TEACHER CENTRES AS A MEANS OF FACILITATING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY

by
Katherine M. Raybould

A thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Arts

Administration and Policy Studies in Education
McGill University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada
March 1994

Shorter version of title of M.A. thesis for Katherine M. Raybould (A.P.S.E.)

Professional development through Teacher Centres: A case study

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

In recent years, staff development has received general recognition as a valuable method for improving the quality of education. Teacher centres constitute a significant forum for facilitating staff development. The purpose of this qualitative case study is to examine one such teacher centre in Montreal.

Examination of the literature on effective staff development and teacher centres resulted in an analytical framework comprising: (1) Context; (2) Organizational Structure; (3) Planning; (4) Process; and, (5) Content. This was used to organize data collected from observation, interviews, documents and a client survey.

The case study provided insight into the philosophy, purpose and organization of the centre and its staff development programmes. Additionally, the study identified methods employed by the centre to combat problems which currently face many staff development fora; namely, continued funding and maintaining client support.

The study revealed a strong relationship between the characteristics of the centre and those identified by research as effective staff development.

RESUMÉ

Ces dernières années, le développement professional du personnel enseignant a été reconnu comme une méthode sérieuse d'amélioration de la qualité de l'éducation.

Les centres pour enseignants sont des lieux propices au développement professional du personnel enseignant. En vue de l'étude qualitative de ce cas, le centre pour enseignant de Montréal a été retenu pour examen.

La lecture des textes concernant le développement professional du personnel enseignant et les centres pour enseignants, nous a fourni un cadre d'analyse se composant de: (1) le Contexte, (2) la Structure de l'organisation, (3) la Planification, (4) les Procédés, et (5) le Contenu. Cette méthode a été utilisée pour organiser des données recueillies à partir d'observations, d'interviews, de documents et d'une enquete auprès d'un client.

L'étude de ce cas a permis de mieux comprendre la philosophie, le but et l'organisation du centre et de son programme de développement professional enseignant. De plus, l'étude a permis d'identifier les méthodes employées par le centre pour résoudre les problèmes auxquels doivent faire face ces programmes de développement professional du personnel enseignant qui sont notamment le financement et le soutien des clients.

L'étude a révélé une relation très forte entre les caractéristiques du centre et celles identifiées lors des recherches concernant le développement efficace du personnel enseignant.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank many people who assisted in the completion of this thesis. Grateful thanks are due to the author's supervisor, Dr. Gary Anderson, for his helpful advice, continuous support and the promptness of his feedback.

Special mention should be made of the staff of the Jewish Education Council and the Education Resource Centre in Montreal, who gave unstintingly of their time and cooperation to make this study possible. Above all, the author would like to thank Batia Bettman, whose insightful comments and constant encouragement were invaluable throughout the entire project.

Gratitude is due to the author's husband, David Angell, for his patient support and for his outstanding assistance with the typing and printing of this thesis. The author is also grateful to Sylvia Angell for her help with the editing, and to Michéle Gorry and Monique Geronimi for translating the abstract.

TEACHER CENTRES AS A MEANS OF FACILITATING STAFF DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this thesis is to examine a teacher centre as a means of facilitating staff development within an educational context. The study is grounded in research on effective staff development and teacher centres.

This chapter outlines the theoretical background for the study. The first section provides a brief overview of literature on the purpose and value of staff development. Next, the link between staff development and teacher centres is established: teacher centres are defined, and a case is made for their importance in the process of facilitating staff development. Also in this chapter, the origins, types and purposes of teacher centres are delineated. The final two sections provide the profile of the centre which is the focus of the study, and the rationale for undertaking the study.

1.1 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Over the past few decades, staff development has come to be recognized as a vital component of the successful continuation of most professions or trades. The fact that individuals need and desire life-long learning is supported by studies of the internal hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1971), of ego states (Loveinger, 1976), and of leisure-time choices and career changes for personal growth (Uris and Tarrant, 1983).

In addition to the personal benefits that individuals derive in developing their full potential, life-long learning makes sound economic sense. Thirty years ago, the Nobel Laureate for Economics, T.W. Schultz (1961; 1963) emphasized

the critical nature of developing the potential for human capital through continued education in order for countries to remain economically competitive. This idea is reiterated by The Conference Board of Canada (1992) in its *Employability Skills Profile*. In today's world of rapid technological development and political and social change, the need for individuals to improve old skills and to master new ones has become an imperative, for economic reasons as well as for reasons of personal growth.

Staff development constitutes an important form of continued education. One area where the need for continued education in the form of staff development is particularly acute is within the school system. Orlich (1988) writes, "With a rapid acceleration in knowledge, changing demographic trends, and a call for more effective schooling, school districts must develop all human and material resources to do the best job possible" (p. viii). DeJarnette Caldwell (1989) endorses this opinion, and is unequivocal about the method for achieving the desired outcome:

> School improvement results from staff development. We are not talking about improving schools with bricks, mortar and bulletin boards. The kind of school improvement that effects changes in student outcomes -- achievement, attitude and skill -- comes about by affecting change in the personnel of a school. When we consider that 85% of most school budgets are in personnel costs, developing the people of the system seems a wise protection of that investment. ...School improvement results directly and primarily from personal and professional growth (pp. 9-10).

The results of a survey presented by Saslaw (1985) demonstrate that staff development is gaining increased acceptance amongst state and provincial departments of education as a powerful tool for improving the quality of education. In recent years, many state education departments and provincial ministries of education have begun to develop

plans for staff development. Some of these plans are mandated by law, others are simply guides for local districts. Despite variations in legal status, they share a common purpose: improving the quality of education.

1.1.2 Definition of Staff Development in a School Context

Many educational researchers use terms such as 'professional development', 'staff development' and 'inservice education' interchangeably. Clarification of staff development terminology is therefore necessary. Lawrence Dale (1982) uses 'staff development' as a generic term, defining it as "the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute towards an individual's being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role" (p. 31). According to Lawrence Dale's definition, inservice education and organizational development are components of an over-all staff development program. In this context, inservice education, or inservice training as it is also known, is understood to encompass the improving of skills, the implementation of curricula, the expansion of subject matter knowledge, instruction in planning and organization, and increasing personal effectiveness. In contrast, organizational development is understood to encompass the promotion of the effectiveness of the organization, and is concerned with leadership, decision-making, problem-solving, conflict resolution, team building and communication (Schmuck, Runkel, Arends and Arends, 1977).

Goodlad (1983) proposes a slightly simpler definition, classifying staff development and organizational development as two complementary aspects of educational development as a whole. Goodlad argues persuasively that if staff development is viewed exclusively as a tool for developing individuals in a school or district, it is 'half a loaf' at best. Staff development must be balanced by organizational development to

enhance the 'ecology' of the entire system. Goodlad's definition of staff development and organizational development as two dependent correlates provides a useful starting point for clarifying the terminology; so, too, does that of Rourke and Davis (1981): "Staff development attempts to achieve its goals primarily through an increase in individual competence while organizational development concentrates on organizational competence" (p. 56). Whilst acknowledging the important role of organizational development in bringing about educational change and improvement, the focus of this thesis is on the other complementary aspect, staff development. Unless otherwise noted, for the purposes of this study, the term 'staff development' is used specifically to denote the professional development of teachers through (i) fine-tuning of existing skills to consolidate competence, (ii) increasing teacher effectiveness as a means of improving student achievement, (iii) mastering new teaching theories, strategies and curricula, and (iv) promoting teacher development and growth on a personal as well as professional level. Inservice training, or inservice education, is defined as the method for implementing staff development.

1.1.3 Rationale for Staff Development

An emphasis on personal and professional growth for teachers is a relatively new feature of their staff development. Joyce (1981) expresses the majority view when he argues that "Substantial, continuous staff development is essential to the improvement of schooling and, equally important, to the development of the capability for the continuous renewal of education" (p. 117). This argument is corroborated by Mohlman Sparks (1983), who writes, "Staff development offers one of the most promising roads to the improvement of instruction" (p. 65). This perception of staff development as a positive, reviving force illustrates a shift

in staff development approaches. As Arin-Krupp (1989) writes, "Traditionally, staff development has focused on defects. The assumption was that teachers had something wrong with them that inservice training would correct. Research on adult learning and development mandates a switch to a growth orientation" (p. 45). DeJarnette Caldwell (1989) maintains that this "growing body of research in teaching, learning, adult learning and organizational development has key implications for staff development planners" (p. 10).

An increasingly broad research base and a corresponding growth in awareness of the need for staff development opportunities for teachers have rejuvenated existing staff development programme structures (Barker, 1985), such as summer schools and part-time university programmes, and has generated a variety of new approaches -- teacher institutes, teacher mentors, district-wide school networks or partnerships, school-board sponsored workshops, advisory teachers and teacher centres, to name but a few. The success of these various staff develcpment programme structures has been mixed, often depending on a particular context or on the particular personalities involved. One approach to staff development that continues to be regarded as particularly promising is the teacher centre (Devaney, 1979; Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981; Hering and Howey, 1982; Barker, 1985; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987).

