Teacher Development: An Overview of the Concept and Approaches

Jabreel Asghar

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia
Email: jabreel@hotmail.co.uk

Asif Ahmad

Senior Academic Coordinator, English Language Institute,
King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

Doi:10.5901/jesr.2014.v4n6p147

Abstract

Teaching is an on-going professional activity rather than something that can be mastered once and for all through the acquisition of a restricted set of skills. It needs to be refreshed and developed with the passage of time as new ideas and approaches towards teaching and learning are discovered. This emphasises the need of development activities for staff to update and enhance their professional skills. This paper explores the concept of teacher-development giving a comprehensive account of the topic and discusses the teacher appraisal system as its integral part. A review of various approaches is also given to enhance the concept of teacher development. The paper also makes suggestions to implement a teacher development plans taking into account the phases in the successful implementation of change.

Keywords: Teacher development, appraisal, classroom observation, educational management

1. Introduction

In the field of education the terms of professional development, staff development, teacher development and INSET have been used interchangeably and have been defined in a number of ways. O’Sullivan, Jones and Reid (1988) believe that staff training programmes are conscious institutional efforts particularly in relation to teaching in order to improve the capability of teachers to enable them perform their roles effectively. Jones, Clark, Figg, Howarth, Reid (1989) assert that INSET provides the necessary oxygen for teachers in order to survive as educated and trained professionals. They believe that staff-development programmes provide the means for teachers to experience continuing education as part of a team of professionals. Dean (1991) defines that the term professional development suggests a process which enables teachers become more professional. He maintains that the term implies a long training, involves theory as a background to practise, has its own code of behaviour and has a high degree of autonomy. Bolam (1982 in Glover & Law, 1996) suggests three different types of teacher development programmes:

- ‘Professional training: short courses, conferences and workshops largely focused on practice and skills’. These kinds of courses intend to inform the teachers of already discovered techniques and skills to use in classroom. Such sessions are usually, not necessarily, designed by outside experts, and introduced to teachers.
- ‘Professional Education: longer courses and/or secondments focused on theory and research-based knowledge’. These kinds of programmes aim at providing teachers the opportunities to research and discover the rules, ideas and principles themselves in order to improve their professional performance.
- ‘Professional Support: job-embedded arrangements procedure’. Professional support is referred to actual performance in classroom, e.g. the analysis of videotapes of classroom proceedings.

2. Process of Teacher Development

The above definitions suggest that the process of teacher development is a well-planned route to enhance teachers’ professional skills in order to increase the quality of pupil learning. It is important to note that staff development is inextricably linked to school development. Various educationalists have shown the process of teacher development as
cyclic process. O’Sullivan, Jones & Reid (1988) has presented one of such comprehensive and convincing cyclic process which covers all the important stages and still it is simpler and easier to understand.

![Cyclic Process Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 2.1. The school focused staff development cycle by O’Sullivan, Jones & Reid (1988)**

O’Sullivan et al (1988) find this cyclic figure useful because it enables trainers and trainees alike to ask and answer the following questions: Where are we? Where do we want to be? How do we get there? How will we know when we’ve got there? According to them, the idea of cyclic figure can be used to explain the process in a simple way. However, in reality, it is much more complicated. ‘Evaluation, for example, needs to be considered at each stage and not left until the final part of the programme’ (Ibid. 10). The starting point can be anywhere on the cycle. It is vital to progress round the cycle of activities once the decision to adopt this process is taken. These stages are further elaborated below.

### 2.1 Identification of needs

Aims of any programme are set to fulfil the needs of its trainees. Therefore, the needs can be traced in the aims a programme sets for its trainees. Glover & Law (1991), Blandford (2000), Dean (1991) and McLaughlin & Oberman (1996) give various features of a well-planned teacher development activity. Based on their views, such an activity aims to:

