insure a warm body in every classroom—and prefer to do so without boosting wages."

"The teaching profession is taking major steps to take responsibility for its own standards."

■

James A. Kelly
President, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards

Growing Knowledge Base

One reason teaching has made progress toward becoming a profession is a shift in the focus of research, experts say.

Instead of just doing surveys and crunching numbers, Ms. Darling-Hammond said, more researchers are visiting schools and talking to teachers. The change has helped build the knowledge base about practices that increase learning.

Until recently, teaching has lacked a professional consensus about good standards of practice, which is why standards have been lax, Ms. Darling-Hammond said.

"We're taking what we know about teaching that supports kids' learning and saying, 'My goodness, you ought to master that knowledge in teacher education, demonstrate you have it before you're licensed, and continue to develop it throughout your career,' " she explained. The capstone for teachers would be receiving national-board certification in their field.

At the same time, education schools—often criticized as a weak link in preparing better teachers—have launched dozens of professional-development schools. In these schools, often likened to teaching hospitals, professors and classroom teachers work side by side to train new teachers and conduct research.

They have come to symbolize the closer connections between education schools and K-12 schooling that many experts believe are essential.

NCATE has received a grant to write standards for professional-development schools, which will be used in its accreditation process.

The national commission on teaching has found that some education schools are changing rapidly to focus on classroom practice, Ms. Darling-Hammond said. Many are using new assessments, including portfolios, to see whether their students can meet new standards for beginning teachers.

Demographic changes also favor continued movement toward professionalizing teaching. During the next decade, Ms. Darling-Hammond projects, more than 200,000 teachers will be hired each year.

Faculty members in education schools also are expected to retire in large numbers, making way for people who are themselves master teachers to prepare the next generation of teachers.

In the meantime, observers say, there is tremendous work to be done, particularly in devising new ways to determine how well teachers are doing their jobs.

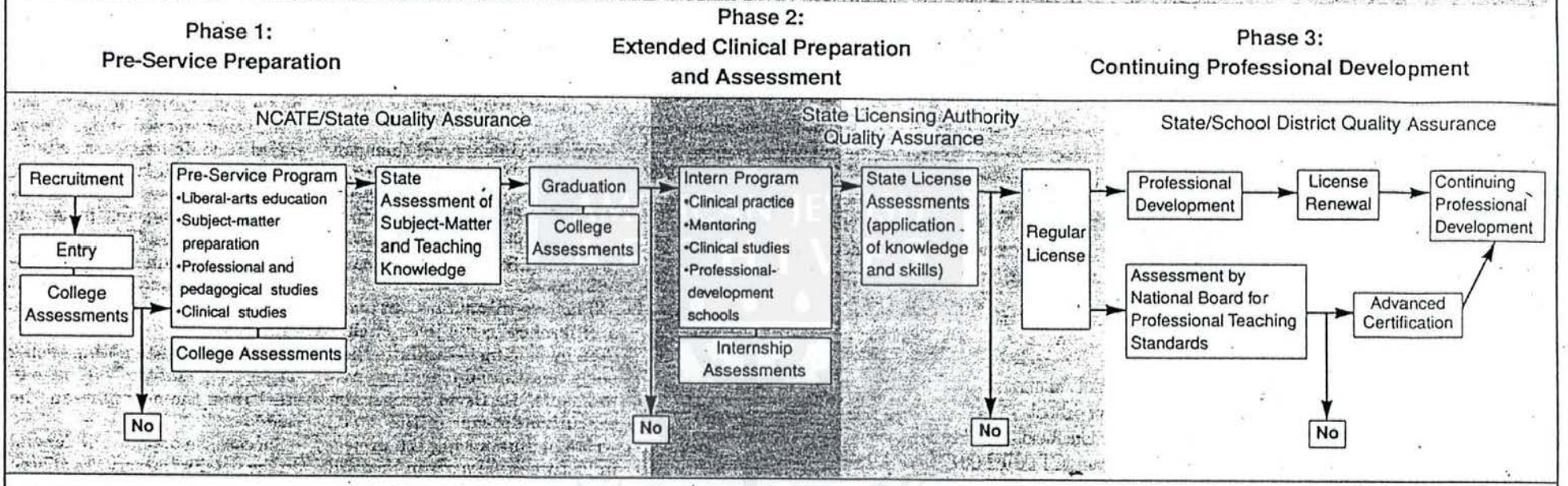
New Ways of Testing

The national board's system, which involves portfolios, videotaped lessons, journals, and assessment-center exercises, has demonstrated several new ways of finding out what teachers know and can do.

Teachers find these methods more palatable than the competency tests that many states have imposed on them, and the methods are more likely to insure that new teachers are ready for the challenges ahead, said Keith B. Geiger, the president of the N.E.A.