1.2 TEACHER CENTRES

Loucks-Horsley et al. (1987) define teacher centres as

> professional development structures operating within a school or district, or between collaborating organizations such as schools, colleges, teachers' associations, and businesses... They can be distinguished from other inservice delivery structures by their emphasis on individual concerns, their use of teachers as decision-makers, their

> pragmatism and their accessibility. They answer teachers' needs for local, practical solutions to everyday teaching challenges and provide continuity of assistance in space and time (pp. 94-95).

Hering and Howey (1982) concur, stating that "the most important contribution of teacher centers is their emphasis upon working with individual teachers over time. It is this emphasis that most distinguishes teacher centers' work from other quality inservice education programs" (p. 73). The perception of a teacher centre as a valuable and distinct form of staff development is promoted by Levin and Horwitz (1976), who assert that "the teacher center is a unique vehicle for inservice training. It can respond to the needs of teachers and enhance their professional growth in a positive and constructive way" (p. 434). A teacher centre is both a place and a concept (Levin and Horwitz, 1976): a place where skills are improved and innovations shared; and a concept of professional growth which values the integrity of each teacher's work.

These centres are known by a variety of names -- teacher centres, teaching centres, educational resource centres, professional development centres, and teacher education centres, to list a few. For the purpose of this thesis, unless stated otherwise, 'teacher centre' will be used as a generic term to encompass this spectrum of names, since this is the term that is most commonly used in the literature.

1.2.1 Background

The emergence of the teacher centre is a comparatively recent phenomenon. Teacher centres in Britain preceded their North American counterparts. On a general level, the creation of the teacher centre owed much to the prevailing educational climate in Britain in the early 1960s. At that time, recent developments in curriculum and instruction led to a new

perception of education as child-centred and 'open'. Teachers were regarded as "professional decision-makers", "the *sina qua non* of meaningful, lasting change" (Rogers, 1976, p. 407). This general recognition of the value of active, 'hands-on' teacher involvement in the evolution of the educational process was harnessed by the Nuffield Foundation which fostered the establishment of teacher groups across the country, the purpose of which was to develop and master the Nuffield Science and Mathematics Curriculum Projects. These teacher groups were the prototypes of the teacher centre.

The first official British teacher centre was created in 1964, and the idea swiftly gained country-wide support. Most were started as the result of local initiatives by groups of teachers who met on a voluntary basis to share ideas and to learn about educational initiatives. In time, many such independent centres were placed under the auspices of the Local Education Authorities, which were able to provide these centres with regular funding and a more formal basis on which to operate.

The creation of teacher centres was a more gradual process in the U.S. than in Britain. Rogers (1976) cites various reasons for this. First, because education in the U.S. is the responsibility of each state, the majority of educational decisions had to be made on a state-wide basis, rather than at a district level, leaving less scope for the type of local initiative that had fostered teacher centres in the U.K. Second, a vast educational bureaucracy had led to the development of a subject-centred, atomized approach to education, and to a largely authoritarian approach to the running of schools in most communities, thus effectively excluding teachers from the decision-making process.

By the late 1960s it was becoming increasingly clear that major changes were needed in the U.S. education system. The open-education movement and major curriculum developments brought forth new curricula but did little to prepare teachers

to teach them. Equally, there was a corresponding growth in information and in technology relating to its recording, transmission and use, which few school districts could afford to provide for each individual school. The logical solution was to combine resources, personnel and services in one central location, to which all surrounding schools could have access.

Simultaneously, existing inservice education was criticized for lack of teacher involvement in course design and for instruction that was irrelevant to teachers' daily needs. Teachers' unions were becoming increasingly influential, and these supported the view that teachers should be actively involved in planning their own inservice education. Thus, the focus was shifting from preservice education to include inservice education. "All of these factors interacted and contributed to an increase in teacher-designed or teacher-responsive inservice education. Teacher centres are one important example of this change in inservice education" (Hering and Howey, 1982, p. 1).

During the early 1970s, approximately forty teacher centres were established across the United States as independent work areas where teachers came to exchange ideas, sometimes with the involvement or sponsorship of colleges and school districts (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987, p. 95). Florida was one of the first states to initiate a state-wide teacher centre programme. The Florida Teacher Center Act of 1973 (FS231.600-231.610) was based on the premise that the most effective way for teachers to assist in improving education was to participate in identifying needed changes and in designing, developing, implementing and evaluating solutions to meet the identified needs. This Act represented one of the earliest attempts to change the role of the teacher in inservice education from that of passive recipient to active participant.

In 1976, the U.S. Government passed Public Law 94-482, which established financial support for teacher centres for a three-year period. This led to the creation of 110 additional teacher centres. Direct federal financial support for teacher centres in the United States ended in 1981, when the Federal Teacher Center Program was subsumed within the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (1981). Consequently, teacher centres would now compete with other educational programmes for a proportion of the federal block grant money which was distributed to local districts through state education agencies. Inevitably, subsequent stringent education budgets led to the closure of a number of teacher centres, but the remainder successfully sought alternative funding, and teacher centres are now an established component of the staff development programme in many American states.

In Canada, the situation regarding staff development in general and teacher centres in particular differs slightly from that in the U.S. and the U.K. As in the United States, the fact that each Canadian province has jurisdiction over its education system precludes federal initiatives on teacher professional development or teacher centres. In Quebec, as in other provinces, staff development is instead covered by a provincial agreement between the teacher unions and the provincial ministry, in this case the *Ministère de l'Education du Québec (MEQ)*. In addition, some arrangements are negotiated locally between school boards and their local teacher associations. In Montreal, for example, teachers employed by the Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal (PSBGM) have access to staff development through two channels: (i) teachers may apply for funding for a course or programme from the Professional Improvement Committee (PIC), which allocates annually a certain sum of money per teacher for the purpose of staff development; and (ii) teachers may attend workshops organized by the Instructional Services Department of the PSBGM.

In Quebec, although teacher centres do not exist in the public sector, various teacher centres are run by private foundations, by teacher unions (such as that of the Lakeshore School Board), or operate within university faculties of education. These exhibit strong similarities to teacher centres in the United States and Britain.

1.2.2. Types of Teacher Centres

Attempts at categorizing teacher centres have proved problematic due to their diversity in origin and evolution. No two centres are exactly alike, and yet all are variations on a theme. The dilemma facing researchers is summarized by Alberty, Neujahr and Weber (1981):

> The experience and history of every center is particular to that center. Centers have different roots locally, different contexts for their beginnings. Over time, differences in history, use and participation result in great individuality among centers. Nevertheless, there are enough commonalities among centers to make the experience of one relevant to another (p. 7).

Taking these commonalities as a starting point, some researchers have formed loose categories for the purposes of defining teacher centres. For example, Collier (1982) identified three basic types of centre:

1. the **informal centre**, formed by groups of teachers, teachers' organizations, private foundations or school districts, in which teachers gather on a voluntary basis to construct classroom materials and to share ideas, meeting for the dual purpose of fellowship and professional development;
2. the **professional teacher centre**, also a single-agency centre, formed primarily according to subject matter, where members exchange ideas, participate in

workshop activities and, occasionally, formulate policy recommendations for their state or national affiliates; and

3. the **collaborative teacher centre**, a multi-agency centre designed to deliver consortium-based teacher programmes which are planned, implemented and evaluated by school districts, community representatives, institutions of higher learning, and classroom teachers.

Harty (1984) uses similar criteria for categorizing teacher centres, although he substitutes the phrase 'autonomous center' for 'informal centre'. The professional teacher centre, which focuses on a single subject area, is the least common of these three categories. Informal, or autonomous teacher centres, serving the needs of teachers in one district, are more common (Collier, 1982). Collaborative centres are rapidly increasing in popularity, due largely to increasingly stringent budgetary requirements This organizational structure generally takes the form of a consortium which joins school systems -- and, often, colleges and universities -- in a common effort to provide places for their teachers to engage in inservice training and staff development activities. The consortium of teacher centres in New York City is a prime example of this method (Wenz, 1987).

Devaney (1976) categorizes teacher centres according to affiliation rather than by organizational structure. She divides various types of centres in three groups:

1. **Centres which are independent**, formed by groups of teachers or curriculum developers as non-profit corporations which operate on foundation grants, school district contracts and participation fees.
2. **Centres which are fully incorporated within a school district inservice department**, staffed by employees

of the school district and receiving line-item funding supplemented with foundation grants and state and federal categorical moneys. The system of teacher centres in Florida is an example of this type of centre.

3. **Centres which operate within a university,** in which space, one or more staff positions, and some operating costs may be contributed by the university, with the remaining support coming from foundation grants, participant fees, and state and federal categorical moneys (e.g. the Centre for Educational Leadership at McGill University). Some university-based teacher centres operate as partnerships between the university and one or more school districts (e.g. Minnesota, Syracuse, Connecticut, and SUNY College at Cortland).