- add to teachers’ professional skills. Such programmes not only engage teachers in developmental activities, but are also necessarily new for them adding to their prior knowledge what they did not know before. However sometimes an activity can be repeated to be used more skilfully.
- expand their professional expertise. Such activities should not only add to their previous knowledge but also demonstrate a marked improvement in teachers’ performance to prove the usefulness of that particular activity.
- elucidate their professional values. Developmental activity should not be strange to the institutional culture as well as background. It should not show a total clash with what the institution and its individuals already believe and practise, rather it should be context sensitive.
- support staff to perform as effectually as possible. An effective developmental programme should be practical enough to enable teachers to practise it in academic life. Moreover not only they should practise it, they should also be able to do so effectively.
- provide opportunities for staff to prepare themselves for changing duties and responsibilities in order they could add a valuable experience to their professional career as a result of participating in such programmes. It should not be beneficial only for the institution as a whole but also for each individual teacher.
- enhance job satisfaction. Such programmes should give teachers a sense of achievement so that they could feel satisfied with what they have gained and performed well.
- keep teachers familiar with the current educational thinking, It aims to provide teachers with critical consideration to educational policy in particular how to raise standards. As a result of developmental programmes, teachers would gain insight to probe into the educational problems at national level and could comment wisely on them.
- provide support for schools that will enable them to fulfil their programmes. Such programmes are arranged by
institutions on ‘give and take’ policy. Teachers would be provided with developmental opportunities and they would utilise their professional skills for the betterment of institution.

- create a context in which teachers are enabled to develop their potential. Such programmes should not be introduced in isolation but as a series in order teachers could plan systematically which areas they need to focus on.
- develop combined and collaborative approach, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on the practice by teachers’ community rather than individual teachers.

These aims may be prioritised in accordance with the contextual demands, as all of these may not be relevant or equally important in all contexts. Kirk (1988) points out that hence teaching is a process of professional development, no matter how thorough and systematic initial training may be, it can never anticipate and prepare comprehensively for all the various demands that are rare to be encountered through a full teaching career. Reid, Bullock & Howarth (1988) are also of the same view that there is no model of staff development programme which has utility for every kind of school because schools vary in size, region and organisation.

2.2 Designing a programme

Wideen & Andrew (1987) believe that while designing a programme and its aims certain features should always be considered. First successful staff development is context sensitive. The context of teacher is a source of information that may explain on what lines activities for development should be designed. It should be deeply connected to school and classroom participants including both teacher and students. Dean (1991) also supports the same point referring that anyone concerned with professional development, whether within the school or outside it, must take into account the school culture if any work done with the staff is to have effect. The values adopted by the head teacher and staff and the attitudes current in the staff room are crucial to the development of those who work there.

Secondly, successful staff development is knowledge based. It clearly explains the knowledge that is likely to be acquired by the participants. The participant should know what they are going to learn as a result of this activity and how does it accords with their contexts and needs.

A third feature is participation and collaboration. Any change in attitude or environment is possible only if the participants are willing to change. Therefore, successful development activities should ensure participation of all the concerned persons.

Fourthly, successful programmes are on-going. The continuity of the development process is important and it will get the participants realised about the importance and effectiveness of the whole process. Wideen & Andrew (1987) emphasise that staff development should move ahead in some co-ordinated fashion with activities that relate to one another over time. Instead of a series of a number of activities, there should be activities that are tied to the intention of building or accumulating. Here Wideen is supporting O’Sullivan’s et al (1988) idea when they say that evaluation feedback should form the basis of the next stage in the process of staff development.

Fifth, staff development programmes are reflective and analytic. Time should be set aside for rigorous examination of what has happened and is happening. Monitoring and evaluation becomes vital in case of a newly introduced project like this. It is only comprehensive monitoring and evaluation on regular basis at every step that ensures the effectiveness of the plan.

Sixth, staff development should be democratic involving ownership of the programme with all staff participating in identification and analysis process (O’Sullivan et al, 1988). In the educational set up of developing countries, such a democratic approach might not work well in the first instance because they usually tend to be hierarchical in structure. However, while designing a programme democratic elements at initial stages cannot be completely ignored.

Finally, such a programme should involve strategies that may be replicated with pupils (O’Sullivan et al, 1988). A good developmental programme enables teachers to practise the same techniques and strategies to teach their learners what they have used as a learner during a developmental activity.

2.3 Running a programme

There are many ways of meeting development needs/aims. O’Sullivan et al (1988) have listed some possible ways of organising training courses/sessions within the staff development programmes. Here I will mention only those that might be relevant to the context of this study. These include:

1. **‘External short courses’**: external bodies usually run such courses.
2. ‘External or internal courses organised by the Staff Development co-ordinator, other staff member or head teacher’: such programmes can be run successfully following the approaches discussed in the section 2.2. However, they need a perfectly organised management to gain effective results.

3. ‘Attendance on degree/certificate/diploma’: these kinds of developmental activities are beneficial for teachers as well as institution but they require quite a reasonable amount to support such programmes. In our context, the institution may be reluctant to devote a large amount to these kinds of activities. However once the usefulness of developmental programmes is revealed management should be convinced to finance such courses on regular basis.