"People who are going to teach 7th graders better know something about adolescence, or they'll die real quick in the classroom no matter how smart they are in math," he warned. "We've got to raise standards in pedagogy and the academic areas."

Assuring Quality in the Practice of Teaching: The Continuum of Teacher Preparation



NOTE: This flow chart is derived from a schematic designed by NCATE in an effort to promote discussion about the evolving quality-assurance system for the teaching profession.

SOURCE: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Researchers Set Out To Devise New Pay Structure for Teachers

By Ann Bradley

Despite widespread dissatisfaction with the way teachers are paid, attempts to change the entrenched system of compensation have been highly controversial and fraught with problems.

In the 1980's, districts and states experimented with merit pay, career ladders, and incentive pay. Most of those efforts were resisted by teachers and failed to spread widely.

Researchers at the University of Wisconsin at Madison hope to reverse that trend. With a $600,000 grant from the Pew Charitable Trusts, they are drawing on lessons from the private sector to devise a new compensation structure for teachers.

In trying to succeed where many have failed, the project has a big advantage: cooperation from the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers.

"We've always wanted to see if there was a better way to pay teachers," said Allan Odden, a professor of educational administration who is the principal investigator for the project, "and we've always screwed it up."

The project, which now has funding for two years, will take about six years, Mr. Odden estimated. The final phase will be to find school districts willing to try out the new pay models.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards also is participating. Though it has no say over how teachers are paid, the board has an interest in seeing plans developed that will provide financial incentives for teachers to seek certification.

Another group has been formed with other influential organizations, including the American Association of School Administrators, the principals' associations, the national and state school boards' associations, and the Council of Chief State School Officers.

The groups are holding parallel seminars to study pay plans in so-called high-performance organizations: businesses that have pruned their headquarters staffs and given decisionmaking power to self-managed work teams. The payoff: increased productivity and better results.

Education is moving—slowly—in the same direction, with calls for streamlining central offices and giving teachers, administrators, and parents a much larger say in how their schools are run.

Paying for Knowledge

If teachers can be financially rewarded for becoming board certified, teaching will take a step toward the skill-based pay or pay-for-knowledge approach that decentralized companies typically use.

A new pay model could create five or six levels of performance between licensure and advanced certification, Mr. Odden suggested. School districts and states would have to invest heavily in professional development, which he believes should be controlled by schools.

The Wisconsin researchers will study a variety of pay plans:

• **Skill-based pay or pay-for-knowledge.** These systems pay workers for acquiring—and showing they have mastered—a set of skills and expertise.

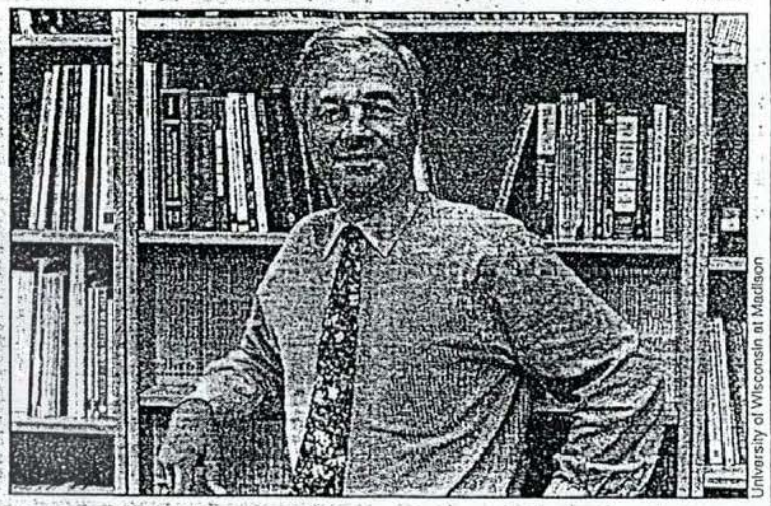
The current salary schedule includes a kind of skill-based pay, because teachers are paid for accumulating academic credits and years of service. But coursework and seniority do not guarantee knowledge and skill, said Albert Shanker, the A.F.T. president.

"We ought to move to a system where people who have knowledge and the ability to use it would be compensated on a different basis," he said.

Keith B. Geiger, the president of the N.E.A., agreed. "It's going to be problematic," he said, "but I think we owe it to the profession to give it our best shot."

• **Group performance incentives.** These provide bonuses to a school's entire faculty when student performance improves.

• **Gain-sharing.** These systems reward employees for working more efficiently. Mr. Odden said this pay plan could be used in combination with skill-based pay and group incentives.



University of Wisconsin at Madison

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BTP

Summary of Committee on Building the Profession
April 27, 1995

participants: Walter Ackerman (guest), Raymond Bloom, Gail Dorph (staff), Joshua Fishman, Alfred Gottschalk, Jim Joseph, Gershon Kekst, Morton Mandel (acting chair), Louise Stein

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