In contrast, Feiman (1977) argues that basic differences among teacher centres stem not so much from their affiliations or organizational forms as from the assumptions on which these forms are built. Feiman identifies three philosophical orientations undergirding centres:

1. **The behavioral-type teacher centre**, which is designed to improve specific teaching behaviours;
2. **The humanistic centre**, which focuses on creating a learning environment where teachers feel psychologically supported within a neutral arena; and,
3. **The developmental centre**, which encourages teachers to reflect on their teaching methods and to assess the philosophy on which these methods are based.

Feiman emphasizes that the developmentally oriented approach requires a systematic, long-term participation by teachers, since it involves qualitative changes in teacher

perceptions of the education process. This contrasts with the one-off, shorter encounters characteristic of humanistic, behaviour-type centres. While these classifications are helpful in understanding the variety of teachers centres in existence, they are not mutually exclusive, and it should be understood that the majority of teacher centres exhibit all three orientations to a greater or lesser extent. Whether teacher centres are categorized along organizational lines, or according to their philosophical orientations, all appear to share some common characteristics (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987, p. 96): (i) a central location where teachers meet, plan, and implement new educational practices; (ii) a variety of training activities conducted by resident and external staff; (iii) material for personal and professional growth; (iv) focused resources relating to teachers' specified needs, e.g. research on serving special-needs students, and materials related to effective teaching; and (v) organizational arrangements allowing for teacher development to take place within a school context, e.g. workshops conducted at the school site.

1.2.3. Purpose of Teacher Centres

> Looking at centers across the country, one finds so many different combinations of programming, teacher participation, decision-making, sponsorship and financing that no widely applicable 'models' for building a new center can be delineated. If one seeks a model, it seems more useful to dwell on the purposes for which centers have been started... (Devaney, 1976, p. 413).

According to Devaney, the common purpose which stands out as a bond linking widely dissimilar teacher centres is the aim to help teachers individualize, enrich, reorganize or reconceptualize the teaching within their own classrooms. Burrell (1976) enlarges on this 'common purpose', maintaining

that, in general, teacher centres fulfil four major functions:

1. to provide a base for curriculum development and inservice education, both practical and conceptual in nature, which vary according to the local situation;
2. to act as an information centre for schools and teachers within a certain geographical area;
3. to provide a range of services and facilities to complement school resources (e.g. reprographic and laminating services, and library and material collections); and,
4. to act as a social centre and meeting place for local teachers.

In the mid-1970s when Devaney and Burrell proposed these definitions of the purposes of teacher centres, such centres were regarded primarily as support structures, where teachers came to develop curriculum materials in an informal environment, and where they could receive emotional and professional support from other educators. As Levin and Horwitz (1976) wrote, "One of the basic realizations underlying the teacher centre is that teaching...is a lonely profession" (p. 434). However, as teacher centres evolved, the emphasis appears to have shifted from that of informal support service towards a more organized, professional orientation, with a greater focus on inservice education and the professional development of the teacher. This shift in emphasis was already evident in 1979, when Devaney redefined the common purposes of teacher centres: (i) to respond to teachers' own definitions of their continuing learning needs with assistance and instruction that helps teachers to enrich and activate the learning experiences of the children in their own classrooms; (ii) to provide an environment where teachers may come to work on materials or projects for their

classrooms, receive instruction individually and together, and teach and encourage each other; and, (iii) to advise and assist teachers in their own schools, working to find the teachers' own starting points for improvement.

The work of Sykes (1980) corroborates the notion of a shift in emphasis away from that of informal support service and resource centre towards a greater inservice training orientation. He identifies a combination of five functions performed by teacher centres: (i) reducing the gap between the growth of knowledge and the availability of that knowledge to teachers; (ii) promoting social change by assisting teachers in meeting the various educational goals assigned by schools; (iii) improving teaching practice by providing opportunities to develop greater teaching skills and remedy identified weaknesses; (iv) promoting the personal growth of teachers; and (v) assisting in school improvement efforts.

The 1985-86 *Final Evaluation Report* for the Washington, D.C. Teachers' Center further demonstrates this shift in emphasis. The purposes of the centre are defined as the provision of inservice training in a non-threatening environment, designed for and by teachers, to help them meet the educational needs of students, and to assist teachers in self-improvement, skill development and career advancement. While provision of resources and educational materials remain an important aspect of the centre's work, staff development is instead emphasized as its primary purpose.

Thus, the evolution of teacher centres in North America over the last twenty years has led not to a *change* in purposes, but rather to a *shift* in the emphasis placed on these purposes. A fundamental premise underlying the first North American teacher centres in the 1970s is still applicable today:

> Teachers must be more than technicians, must continue to be learners. Long-lasting improvements in education will come through inservice programs that identify starting points for learning in each teacher; build on teachers' motivation to take more, not less, responsibility for curriculum and instruction decisions in the school and the classroom; and welcome teachers to participate in the design of professional development programs (Devaney, 1979, p. 16).

Another constant premise is the conviction that the purposes of each teacher centre should be tailored towards local needs (Devaney, 1976), so as to ensure that the work of the centre is relevant to the specific situation of potential clients.

Thus, the literature suggests that teacher centres today share the following common purposes:

1. to respond to teachers' own perceptions of their inservice training and professional needs;
2. to provide a variety of activities to refine and expand teachers' instructional skills, which would take place either at the teacher centre or at the school site;
3. to update teachers' knowledge of new pedagogical developments and educational research, and to present theoretical concepts in a practical, relevant manner;
4. to further the professional development of teachers, both as individuals and as a faculty, and to prevent intellectual stagnation;
5. to provide educational resources and material for instruction which supplement those available in schools;
6. to provide immediate, practical assistance for teachers (e.g. consultations, single workshops) and to facilitate professional growth over a period of time (e.g. through long-term courses); and,

7. to provide a supportive, non-judgemental environment for the development of educational ideas and collaborative planning by teacher centre staff, teachers, principals and supervisors.

1.3 PROFILE OF THE EDUCATION RESOURCE CENTRE

The Education Resource Centre (ERC), the subject of this case study, is the educational services department of the Jewish Education Council (JEC) of Montreal. Central to the mission of both the ERC and the JEC is the belief that Jewish education is the primary means of achieving commitment to Judaism. Since it opened in 1974, the purpose of the ERC has been to act as a catalyst for professional development of Jewish educators and to provide a support service to Jewish education, both in formal and informal settings. Each of the schools or organizations that the ERC serves is a private, independent corporation, entirely responsible for its own operation and using the ERC as an educational support service. The ERC's five staff members offer pedagogical and technical consultation and services, and provide a variety of professional development activities to a broad cross-section of clients ranging from teachers and principals to camp counsellors, parents, and community group workers.

The ERC occupies an area on one floor of the Jewish Federation building. In the centre's foyer, clients are met by a receptionist who can direct them to the appropriate staff member or area. The foyer contains a comfortable seating space, and a table bearing general education literature, teaching aids, and information about centre services and forthcoming staff development activities. Clients then proceed down a corridor which is lined with administrative offices, including that of the ERC Director. One wall of the corridor is decorated with a lively display of children's work stemming from centre activities, and with newspaper clippings

about centre events. The office windows open onto the corridor, and the fact that clients are channelled past these offices ensures open communication between staff and clients, with the result that the corridor is the scene of almost constant interaction. This interaction is furthered by the location of the coffee machine and photocopier in the same area. The main body of the ERC consists of a Board Room containing large conference tables, and a substantial library area incorporating educational books and instructional materials, records, videos, cassettes, posters and filmstrips. Within the library are tables and chairs for independent study and a card catalogue for use by the clientele. The ERC also houses an audio-visual centre, containing audio-visual equipment, a dark room, and machines for laminating, sign-making and binding. Opposite the audio-visual storage room is a fully-equipped audio centre control room, video editing equipment and, beyond, a glass window, a sound studio. Part of the audio-visual area serves as an arts and games centre where clients come to make games, visual projects and activity kits under the direction of a staff member. This area is decorated with the work of teachers and students, and is the scene of perpetual activity. Each staff member has an office opening off their main work spaces so that they are accessible to centre clients. Workshops take place in the Library, in the Board Room and the Audio-Visual Room. Occasional workshops are also held in the Federation board rooms and off-premises.

1.4 STUDY RATIONALE

Teacher centres constitute a relatively new aspect of staff development, and conceptions of these centres are still evolving. Efforts to study centres have been disparate and have been complicated by a number of factors. As Hering and Howey indicate,

> These include limited monies to support research in the centers, the limitations in methodology needed to study centers, the fact that researchers in universities and research centers have been minimally involved in teachers' center efforts and an understandable complex of legal/political issues attendant to the evolution of these centers which has preempted empirical study (1982, p. 10).