4. ‘Private study or sabbaticals’: this has always been a good strategy for self-development but it might not work well first because in such a case individuals are not bound to continue permanently unless one is really a devotee to one’s profession. Secondly having no collaborative environment these kinds of activities may not be expanded to a large number of individuals.

5. ‘Discussions held by experts’: it is a good source of developing professional skills especially when such an activity is in its introductory stages. Participation in such discussions opens a number of vistas for the participants and they can learn new skills very quickly.

6. ‘Coaching/on-the-job training’: this is a good strategy for the same reason as mentioned in number 5.

7. ‘Internal and external secondments’: this is most likely to be a new activity for the participants of this study but could be very useful at the same time. It gives teachers a chance not only to share ideas and problems with the teachers of other schools but also create an environment of collaborative work, leading them towards organised development programmes.

8. ‘Self-help staff development meetings’: another good means of professional development but only practicable when the concept and process of professional development is already familiar to the participants and useful only if could be managed keeping in view constraints described in number 2 and 4 above. (p 12)

O’Sullivan et al (1988) suggest that a mixture of methods/approaches can be used for different needs and circumstances. In respect of running such activities it is important that staff in the school feel comfortable in following a common philosophy so that the progression of learning throughout the school may be achieved. Dean (1991) notes that the professional development programme is most likely to be successful in a school where there is an open style of management and trust between colleagues, where professional development is seen as normal practice which is built into the timetable and overall organisation of the school.

2.4 Monitoring/Evaluation

Monitoring is a short term, immediate check of the delivery of staff development activities (O’Sullivan et al, 1988). The purpose of monitoring is to evaluate each step on the cycle of development process to determine the effectiveness of that particular activity. According to Glover & Law (1996), monitoring is concerned with the ways in which intended plans are operationalized. Monitoring, in fact, reflects a concern to ensure that appropriate remedial action is taken when needed. Evaluation is a long-term judgement as to the worthwhileness of the staff development events (O’Sullivan et al, 1988). In this way, evaluation not only proves that some worthwhile has resulted from staff development activities, but also focuses on current and future programmes to ensure that improvement occurs continuously. It is important to remember that an effective evaluation and monitoring is part and parcel of a planning to achieve the desired aims.

2.5 Role of management

Dean (1991) observes that professional development is a whole school activity and everyone in a management role in a school, therefore, has responsibility for developing the work of the teachers for whom s/he is responsible. Dean gives a list of responsibilities of the management that can be summarised as follows:

- Providing articulate aims and policies for the school, following consultation, discussion and communicating them to everyone concerned
- Setting priorities, ensuring that the school meets the requirements of national policies
- Creating a structure for professional development
- Selecting and appointing staff for professional development tasks
- Clarifying professional development roles
- Co-ordinating professional development policy with other school policies
Allocating resources for professional development

Creating an organisation for appraisal

Generally, the school management in developing countries such as Pakistan might not possess the potential to perform these responsibilities on its own to the entire satisfaction of the teachers, the requirements of development programme and the institutional aims. However, a skilful person may co-ordinate between the teachers and the management in order to create a favourable environment. To Dean (1991), the status of that post is important because the coordinator will be responsible for some decisions that cannot, by their nature, please everyone. At the same time the coordinator chosen for this post should have very good interpersonal skills because s/he will need to proceed by persuasion on many occasions. According to Dean, the coordinator’s major responsibilities might include:

- co-ordinating the professional development programmes for the school
- drawing up the professional programme and ensuring that everyone is aware of what it contains
- providing advice, support and training for colleagues contributing to the school professional development programmes
- ensuring that all staff are kept aware of professional development opportunities available to them
- providing advice and support for colleagues concerned about their professional development needs

(Pp. 107-8)

2.6 Implementing a programme

Teacher development programmes represent an attempt to implement some form of change. Kennedy (1986) believes that one of the functions of the change agent is the management of innovation for a successful implementation of the change. While introducing a change like teacher development programmes, utmost care is required to tackle the affairs wisely. In order to make a change successful Trump (1967) gives five points to keep in view:

- Analysis of present practice
- Discovering what people want that is different what they are doing
- Making tentative decisions about the priority of the proposed changes
- Planning innovation carefully in terms of teacher preparation and student preparation and anticipated effects of the innovation
- Describing the time and techniques for evaluation

These steps not only give guidance for action plan, but are also likely to create a favourable environment to introduce the innovation. These points will be discussed in detail in section 5.