A substantial proportion of literature about teacher centres takes the form of axiological knowledge, with reference to one particular setting. Existing research studies tend to focus on either internal or external evaluations of teacher centre programmes, and quantitative surveys of participant usage. To the researcher's knowledge, no thorough case studies have been conducted to examine the implementation and evolution of a staff development programme in a specific teacher centre. Equally, despite an increasingly broad research base on staff development in general, few attempts have been made to integrate established knowledge about effective staff development with the literature of teacher centres; as Hering and Howey (1982) maintain, "The literature on inservice education needs to be interwoven with and related to the literature on teacher centres" (p. 10). These two facts indicate a gap in the research on teacher centres and their staff development role; together, they provide the rationale for undertaking this study.

- CHAPTER 2 -

UNDERSTANDING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFFECTIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHER CENTRES: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on effective staff development programmes and on teacher centres as a component of effective staff development. It also presents the conceptual framework for the case study. The purpose of the literature review is two-fold: first, to identify the characteristics of effective staff development; second, to examine research on teacher centres in light of these characteristics in order to ascertain how teacher centres are organized, why they are organized in this way, and the nature of the staff development these centres offer.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Although still relatively limited, the literature and research base for staff development has expanded substantially during the past few decades, and a general consensus about the characteristics of effective staff development programmes is beginning to emerge (Hering and Howey, 1982; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989). At the same time, a strong correlation exists between literature on effective staff development and research on the implementation of educational change, adult learning theory (androgogy), and effective schools. This research has had important implications for the design of successful staff development programmes (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1978; Little, 1981; Hering and Howey, 1982; Lieberman and Miller, 1984).

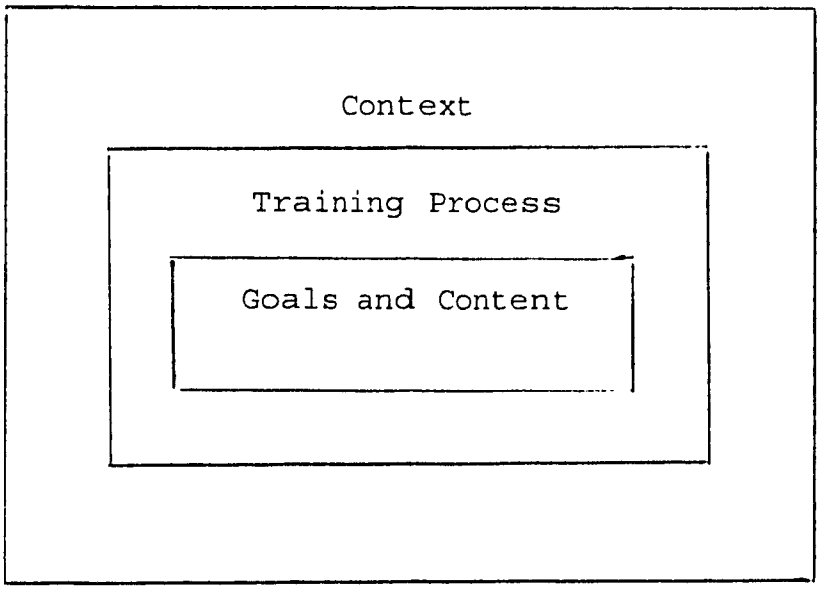
A similar correlation has been identified between effective staff development and teacher centres. According to Hering and Howey (1982), research findings "suggest a

confluence of general principles undergirding successful inservice education, effective schools, and exemplary teachers' centers. The confluence can be carried further by including accepted principles of adult learning" (p. 17). This statement corroborates Devaney's (1976) conclusions:

> Begun primarily with purposes for individualistic curriculum development -- certainly with no intention to design a blueprint for inservice education -- teachers' centers appear to be practicing some principles of staff development that inservice theorists underline as imperative (pp. 415-16).

In an attempt to identify the elements of successful staff development programmes, Mohlman Sparks (1983) devised a 'nested' model of staff development (see Figure 1, below) which is organized in three components: (i) context, (ii) training process, and (iii) goals and content.

Figure 1



G. Mohlman Sparks (1983). Synthesis of Research on Staff Development for Effective Teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 41:2, p. 65.

Mohlman Sparks's (1983) model has served as a basis for the development of the conceptual framework for this thesis, and, for this purpose, has been augmented with additional literature on both effective staff development and teacher centres. Consequently, this model has been modified by the researcher to incorporate the organizational structure and planning process of both effective staff development programmes and teacher centres. As a result, the setting of goals is viewed as part of the overall staff development planning process, rather than simply as an aspect of 'content'. Similarly, the word 'process' has been substituted for the phrase 'training process' (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

MODELS FOR UNDERSTANDING THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Raybould	Mohlman Sparks (1983)
Context	Context
Organizational Structure	Training Process
Planning	Goals and Content
Process	
Content	

The components of both effective staff development and teacher centres as a strategy for staff development, extrapolated from Mohlman Sparks's model and from a review of the literature, have been organized in a comparison chart (see Figure 3, next page) which indicates that the components of teacher centres as a strategy for staff development largely reflect those of effective staff development in general. The inclusion of additional information on funding, client

Figure 3

COMPARISON CHART OF EFFECTIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHER CENTRES

COMPONENTS	EFFECTIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT	TEACHER CENTRES AS A STRATEGY FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT
CONTEXT 2.2	-administrative support -teacher support	-administrative support -teacher support -physical setting
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE 2.3	-coordinating/ planning committees -composition of committees	-management -staffing
PLANNING 2.4	-planning effective staff development -needs assessment -statement of goals and beliefs -timeframe -evaluation	-planning teacher centre programmes -needs assessment -purpose and philosophy -funding -client profiles and patterns of usage -evaluation
PROCESS 2.5	-adult learning theory -types of effective staff development programmes -scheduling of effective staff development programmes	-types of teacher centre programmes -scheduling of teacher centre programmes
CONTENT 2.6	-content of effective staff development programmes	-content of teacher centre programmes

profiles and patterns of usage, and the physical setting was necessitated by the fact that teacher centres are distinct entities, often separate from local schools, and that participation in teacher centre activities is usually voluntary. Figure 3 provides the organizational framework for chapter two.

2.2 CONTEXT OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

In recent years, a substantial amount of research has been conducted to identify the context, or environment, which facilitates the success of staff development programmes (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1978; Little, 1981; Mohlman Sparks, 1981; Lieberman and Miller, 1984; Arin-Krupp, 1989). This research demonstrates a significant link between successful staff development programmes, effective schools and the implementation of educational change. Common elements in the research are strong administrative support, whole staff participation and commitment, a belief amongst faculty that the acquisition of knowledge and skill is a continuous endeavour, and an atmosphere of collegiality and collaboration (Little, 1981; Cohen, 1982).

This section examines the context of teacher centre programmes in the light of research on effective staff development. Three contextual factors are considered: administrative support; teacher support; and the physical setting.

2.2.1 Administrative Support as a Component of Effective Staff Development

The first research to highlight the importance of the context of staff development efforts was the RAND Study of Educational Innovations (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; 1978). After exhaustive research, the study concluded that the

decisive factor affecting the success of programmes was strong administrative support both from principals and from district and regional administrators. The general consensus that has emerged from subsequent studies is that administrative support plays a crucial role in legitimizing and maintaining staff development efforts (Behling, 1981; Stallings, 1981; Crandall and Loucks, 1983; Corbett, Dawson and Firestone, 1984; Loucks-Horsley and Hergert, 1985; Sparks, 1991). Tangible administrative support may be demonstrated in numerous ways. Clear direction and a statement of expectations, the maintenance of good communication channels with the faculty, and a willingness to plan collaboratively with staff members projects a powerful message of administrative commitment to staff development, which in turn is likely to generate reciprocal support amongst participants. Equally, administrators can be instrumental in ensuring the momentum of a staff development programme by incorporating new or revised practices into existing school and district policy. Incorporation of an innovation into established practice has three benefits. First, it can diminish anxiety amongst staff development participants by demonstrating how an innovation complements and blends with existing practice. Second, a strategy of incorporation prevents over-reliance on a few enthusiastic individuals for the survival of a staff development programme. Third, successful incorporation promotes the belief amongst participants that the acquisition of knowledge and skill is a career-long process (Little, 1981).