3. Approaches to Teacher Development

The idea of teacher development is malleable because it takes many forms, has different meanings in different contexts, operates from a variety of implicit and explicit beliefs and value bases, and is manifested in different forms of action. This section attempts to give review of various approaches to teacher development in order to get behind this apparent diversity, of the concept, to look for an underlying common core on which practical models for teacher development may be built.

Staff development can be conducted at individual and institutional level. At individual level, one may use it to refine own skills and knowledge. McGrath (1986) describes it a lifelong autonomous process of learning and growth by which teachers adopt changes and enhance their awareness, knowledge and skills. In this context staff is regarded as self-reflective and self-critical individuals with diverse views and approaches who can be depended upon for professionalism as well as their ability for self-development. Thus it is commonly presumed that staff development adopted on self-reflective and self-critical bases is likely to achieve its goals and leaving teachers with enthusiasm and motivation to enhance their knowledge and skills. However, there is a possibility that teachers’ priorities for professional development might be in conflict with the institution’s goals and targets.

At institutional level staff development may be associated with the management. Hargreaves and Michael (1992) highlight that teachers are to be trained and developed, rather than to be viewed as people who can and should develop themselves. Institutional level teacher development plans are practical in the sense that they focuses on understandable and usable methods for classroom situations, benefit large number of group and help achieve institutional targets more effectively in a measurable system. However, Hargreaves and Michael (1992) are of the opinion that at institutional or group level, teachers might be given little discretion over the degree or pace of adoption of the skills and this betrays...
disrespect for teachers’ professionalism and the quality of their classroom judgement. This sort of approach may also create a psychological impression among teachers of being ‘cured or reformed’ by the management. Another drawback of this approach is that teachers feel that resources are being distributed disproportionately to the outside experts hired by the management. At institutional level, while planning professional development programme, the management might ignore teachers’ individual professional needs and could be more concerned with the institutional achievements. Considering this possible authoritarian aspect of institutional and/or individual development plans, educationalists usually tend to incorporate the needs of both management and teachers for best possible results. Below is given overview of few significant approaches to teacher development that have gained popularity among schools and educationalists.

3.1 Client-centred Approach

Nunan’s (1988) client-centred approach to teacher development is considered one of the most important approaches. According to this approach input derived from teachers is used by themselves as a source of developing their professional skills. The approach is based on learner-centred programmes that attempt to incorporate into classroom information by and from the learners. It is assumed that if these sorts of programmes are relevant for learners, they should also be relevant for teachers when they become learners (Nunan, 1988). He mentions a number of client-centred principles, evolved through the workshops conducted by national curriculum resource centre in Australia. They include:

- The content and methodology of workshops should be perceived as being personally relevant to participants.
- Teachers should be encouraged to derive a set of principles from a study of classroom practice, rather than being exposed to a set of principles.
- The approach should be bottom-up rather than top-down.
- Teachers should be involved in the structuring of the professional development programme.
- Teachers should be encouraged to observe, analyse and evaluate their own teaching.
- Teachers should be let practise what they preach. (Nunan, 1988: 112)

The approach is practised through workshops, which could address any curriculum issue. Client-centred approach is advantageous in a number of ways. The advantages of client centred approach include ownership of learning, developing critical and analytical thinking and lessened fear of outside criticism.

However, it does have some drawbacks which need to be considered carefully while following this approach. First, it might be difficult to manage a large number of teachers at the same time. All the participants might not have similar issues and goals to share with other groups unless it has been planned wisely in advance. Secondly, it demands perfect pre-planning of the whole programme to ensure that teachers might not ignore any important aspect. Thirdly, it is more suitable for experienced teachers than for novice teachers. Finally, there is no one to challenge the set of principles that teachers decide themselves. It might lead them towards some sort of ‘dictatorship’, in terms of evolving their own principles for teaching practice, rather than autonomous learning. Nevertheless, the approach is largely beneficial to encourage teacher development activities, and may particularly be useful for a context where teachers feel stressed because of managerial influence.

3.2 Self-Development through Class Observation

This approach may be viewed as an extended form of co-operative approach. Wang & Seth (1997) conducted an experimental research study in China to turn classroom observation into an effective tool for teacher development. This approach gives teachers a chance to choose themselves whom they would like to invite to their class, which aspects of teaching should be observed and what is going to be discussed in the feedback discussion (Wang & Seth 1997). The approach has four aims:

1. To help teachers understand that they have a responsibility for their own development.
2. To help teachers have a clearer understanding of their own classroom experiences.
3. To introduce teachers to a more developmental approach to teacher training.
4. To help teachers build a more supportive and trusting relationship with their colleagues, and to realise the mutual benefits they would accrue from this.