2.2.2 Administrative Support as a Component of Teacher Centres

The importance of strong administrative support for teacher centre programmes and the need for administrators to work collaboratively with teacher centre staff is evident in the literature on teacher centres (Hering and Howey, 1982;

Wenz, 1987; Ellis, 1990). The benefit of strong administrative support for these centres is consistent with research on effective staff development and on successful change in schools (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; Mertens and Yarger, 1981; Mertens, 1982; Corbett, Dawson and Firestone, 1984). There appear to have been some initial concerns among administrators that teacher centres might undermine established administrative patterns and policies, and facilitate change beyond administrative control (Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 1979). The task of gaining and maintaining administrative support is an ongoing issue for all teacher centres. However, most of the earlier administrative concern has now dissipated (Salley, 1982). This development is summarized by Wenz (1987), who writes, "As successes have been documented and collaboration between teachers and administrators has grown stronger, much of the early resistance to the centres has disappeared. Districts are now seeing them as avenues for growth and development for teachers rather than threats or monuments to teacher power" (p. 7). Research on teacher centres contains many examples of direct administrative collaboration with, and participation in teacher centre programmes (Drumm, 1976; Wenz, 1987; Gould and Letven, 1987; Ellis, 1990). Administrators are usually involved in selecting the content of teacher centre staff development programmes, and their input is often sought for initial needs assessments and programme evaluations. Further administrative support for teacher centre programmes is demonstrated by the provision of release-time for their staff to attend staff development activities during the school day. Drumm (1976) cites one example of administrative collaboration in Connecticut where schools were invited to join a centre-school partnership programme. After an "overwhelming" response (p. 441), centre staff were assigned to schools in consultantship roles and entire faculties, including principals, were involved in planning and implementing centre-related activities.

2.2.3 Teacher Support as a Component of Effective Staff Development

Research shows that teacher support is also a crucial factor in ensuring the success of a staff development programme (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; Fullan, 1982). Effective staff development occurs where there is a shared culture of collegiality and collaboration, and a firm commitment to professional growth. This includes connecting on a professional level with other school staff experimenting with new ideas, mutual problem-solving, and increasing collective understanding through discussion about the practice of teaching in a secure, non-evaluative environment. Professional interaction of this nature leading to the development of shared values constitutes another integral element in both effective schools and successful staff development programmes (Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984).

An atmosphere of collegiality and collaboration is not necessarily an automatic feature in all schools. A school context that is supportive towards staff development sometimes has to be created through the efforts of administrators and faculty (see section 2.2.1). Often, faculty members may only become fully supportive of staff development programmes when they have concrete evidence of their efficacy. According to Guskey's (1985) model of teacher change, significant and lasting change in the beliefs and attitudes of teachers is contingent upon their seeing evidence of change in the learning outcomes of their students as a result of alterations in teachers' classroom practices. Verbal affirmation and recognition of staff effort by administrators is often as effective as extrinsic incentives in generating teacher support (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). Equally, the mastering of a new skill or teaching strategy is itself a reward (Crandall, 1983) and can, in turn, provide what is arguably the most effective motivator for participants in a staff

development programme: a sense of efficacy (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978).

2.2.4 Teacher Support as a Component of Teacher Centres

Teacher support appears if anything to be even more crucial for the success of teacher centres than administrative support. First, teachers account for a substantial majority of centre participants (Hering and Howey, 1982; Barker, 1985). Second, as participation in teacher centre programmes may often be voluntary, teachers are able to withhold support and thereby deprive the centres of a critical link with the schools. Whilst voluntary participation meets the criteria of choice and self-direction which are emphasized in the literature on both adult learning theory and effective staff development (Knowles, 1978; Wood and Thompson, 1980), it also means that teachers centre programmes must be of a high calibre and have a direct relevance for teacher needs in order to attract participants (Devaney, 1979). This is summarized by Sparks (1982): "Because participation in teacher centre activities is usually voluntary, it is important that centres provide high quality services that fill educators' perceived needs and offer practical assistance for day-to-day problems" (p. 395).

According to Levin and Horwitz (1976), "Fundamental to the Teacher Center approach is a belief that the kind of learning teachers want to do can occur in an atmosphere which is inviting, hospitable, supportive and non-evaluative" (p. 434). This type of collegial environment is regarded as a fundamental requirement for effective staff development (see section 2.2.3). Equally, the benefits of teachers learning from other teachers, which are recognized in staff development literature (Knowles, 1978) is promoted in teacher centres by three methods (Wenz, 1987):

1. Teacher centres provide a recognized forum for teachers to share the wealth of experience and expertise accumulated after many years in isolated classrooms;
2. They provide new roles (as staff in teacher centres) for teachers; and,
3. They provide a formal structure for teachers to direct their professional growth, something other professions take for granted.

2.2.5 Physical Setting of Teacher Centres

The provision of a formal structure and a recognized forum for staff development activities is a fundamental principle of teacher centres. According to a qualitative survey conducted by Alberty, Neujahr and Weber (1981), the fact that most teacher centres are characterized by permanent work spaces, physical continuity and centralization of resources and experience is what distinguishes them from other forms of teacher support and staff development. As Alberty, Neujahr and Weber (1981) note:

> Centralization and continuity of place and staff meant that a rich assortment of materials, books, films, work in progress, work completed and organized for sharing, could be gathered in one place. These resources could be thoughtfully juxtaposed, emphasizing their connections and possibilities in conjunction with one another, in visible, accessible arrangements for use (p. 33).

The centralized and permanent setting characterized by a teacher centre is also conducive to the type of collaboration and culture of continuous growth which researchers regard as imperative for staff development (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). According to Gould and Letven (1987), teacher centre activities "reflect the belief that collegial interaction facilitates growth" (p. 50). Further-

more, these informal, collegial activities appear to "fulfil teachers' need for social interaction and personal validation" (Hering and Howey, 1982. p. 15), a need which parallels the research findings of effective staff development and of adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Crandall, 1983). Thus, many teacher centres participate in a web, or network, linking persons, resources and institutions with the mutual aim of promoting staff development (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977; Saslaw, 1985; Wenz, 1987). Examples of this type of collaboration include academic alliances, or study groups of school, teacher centre, and local university personnel (Gould and Letven, 1987), collaborative staff development planning and funding between centres, schools, school boards, universities and/or state departments of education (Ellis, 1989; Holt, 1989), and reciprocal presentation of courses and workshops by teacher centre staff and university or college personnel (Weiler, 1983; Harty, 1984). At the same time, networks of teacher centres have developed in order to pool resources, personnel and ideas more effectively, a form of collaboration which is increasingly vital in an era of rapid technological change and diminishing resources for education (Weiler, 1983; Wenz, 1987).

The teacher centre is in a position to act as a catalyst for communication, and in order to facilitate this, effective verbal and written communication between centre staff and teachers, administrators, school boards, community groups and higher education personnel is vital (Allen and Allen, 1973; Weiler, 1983). According to research, good communication requires constant face-to-face contact between centre staff and participants, listening skills and frank discussion, the presentation of research by teachers at area conferences, and telephone calls. Hering and Howey (1982) cite examples of the use of teacher centre advocates, or representatives, in a school building as another effective means of communication. This person may be a teacher or an administrator. The role is

a voluntary one, and responsibilities include distributing newsletters, answering teachers' questions about teacher centre services, and providing a direct communication channel between the schools and the teacher centre.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Research indicates that effective staff development programmes are formally embedded in both the philosophy and the organizational structure of schools and school boards (Metzdorf, 1989) and, as one element of a larger organization, merely require a planning and coordinating committee rather than a separate governing structure. The composition of an effective staff development committee should be fully representative of the constituency it is to serve (Orlich, 1988). However, lack of collaborative planning involving those constituencies constitutes a major criticism of many staff development programmes (Korinek, Schmid and McAdams, 1985). Traditionally, administrators have comprised the vast majority of staff development committee members. Both Fullan (1982) and Orlich (1988) emphasize the importance of adequate teacher participation in such committees. This emphasis on a balance between teachers and administrators is consistent with three primary criteria that should be considered when selecting staff development committee members (Orlich, 1988): relevance to those who will be most affected by decisions made in the programme; expertise in the area of staff development programming; and, jurisdiction -- that is, authority to carry out decisions made by the committee.

2.3.1 Management of Teacher Centres

In contrast to general staff development programmes, which operate as one element of a larger organization (such as a school board), teacher centres often exist as distinct,

independent entities. As such, they require formal management structures. Harty (1984) maintains that the management of a teacher centre varies according to the major source of funding, the reasons for the centre's existence and the part of the district superstructure to which the centre is attached. In this sense, a distinction has to be made between those teacher centres which are funded predominantly by the federal government, and those which receive funding from other sources, such as district school boards, universities or educational foundations.

In the United States, the Federal Teacher Center Act (1976) recognized the value of collaborative planning of staff development activities by making federal funding contingent upon teachers constituting a majority of the governing board of a teacher centre. It was also mandated that the remaining board members should represent teacher centre staff, local and/or regional education departments, administrators, special and vocational education teachers and the local institution of higher education. Although direct federal funding of teacher centres under the Act has now ceased, there is no evidence that the composition of governing boards of formerly federally-funded teacher centres has altered.

Typically, a teacher centre board that originally received federal funding consists of 10-20 members who meet approximately once each month. Participation is voluntary (except for key individuals such as the centre director), and terms last for specific lengths of time. Collier (1982) has identified four general areas of responsibility which typify these boards: (i) recommending policy and procedures for the teacher centre; (ii) developing goals and objectives for the centre within the policies determined by the local school board; (iii) recommending the employment of appropriate teacher centre staff; and (iv) making recommendations on an appropriate budget.