The process of self-development is carried through interaction between the teachers and the observer. The interaction goes through the stages of understanding, reflecting, focusing, disclosing and planning (Edge 1992). Understanding is the most important stage. The observer tries to stay with the teacher’s framework of classroom experience, understands what the teacher says and makes the teacher feels being listened to. Sometimes the teacher
might not accept everything the observer says and can justify as well as insist on his/her own view. At the disclosing stage the observer has to remain within certain limits, and to offer the teacher a perspective rather than a prescription. A typical procedure of the whole process consists of a pre-classroom observation followed by the actual classroom observation process. A post-observation discussion is conducted to discuss issues and concerns as agreed in the pre-observation session with a post-classroom observation questionnaire.

This approach has certain advantages such as its effectiveness to teach self-development and its capacity to offers relaxed and informal environment. This approach also provides relevant feedback from the observer which is. Furthermore, the approach is a means of collaborative learning for teachers to learn from each other. However, sometimes observer could be a marionette in the hands of teacher who acts according to the teacher’s wishes. It also takes a lot of time and the procedure may continue without achieving any developmental goals. It also requires a cyclic consistency and regularity which might not be possible due to busy academic routine and calendar.

3.3 Self-awareness through groups in teacher development

Underhill (1991), who presented this approach, says that this approach aims at carrying out individual teacher development within a group of people who normally work together and has to do with the strong hold that group norms can exist over members of the group. Underhill believes that:

‘… developmental work in established groups can allow tacit norms to be exposed and new norms to emerge. In other words, group members become aware of their unaware and collusive norms, it may be possible to get group norms on the side of development, rather than the side of responsibility avoidance’. (Underhill, 1991: 77)

This approach is likely to create interpersonal, caring environment with a shared commitment to the process of intentional development. This kind of personal or professional development is carried out by oneself. Other people play important role in creating a psychologically facilitative climate. Though this sort of approach also seems to encourage self-development, it unnecessarily depends on the group members. The question is whether it is really simple to create or find a group of people who will be caring and co-operative all the time to work in an ideal environment. This question, having no satisfactory answer, takes the approach far from practicality.

3.4 Collaborative Approach Vs Co-operative Approach

This approach is a reaction to Edge’s (1991) co-operative approach and suggests some amendments. According to the Co-operative approach, co-operative development is carried out in the roles of Speaker and Understander. The roles may be exchanged later. The Understander is to help the speaker’s own ideas as a speaker delivers them. It requires a relationship of trust and confidentiality in addition to showing respect, empathy and honesty to each other. If the Understander faces difficulty in following two contrast ideas in the Speaker’s speech, s/he may ask the Speaker to justify it. Edge names this stage Challenging. Lansley (1993) criticised Edge’s approach for a number of reasons. First, in this approach there is risk for those people who have not developed the necessary skills for self-discovery. Secondly, even if the Understander helps the Speaker to understand her/his ideas, there is no guarantee that the Speaker will change them. In fact, Lansley does not oppose co-operative self-development but the exclusion of the opinions of others as a means to modifying one's own opinions, beliefs and principles. Moreover, the approach is not suitable for everyone. Edge (1991) himself thinks that it would be naïve to expect massive take up of the extra effort involved in the process of co-operative approach.

Lansley believes that there is a need to be self-critical and critical of one’s peers at all the times. Lansley’s suggestion introduces an approach that somewhat collaborates both Edge’s (1991) co-operative approach and Underhills’s (1991) group based approach. However, it excludes too much dependence on the group members. The group members in this approach are neither too caring nor too emphatic towards the speaker; they are not supposed to create a psychologically facilitative environment either. Rather they are friendly critics of their peers. They are supportive to their peers but they may also challenge to the ideas and rules evolved by their peers.