The basic responsibility for translating these policy decisions into programmatic terms is left to each centre's director and staff. Inevitably, there is a delicate balance of control between the teacher centre director and the policy board (Edelfelt, 1982). Clear definition of roles and areas of responsibility is therefore necessary from the outset (Devaney, 1976). This kind of role delineation is also strongly recommended in the literature on effective staff development (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987).

To the author's knowledge, no systematic study of the management structure of non-federally-funded teacher centres in the U.S. and Canada has been conducted. However, a review of existing literature suggests that there is, by and large, a correlation between the composition of most teacher centre governing boards, regardless of funding sources or origins (Devaney, 1976; Levin and Horwitz, 1976; Harty, 1984). There appear to be only two differences. First, in addition to representatives of the same constituencies required by federally-funded teacher centres, non-federally-funded teacher centres sometimes include representatives of local community groups on the governing board. Second, although well-represented, teachers do not always constitute a majority on the board of non-federally-funded centres. This is not necessarily detrimental to teacher interests. According to a Detroit study (Hering and Howey (1982), p. 49), a board containing a minority of teachers may be just as effective in responding to teacher interests as one with a majority, so long as the board is attentive to the needs of centre clients.

This emphasis on teacher participation in governing boards is one factor which differentiates teacher centres from other forms of staff development. Orlich (1988) identifies a typology of power bases utilized in the governance arrangements of various forms of inservice training. The types of power bases he identifies include those that are coercive, those that are referent and those based on reward.

Teacher centres would generally fall under the referent form of governance, which suggests that needs must emerge from the clients and that cooperative decision-making should be employed. Teacher representatives act as catalysts for communicating teacher needs, interests, and problems directly to the teacher centre board; in turn, they disseminate information about centre services and programmes to their colleagues in the schools.

The links between the composition of teacher centre governing boards and effective staff development are evident. The literature on both teacher centre governing boards and on the organizational structures required for effective staff development emphasizes the importance of collaborative decision-making and adequate representation of all constituencies (Fullan, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982; Orlich, 1988). The composition of teacher centre governing boards replicates the kind of administrative support and active involvement demonstrated by successful staff development (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1978; Stallings, 1981), and likewise fosters a shared culture of collegiality and collaboration (Little, 1981; Cohen, 1987). Teacher input and a collaborative approach to management also fulfil criteria drawn from adult learning theory (androgogy) -- that is, using assessed needs as relevant starting points for staff development activities, and enabling adults to be self-directing (Knowles, 1978; Wood and Thompson, 1980; Andrews, Houston and Bryant, 1981). The high level of teacher involvement and sense of 'shared ownership' advocated in the effective staff development literature (Lawrence, 1974; Howey, 1980) appears to be the essence of teacher centre management (Hering and Howey, 1982).

2.3.2 Staffing of Teacher Centres

The subject of teacher centre personnel consists of three elements: (i) composition; (ii) competencies; and (iii) the extent to which centre staff identify with, and reflect, teacher concerns.

Staff composition in each centre will vary according to local needs, the scope of the centre's jurisdiction, and available funding. A small centre may comprise one full-time director, and a part-time secretary, media teacher and/or resource teacher (Yeatts, 1975). Larger centres, such as those in Florida, may consist of a full-time director, several facilitators, a media specialist and clerical staff. The vast majority of teacher centre staff have teaching experience. While many are permanent, others may be experienced classroom teachers on leave to work full-time at the centre (Gould and Letven, 1987). An alternative staffing model is that of the Center for Open Education at the University of Connecticut. The Center staff decentralized their operations in 1973 to become on-site consultants in area schools (Drumm, 1976).

Whether the teacher centre staff is composed of one person or a dozen, research indicates that certain professional competencies are required for a teacher centre programme to be effective (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977). These competencies, or qualifications, provide what Branscombe and Newsom describe as "the dynamic for the whole programme" (p. 41). Drawing on the Human Resources Development Practitioner Role/Activity Model (Nadler, 1980), Castle (1989) has identified three major areas in which a staff developer should be competent, whether he or she works for a school board or a teacher centre. He or she should be: (i) a learning specialist, focusing on the design, development and delivery of both formal programmes and informal, on-the-job learning experiences; (ii) an administrator, managing educational staff and programmes, focusing on the acquisition,

allocation and control of resources dedicated to the staff development function, and aligning this function with the school district's strategic mission; and, (iii) a consultant, facilitating the professional development of individuals, groups or organizations, and helping to translate research into practice.

Branscombe and Newsom (1977) suggest that four similar kinds of professional competency are necessary among centre staff: (i) the skills of an educator, with successful experience in teaching; (ii) the skills of a specialist in learning materials (e.g. librarian, audio-visual technician, and education technologist); (iii) the skills of an administrator who can motivate personnel; and, (iv) the skills of a producer of learning materials and a manager of technical processes and operations. Wenz (1987) includes a fifth type of competency: knowledge of adult learning theory.

The role of the teacher centre director is a critical element of centre effectiveness. It is a relatively new position and, as such, is still evolving. In addition to the competencies listed above, a teacher centre director requires leadership skills (Edelfelt, 1982) and the capacity to work collaboratively with teacher centre staff, governing board and clientele (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977).

The involvement of teachers in both the staffing of a teacher centre and in the planning of staff development activities is a fundamental aspect of teacher centre philosophy (Collier, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982). This factor is consistent with the literature on adult learning theory and on effective staff development (Lawrence, 1974; Fullan, 1982; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989). The use of experienced educators to staff a teacher centre suggests that they "are uniquely sensitive to the needs of teachers, and uniquely committed to responding to those needs" (Levin and Horwitz, 1976, p. 438). Wenz (1987) asserts that "current research finds that teachers learn best

from other teachers and nowhere is this model stronger than in teacher centres" (p. 5).

2.4 PLANNING STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Both effective staff development in general and teacher centres in particular utilize a planning process for establishing staff development programme objectives.

2.4.1 Planning Effective Staff Development

Systematic planning is perceived to be a fundamental element of effective staff development programmes (Mertens, 1982; Orlich, 1988). The nature of this planning may be decided by local needs, or may be mandated by provincial or federal governments (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). Research shows that, in general, a staff development plan should encompass the following components:

1. a needs assessment;
2. a statement of goals and beliefs;
3. a general time-frame for the programme; and,
4. an evaluation model that is congruent with both goals and needs assessment.

In addition, three other components, as seen in Mohlman Sparks's (1983) model (see Section 2.1), are often considered to be essential to the staff development planning process: the programme context, its process and its content. Owing to the considerable importance of these three elements, the author has considered them separately (see sections 2.2, 2.5 and 2.6).

The four components of a staff development plan will now be discussed:

1. **Needs Assessment:** In order to identify the goals of the various participants in a systematic fashion, and to establish the general focus of a staff development programme, it is necessary to conduct some form of needs assessment (King, Hayes and Newman, 1977; Orlich, 1988). The purpose of a needs assessment is not to highlight deficiencies in the educational system but rather to identify differences between desired and actual outcomes, and to indicate a capacity, or standard, to be achieved. In short, the needs assessment process "helps to establish a consensus for direction" (Orlich, 1988, p. 38). An effective needs assessment has a participatory emphasis and aims to integrate the views of the participants in the proposed staff development programme. Research by Lieberman (1986) and studies cited by Waxman (1985) indicate that the conduct of a needs assessment and the inclusion of participants' views are often crucial to the ultimate success of staff development programmes.

2. **Statement of Goals and Beliefs:** Once needs have been assessed, a statement of goals and beliefs is the second important component of a staff development plan. Goals serve three purposes: (i) as a source of legitimacy, (ii) as a source for direction, and (iii) as a basis for evaluation (Dornbush and Scott, 1975). Clark (1981) advocates caution when establishing goals, suggesting that they should be flexible rather than concrete, and procedural rather than substantive, so that the staff development process is not inhibited. One method for promoting flexibility is to accommodate goals for *individuals* within the mission statement, in addition to school and district goals. Loucks-Horsley et al. (1987) observe that, "Good staff development recognizes the validity of the individual as well as the community to which that person belongs" (p. 11). By integrating district, school and individual goals, staff developers ensure the necessary 'ecological balance' required for an effective staff development programme (Vaughn, 1981).

3. **Time-Frame:** A third component of effective staff development planning is the general time-frame within which the programme is to operate. As with the establishment of staff development goals, research reiterates a need for flexibility when setting an overall time-frame, and for recognition on the part of planning committees of staff development as a process rather than a single event (Metzdorf, 1989).

4. **Evaluation:** As for the fourth component, an evaluation of programmes, educators agree that the outcomes of successful staff development programmes are positive changes in (i) teachers' instructional practices, (ii) students' learning outcomes, and (iii) teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Griffin, 1983; Guskey, 1985). An evaluation can verify that these positive outcomes have occurred, and can register participant reactions about the process. Those reactions may then be synthesized and fed into the design of future programmes (Duke and Corno, 1981; Crosby, 1982; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989).

2.4.2 Planning Teacher Centre Programmes

The planning of teacher centre programmes is usually a collaborative process, undertaken by the governing board, the centre director and centre staff in order to establish centre objectives. According to research, planning in teacher centres includes similar components to general staff development plans, such as those drawn up at a district or provincial level (Devaney, 1979; Collier, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982). There are five key components to planning in a teacher centre:

1. needs assessment (see section 2.4.3);
2. purpose and philosophy (see section 2.4.4);
3. funding (see section 2.4.5);

4. client profiles and patterns of usage (see section 2.4.6); and,
5. evaluation (see section 2.4.7).

These five components provide the structure for the ensuing examination of the planning of teacher centre programmes.

2.4.3 Planning Teacher Centre Programmes: Needs Assessment

The value of an accurate, collaborative and up-to-date needs assessment as part of the planning process is emphasized in the literature on teacher centres (Hering and Howey, 1982; Barker, 1985). Indeed, Saslaw (1985) suggests that a lack of collaborative planning and a paucity of teacher input during the planning process contributed to the closure of some teacher centres in the U.S. after the cessation of direct federal funding in 1981.

A needs assessment may be informal (usually through person-to-person conversation), or formal, using statistical analysis of systematically-gathered data. Both methods have benefits and drawbacks. Researchers concur that some combination of formal and informal solicitation of views is most effective, in order to generalize results as well as to tap teachers' deeper concerns (King, Hayes and Newman, 1977; Hering and Howey, 1982). The value of combining various forms of needs assessments is viewed by Hering and Howey (1982) as a means of identifying the needs of individuals as well as those of the faculty as a whole. According to Mertens and Yarger (1981), teacher centres may be most clearly distinguished from other approaches to inservice education by the priority that is placed on addressing the needs of individual teachers. This fact is consonant with the importance of addressing individual needs in addition to those of faculty as emphasized in the literature on effective staff development (Loucks-

Horsley et al., 1987; Ellis, 1989) and on adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Wilsey and Killion, 1982).

2.4.4 Planning Teacher Centre Programmes: The Purpose and Philosophy of Teacher Centres

Two integral components of the planning process for staff development in a teacher centre context are the purposes and the philosophy of such centres. Both elements have a profound influence on the nature of teacher centre staff development programmes (Levine, 1985; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989).

The purposes of teacher centres have been considered earlier in the thesis (see section 1.2.3), and the links between these purposes and those of effective staff development have been established. The idea that teacher centres should respond to teachers' own perceptions of their inservice training and professional needs, and should provide a variety of activities and services to facilitate this response is supported by research on adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Andrews, Houston and Bryant, 1981; Levine, 1985). So, too, are the purposes of providing immediate, practical assistance for teachers, as well as longer term professional growth. The purposes of providing a supportive, non-judgemental environment, and collaborative planning between administrators and staff are also regarded as essential elements of effective staff development (Little, 1981; Korinek, Schmid and McAdams, 1985; Cohen, 1987). Teacher centre philosophy emerges from these purposes. Burrell (1976) summarises the central notion of this philosophy as the concept that classroom teachers are experts and professionals in their own right, able and willing to take on the responsibility for much, if not all, of their own reeducation and development. Teacher centre philosophy thus reflects that of effective staff development (Rourke and Davis, 1981; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989). The concept of

teacher empowerment that is demonstrated by teacher centres has progressed considerably from the early days of the deficit model of staff development (Arin-Krupp, 1989).

2.4.5. Planning Teacher Centre Programmes: Funding

The issue of funding during the planning stage of staff development programmes is a major concern of teacher centre staff and governing boards. The financial situation of many teacher centres appears to be chronically precarious, and Edelfelt (1982) regards a search for continued funding as "critical to the survival of teacher centres" (p. 393). According to Harty (1984), there appears to be no standard method of funding teacher centre operations, and a variety of centre budget plans are discussed by Andrews (1980) and Friedman and Alley (1980). The cessation of direct federal funding for teacher centres in the United States in 1981, and the incorporation of this money into block grants meant that those centres which formerly relied on federal funds now had to compete with other educational services for a share of the educational dollar. In addition to applying for general federal financial support, these teacher centres have been compelled to turn to the same alternative funding sources that were already being approached by independent teacher centres elsewhere, including those in Canada. Alternative types of funding include foundation grants, school district contracts, state (or provincial) and local school board categorical moneys, teacher union funds, participant fees and university funding. Another method for coping with inadequate funding is for several small school boards to pool their resources and establish a regional teacher centre (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977; Wenz, 1987).

Once funding sources have been established by a teacher centre, the staff and the governing board must allocate these funds. There appear to be some commonalities amongst the

budgetary procedures of teacher centres (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977). Allen and Allen (1973) suggest that teacher centres should aim to incorporate three levels of budget planning:

1. Continuous budgeting for the maintenance and continuation of the existing programme;
2. Incremental budgeting to bring an established programme up to some norm of adequacy; and,
3. Expansion, or creative budgeting to support new goals and expand centre functions.

Steinaker (1976) also recommends that a teacher centre budget should make provisions for changes in education technology in order to keep the teacher centre up-to-date with new developments in the education field.

2.4.6 Planning Teacher Centre Programmes: Client Profiles and Patterns of Usage

When planning staff development programmes for a teacher centre, the staff and governing body need to take into account the type of client who uses the centre, and the actual patterns of use. Data indicate that participants who utilize teacher centres derive from a wide spectrum of constituencies. For example, a survey by Barker (1985) reveals that teacher centre participants represent five basic affiliations: city schools, county schools, specific-membership schools, university students, and a group composed of diverse individuals (administrators, supervisors, parents, para-professionals, higher education personnel, and individuals from the business and industrial communities). Whilst this survey refers to a single teacher centre, research indicates that a similar cross-section of participants is common to most centres (Yeatts, 1976; Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981). Such broad-based involvement in staff development constitutes

a major recommendation in the literature on effective staff development programmes (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Mohlman Sparks, 1983).

Data show that elementary teachers account for a sizeable majority of centre visitors, as do what Barker (1985) referred to as "diverse individuals". One interesting fact is that high school teachers often represent a very low frequency of utilization. A survey of a teacher centre in Oakland (1982) indicates that the ratio of elementary to high school teachers who use the centre is approximately 3:1. Further research is needed to ascertain why this is so. One possibility is that high school teachers prefer more subject-specific programmes than are currently offered by many teacher centres.

The percentage of potential clients who utilize teacher centres varies considerably from one individual situation to another. In 1982, for example, Edelfelt estimated that approximately 30 percent of teachers participated in the activities of teacher centres. However, Yeatts (1976) estimated that at one teacher centre in Virginia, more than 85 percent of a school system's staff utilized their teacher centre. Similar high statistics for participation at a teacher centre in Florida are calculated by Gomez (1988).

With the exception of staff development activities at centres that have been organized for the entire district, no consistent patterns of usage emerge from the data on teacher centres (Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981; Hering and Howey, 1982). According to Alberty, Neujahr and Weber (1981), "Patterns of use cut across such variables as group of user, teaching experience, length of contact, context of first contact, and orientation to teaching and learning. They were individual" (p. 41). This notion of heterogeneous usage is corroborated by a survey of research by Hering and Howey (1982), who maintain that this finding "underscores the responsive and individually-oriented nature of many teacher centres" (p. 34). They further maintain that effective

teacher centres often demonstrate how experienced centre staff can engage in 'active staffing' which involves moving from a responsive posture, in which they attend to immediate needs, to a longer-term developmental type of interaction with teachers, thereby illustrating "how a center can be more than an ad hoc collection of individually oriented activities" (p. 35). This concern with individual and immediate needs as well as with longer-term participant development corresponds with the literature on effective staff development (King, Hayes and Newman, 1977; Joyce and Showers, 1980; Ellis, 1989) and on adult learning theory (Wilsey and Killion, 1982; Levine, 1985). Above all, evidence of individual patterns of usage in teacher centres is validated by Knowles (1978), who claims that, since individual differences increase with time, adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning (see section 2.5.1). Research reviewed here would suggest that teacher centres fulfil these criteria.

2.4.7 Planning Teacher Centre Programmes: Evaluation

Evaluation of teacher centre programmes is a necessary planning component in order to ascertain programme effectiveness, to validate the hypotheses upon which the centre is based, and to clarify purposes and directions. An evaluation also indicates where modifications and improvements may be necessary in a specific programme (Duke and Corno, 1981). Feiman (1977), Baden (1980), Caldwell (1980) and Guilkey (1980) have discussed the complexities involved in evaluating teacher centres, including ideological variations which lead to questions about effectiveness and expected outcomes being posed and answered in different ways.