3.5 Data-based Teacher Development

Introduced by Borg (1998), this approach aims at using classroom data for learning new skills and thus developing oneself. In this regard, the term ‘data’ refers to the description of ELT lessons and interviews which teachers talk about
their work. Borg (1998) says that using ELT data focusing on teachers’ work can stimulate the kind of productive thinking which forms the bases of reflective practice. Borg (1998) believes that teacher development activities which draw upon vivid portraits of teaching and teachers to be found in research data can provide an ideal platform for the kind of other oriented inquiry which facilitates self-reflection. According to this approach teachers analyse a detailed script of ELT classroom and answer/justify/explain teachers’ and pupils’ responses. Teachers are encouraged to comment on the both positive and negative aspects of the data. This kind of approach makes a useful contribution to teacher development. Among its advantages are:

- It allows teachers’ space to response personally to the data.
- It allows teachers to move from a description of teaching to an analysis of rationale.
- It allows to move from other-oriented reflection to self-reflection
- It makes a useful contribution to teacher development by allowing teachers to function according to the data analysis of other teachers, and ultimately their own.
- Such activities make authentic data about teaching accessible to all teachers. It encourages teachers to define objectives for continuing inquiry.

This approach has some limitations as highlighted by Borg (1998):

- The effectiveness of data-based approach depends on the quality of the data and the task through which the data is exploited. If either of these is not qualitative, the whole exercise will be futile.
- It is difficult and time consuming to produce qualitative and authentic data of classroom lessons.

A glance at all these approaches makes it clear that self-development, emerging from bottom-up to top-down, is generally encouraged and appreciated. However, variations are essential to make the programme appropriate for a particular context and the particular needs of a group in focus.

4. **Role of Teacher Appraisal**

Teacher appraisal is an integral part of teacher development programme. It is a valuable means of promoting the professional development of teachers and their schools. Development can occur in each phase of the process i.e. during the preparatory, interview and follow-up stages. However, success of the whole process of appraisal depends on the well-planed management of appraisal interview and the way the appraisal statement and future plans are formulated.

The idea of teacher appraisal has been derived from the term ‘Performance Appraisal’, commonly used in industry, “which carries with both industrial associations of product and profit” (Wragg 1987: 2). However, it is difficult to apply the term to the field of education in the same sense because unlike industrial workers, teachers have certain constraints. Teachers are not producing some lifeless products of uniform standard and quality. They have to face human beings from a variety of social, religious and ethnic backgrounds. There are students with individual idiosyncrasies, different IQ levels, different scales of motivation, and many others factors involved. Therefore, teachers’ performance cannot be viewed in the same way as that of industrial staff. According to Everard and Morris (1990) appraisal is, or should be, an opportunity for individuals to meet with their manager in order to take stock of their individual and joint achievements.

Appraisal system can serve a variety of purposes within an organisation. Everard & Morris (1990), Wragg (1987) and Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg & Haynes (1996) give more or less the same objectives of appraisal system. They include evaluation, auditing, succession, planning, training needs, developing individuals, checking effectiveness, assessing performance, communicating, co-ordinating the work in the department, helping and supporting for teachers in a management role, making teachers realise that their work is being judged by others and providing the appraiser with a different view of his/her institution.

4.1 **Essentials features of effective appraisal**

Everard & Morris (1990: 91) describe a number of features of constructive appraisal. Such an appraisal contains:

- Objectivity: a job description with criteria and clear objectives
- Willingness to listen on appraiser’s part, instead of telling what is right or wrong
- Openness to criticism for improvement
- Counselling, not judgement, for anything under discussion.
- Action planning with new objectives and development plans carried forward progressed and overviewed systematically, for the next appraisal
4.2 Modals of Teacher Appraisal

Poster & Poster (1991: 8) give four ideal types of appraisal interview. They explain these types with the help of a diagram (figure 2.2). First model, that is developmental, presents peer appraisal. It involves two people of equal ranks. Poster & Poster (1991) believe that its main concern is truth, accuracy, and the maintenance of moral, ethical and professional values. It is concerned with longer-term professional development. Wragg et al (1996: 16) notice that “co-equal pairs in such a fashion will simply confirm each other’s practices, engage in mutual congratulations”. However, supporters of peer appraisal argue that observation from a peer can effect change if they are credible with the recipient (ibid.)

The criticism on this model is not exaggerative because there is risk of such kind of mutual congratulations, which may be avoided by setting certain criteria for what is being appraised. But this requires extra time that becomes another drawback. However, this approach may be very suitable for experienced teachers.

The second model is self-appraisal or Laissez-Fair. This type emphasises the importance of self-development by the individual him/herself. According to Poster & Poster (1991) this model allows managerial abdication from responsibility and sanctions appraisee to decide on the need for follow-up. Furthermore, it encourages subordinate to raise issues. Though both of these models emphasise individual responsibility and freedom to make sound judgement, they give little recognition to those occasions when the needs of the organisation may override those of individual (ibid.).

The third model is that of Managerial. It is a hierarchical model, confirming the authority of superiors. This model makes strong use of incentives as well as praise, reproach from superiors and sets targets in order to maximise organisational objectives (ibid.). Managerial model denotes appraisal of each individual by the person holding the rank immediately above. Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg and Haynes (1996) referring to the criticism on this approach say that such an approach not only reifies and hardens hierarchies, but also makes many teachers the unwilling recipients of management directives.

The fourth type is judgmental. In this model managerial authority is to make judgement and collect data for assessment of the subordinate.

“it assumes the necessity of extrinsic motivation and uses system for merit rating and performance-related salary by rating individuals against one another”. (Poster & Poster, 1991: 9).

In the context of developing countries, none of these models can work successfully in isolation. Popular system in most of developing countries is hierarchical. In such a setup, the managerial system is more usually concerned to smoothly run the existing routines. On the other hand, the developmental model excludes management to a great extent and management is not likely to depend on a programme that excludes managerial influence. The laissez-faire model may not co-ordinate the developmental activities because of not having a collaborative environment in the existing circumstances. As Ried Bullock and Howarth say that there is no model of staff development programme suitable for every kind of school, a combination of these models could provide a favourable environment for an effective appraisal process. In such a model teachers will have central role. They will determine their own needs and justify these needs to accord them with the institutional aims and objectives. Such a balanced approach in a hierarchical system, where there is willingness to accept innovation, may well convince the management of the utility of such kinds of developmental and appraisal programmes.
4.3 The process of Appraisal

Pennington (1993) presents appraisal as a cyclic process (figure 2.3). This cyclic process logically starts from self-appraisal. It conveys the sense of not being ‘reformed’ by anyone but development by teachers themselves. This cycle also keeps check at every step from the initial stage to the last one. Thus, it ensures removing of any weakness at the initial stage whenever detected. According to this cycle, appraisal has six stages. It starts from self-appraisal with the help of an accurate and up to date job description.

According to figure 2.3, self-appraisal 1 leads to initial meeting with the appraiser to discuss the current situation and decide some plans for future. The second stage leads to data collection and concludes with second self-appraisal. At the third stage, appraisal meeting is conducted and appraiser and appraisee discuss improvement in performance during the past period, difficulties to achieve certain goals and scope of further professional development. Both parties agree on a statement and targets are set for future with mutual agreement. This stage is followed by discussions and professional development activities as decided in the statement. During the second year, review of the last stage is given and thus the cyclic process of appraisal continues.

4.4 Some issues in Appraisal

Regarding the contents of an appraisal meeting, Jones, Clark, Figg, Howarth & Reid (1989), Dean (1991) and Bollington & Hopkins (1990) suggest relatively similar indicators to be included:

- The effectiveness of teachers’ work in classroom and general contribution to the operation of school
- All or only some aspects of the job
- Personal qualities
- Performance
- Potential and career development
- Measures of targets achieved
- Other contributions to the school (e.g. extracurricular activities)

These indicators need to be discussed with appraisee to decide which ones should be included or excluded in the appraisal meeting.

Who undertakes appraisal? This is a crucial question and should be settled according to the norms and culture of the organisation involved. Appraisees could have the option to choose their appraiser, however, certain measures like setting criteria for appraisal procedure can be set to avoid a mutual-congratulations situation.

How often it should occur? Appraisal is a time consuming job and cannot be conducted very often. It needs to be scheduled according to the culture and needs of an institution. Usually appraisal once in two or three years is considered appropriate to achieve its aims and objectives successfully.

Appraisal Interview: central to the process is the interview, which needs special attention. The whole process of
appraisal depends upon a successfully and skilfully run interview. Graham and Habeshaw (1997) give a series of suggestions for appraisee to prepare the appraiser on these lines. They suggest that in order to ensure a successful appraisal meeting appraisee should:

- Have the timing right for enough preparation
- Have advance intimation before holding interview
- Have a definition of the evidence that determines the quality of teaching
- Have been clarified about the purpose of the interview and the whole procedure
- Be provided with documentation e.g. appraisal of teaching forms etc
- Warn appraiser to avoid any kind of interruption
- Suggest an agenda
- Suggest confidentiality

**Follow-up:** the whole process is useless if there are no follow-up activities for what has been decided in the appraisal meeting and appraisal statement. Follow-up activities not only show the concern of both parties, but also ensure that development is taking place.

**Keeping Record:** One copy should be kept by the appraisee and the original copy should be kept in his/her office record where only authorised persons can access it provided the concerned teacher is informed when and why it has been consulted. There are two approaches regarding appraisal system. The first is open appraisal. It means that the appraisee should be sure what the appraisal statement contains and that there is nothing that s/he may disagree. However there is risk that open appraisal may give rise to diplomatic statements to avoid conflict with the appraisee. The closed appraisal suggests keeping the appraisal statement confidential that ensures the truthfulness of the report, devoid of any diplomacy. However, as Wragg (1987) suggests, open appraisal is more appropriate because it shows trust in teachers and gives them a sense of security because concerned teachers exactly know what they have achieved and how their performance is viewed. Nevertheless, this kind of approach also demands high sense of responsibility, honesty and commitment on part of both parties.

5. Implementing Change

Introducing and implementing a teacher development programme could be challenging because of lack of management skills, failure in anticipating problems as well as in motivating participants to be open to the change. Everard and Morris (1990) highlight that implementing a change is a process of interaction, dialogue, feedback, modifying objectives, recycling ideas coping with mixed feelings and values. Therefore, introducing this project to the institution in question is not simply a matter of defining and telling others to get on with it. For its successful implementation, it needs to go through earlier phases of innovation successfully. Everard and Morris (1985) refer to some aspects to be considered while introducing change:

- Various kinds of feelings may rise regarding change. It may raise some feelings of threat, insecurity or concern about personal exposures. This kind of situation can be handled by encouraging various parties to communicate with each other as openly as possible.
- In the beginning things will not be clear and there may be a fear of unknown. Therefore, the change needs to be elaborated and explained as clearly as possible to avoid apprehension and presumptions about its results and effects.
- Institutional politics becomes important. Informal (staffroom coalition) or formal (union) may align around common interest. In such a situation, the manager of innovation must avoid playing one group off against the other or using rewards, which might accelerate conflict.
- The change, by no means, is straightforward; it involves many people’s attitudes that need managerial skills to cope with.

(Pp 168-69)

According to Everard & Morris change engages our intellect and emotions. It will not happen successfully unless it is promoted, steered or facilitated with all these crucial factors having taken into account.

As mentioned earlier, Trump’s (1967) five step sequence for change are useful even today. These steps provide guidelines to avoid different conflicting situations that may arise.

1. Analyse co-operatively reasons for present practices. Everard & Morris (1990) are also of the opinion that managers of innovation “have to take into account the feelings, values, ideas and experiences of those effected by the change” and this can be achieved through interaction with the concerned people.
2. Discover what people want that is different from what they are doing. This denotes that any successful change requires co-operation and willingness of the participants.

3. Make tentative decisions about the priority of the proposed change. Plan the innovation carefully in terms of teacher preparation, student preparation, procedure to be followed, and the anticipated effects of innovation.

4. Determine the time and techniques for evaluation.

5.1 Management of Change

Chin & Benne (1970) in Kennedy (1987: 163) suggest three types of strategies to manage the change and its aftermath. They include

1. Power-coercive strategies change on the basis of power and force to make people act in a certain way.
2. Rational-empirical strategies denote that once people view positive/rational side of some information, they adopt it.
3. Normative-re-educative strategies involve collaborative problem-solving approach with all those affected by the change involved in some way making their own decisions about the degree and manner of change they wish to adopt.

Kennedy (1987) finds the third approach more preferable to the other approaches which is concerned not only with the adoption of specific innovation, but with the process of development that individuals experience as a result of involvement in the change and which can lead to a continuing interest in further change and innovation. I also find this approach more convincing as it incorporates with Trump’s second point that is what people want. It gives individual freedom in a democratic environment that can lead towards autonomous teaching.

6. Conclusion

Any teacher development plan, when practised, should not be expected to prove a complete success because it is likely to clash with many existing norms and traditions in the institute. There may well come certain phases and stages, in the beginning, when the whole process may seem to be very difficult. This kind of situation needs to be managed with patience and consistency. Wang & Seth (1997: 212) rightly remark:

“Two things are necessary for potential success and sustainability. One is the support of the administration and the other is the enthusiasm and devotion of the people in charge of the programme, together with the understanding and commitment of the majority of teachers. Without these two basic premises teacher development is in danger of becoming an expensive leisure activity…..”

References


McGrath, I. (1986). Teacher Development Newsletter (No. 4) of IATEFL, Special Interest Group.1986