Despite these complexities, certain general principles for the evaluation of teacher centres emerge from the literature. First, the chosen evaluation model should be

congruent with the goals and objectives formulated by a needs assessment during the planning process (Barker, 1985). The data collection involved in formulating these needs and goals facilitates a formative, ongoing evaluation of a teacher centre and its programme and allows for modification of the programme (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977).

Second, summative evaluations should be conducted periodically in order to assess the extent to which outcomes of teacher centre programmes are consistent with goals. In Florida, continued state funding is contingent upon the outcome of this type of evaluation (Collier, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982; Holt, 1989). Crosby (1982) stresses the benefits of involving programme participants in the evaluation of staff development activities; this in turn has direct relevance for teacher centres. Holt (1989) recommends that the evaluation design for a teacher centre be developed and conducted collaboratively by teacher centre staff, and school and university personnel.

2.5 PROCESS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

This section considers the process of, or delivery systems for, effective staff development, and examines teacher centre programmes in the light of research. Three components of the staff development process are considered:

1. Adult learning theory (androgogy);
2. Types of staff development programmes; and,
3. Scheduling of staff development programmes.

2.5.1 Adult Learning Theory

Adult learning theory provides an essential theoretical basis for effective staff development programmes (Oja, 1980; Krupp, 1981; Fonzi, 1982; Thompson and Wood, 1982; Sprinthall

and Sprinthall, 1983). The common message of research is that adult developmental levels are not static, but rather part of a continuing growth process (Bertani and Tafel, 1989). According to Joyce and Showers (1980), as the individual learner becomes more complex, his environment needs to change with him if growth is to occur at an optimal rate. Wilsey and Killion (1982) concur, arguing that because, in any given training session, learners are at various stages of development, instructors must integrate structured, concrete procedures with more flexible, conceptual and open-ended approaches.

Knowles' (1978) analysis of research on adult learning theory resulted in five recommendations for staff development which were subsequently endorsed by Wood and Thompson (1980), Andrews, Houston and Bryant (1981) and Levine (1985):

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore, these needs are appropriate starting points for adult learning activities.
2. Adult orientation to learning is life-centred, rather than subject-centred.
3. The analysis of experience is the richest resource for adult learning.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing, necessitating the inclusion of some unstructured or independent learning in a staff development programme.
5. Individual differences among people increase with time; therefore, staff development programmes must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning.

2.5.2 Types of Effective Staff Development Programmes

Effective staff development activities reflect research on adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Andrews, Houston and Bryant, 1981; Levine, 1985). The work of Joyce and Showers (1980) in this area has gained widespread acceptance among staff developers in the past decade. After a two-year examination of research on the ability of teachers to acquire new teaching skills and strategies, Joyce and Showers identified several key components for staff development activities. When combined with the work of Mohlman Sparks (1983) on the importance of providing adequate time for discussion of staff development activities amongst participants, there emerges a typology of five training components for effective staff development programmes which can be applied following a needs assessment:

1. Study of the theory of the skill or strategy.
2. Observation of modelling, or demonstration of practice by the staff developer.
3. Discussion of application. (Although implicit in the research of Joyce and Showers (1980; 1981; 1982), it is Mohlman Sparks (1983) who emphasizes the importance of the inclusion of guided discussion as a specific component of a staff development programme. This view is endorsed by research on adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978) and reiterates earlier studies (Bentzen, 1974; Evertson et al., 1982; Holly, 1982).
4. Practice and feedback. Practice under simulated conditions or within a classroom setting provides the type of experiential learning that is regarded as an important component of any adult learning programme

(Arends, Hersh and Turner, 1980; Roy, 1987). Feedback may be informal or formal, following observation by a staff developer.

5. Coaching for application in the classroom setting. Direct, intensive coaching on how to apply new skills may be given by peers, administrators or staff developers.

Research shows that all, or a combination, of these five components are effective as a process for helping teachers to acquire new skills and strategies and to improve existing techniques (Borg, 1975; Edwards, 1975; Feldens and Duncan, 1978; Joyce and Showers, 1980; Mohlman Sparks, 1983).

Staff development can take many forms: individual consultations between clients and staff developers, conferences, special projects relating to a specific school or curriculum area, individual study for an advanced degree, or action research (Glatthorn, 1987). However, by far the most common format is that of the workshop or mini-course. Wood et al. (1981) define a workshop as a group of people participating in structured activities during a specified period of time to accomplish predetermined goals and tasks which lead to new understandings and changes in professional behaviour. Whilst the typology or training components devised by Joyce and Showers (1980) and Mohlman Sparks (1983) is most appropriate in a workshop context, it also has relevance for other staff development formats.

The combination of components selected for a particular staff development activity will depend on the purpose of the training (Levine and Broude, 1989). Joyce and Showers (1980) argue that if the purpose is 'fine-tuning' of existing skills, then modelling, practice under simulated conditions, practice in the classroom, and feedback will probably be sufficient. However, when the purpose is the mastering of new teaching skills or curricula, then presentation and discussion of

theory and coaching for application are probably necessary as well. This is to ensure that the outcome of a staff development programme takes participants beyond the awareness and conceptual stages to the application stage, when the new learning is integrated into the teachers' repertoire. However, despite widespread support amongst researchers for the benefits of coaching (Joyce and Showers, 1980), this training component remains controversial (Wade, 1985), and is not yet regarded as an established panacea for staff development.

Whether coaching for application is employed, or whether structured or unstructured feedback is sufficient, some sort of follow-up support in order to ensure the transfer of the programme content into the classroom is generally regarded as a crucial component of an effective staff development programme (Wood, Thompson and Russell, 1981; Guskey, 1986; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987).

2.5.3 Types of Teacher Centre Programmes

The process of staff development is a critical issue for teacher centres. According to Edelfelt (1982), a teacher centre justifies its existence through the programmes it offers. Centres can only be sustained by continued provision of carefully planned, high quality programmes. Research shows that a wide variety of programme delivery systems are offered by most teachers centres (Devaney, 1976; McLaren, 1976; Mertens and Yarger, 1981; Collier, 1982; Mohlman Sparks, 1982; Barker, 1985; Holt, 1989). These delivery systems include the following:

1. Individual consultations and advisory support between centre staff and participants;
2. Informal, 'drop-in' programme for immediate practical advice;

3. Centre staff acting as brokers: if they are not able to fulfil teachers' requests themselves, they find other teachers who can;
4. Special projects organized collaboratively between centre staff and participants, and relating to a particular school or curriculum area;
5. Workshops, both at the centre and at individual schools, and usually a single-session activity;
6. Mini-courses -- a series of workshops over a longer period of time;
7. Conferences, organized collaboratively by the centre and the district schools, and involving local and national guest speakers;
8. Individual study, often for a further degree; and,
9. Summer scholarships or conference attendance fees provided for participants, who subsequently provide feedback workshops on their return.

For reasons of budget and time, it is rare for a teacher centre to engage in all these activities (Harty, 1984). However, most centres offer a wide cross-section of staff development programmes, which vary according to the interests and needs of the community served by the centre, the philosophy of the centre, and the instructional talent and teaching resources that are available.

Edelfelt (1982) criticises teacher centres for employing standard inservice approaches, rather than providing an innovative alternative. A review of literature on teacher centres suggests that this criticism is unfounded. In addition to providing tried and tested staff development formats, such as workshops and mini-courses (Joyce and Showers, 1980; Mohlman Sparks, 1983), teacher centres appear to offer a greater variety of delivery system choices than do many other staff development contexts and, consequently, a greater flexibility of use for participants (Alberty, Neujahr

and Weber, 1981). Choice, variety and programme flexibility are three criteria which are consonant with effective staff development literature (Lawrence, 1974; Yarger et al., 1980), and with research on adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Levine, 1985). The attempt to accommodate both individual and faculty needs in teacher centre programmes is also consonant with effective staff development literature (Howey, 1980). So, too, is the actual staff development process employed in teacher centre programmes. Research by Ellis (1990) indicates that teacher centres often adapt the typology of five training components devised by Joyce and Showers (1980) and Mohlman Sparks (1983)(see section 2.5.2). Hering and Howey (1982) agree with these findings, writing:

> It would appear...that in exemplary centers there is an emphasis not only on theory but on theory grounded in practice, and related specifically to individual teacher behaviors. Similarly, it would appear that there is a <u>modelling of behaviors</u> in teachers' centers that is not apparent in most other inservice education activities (p. 14).

Use of this typology of training components as a guide for programmes indicates that teacher centres employ methods that are also validated by adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Levine, 1985). However, it should be noted that two of the training components validated by adult learning theory -- the provision of follow-up support and of coaching for application -- are less common aspects of teacher centre programmes (Edelfelt, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982). In general, this is due to budget and time constraints, and to restricted mandates -- for example, where school administrators are responsible for follow-up. A few teacher centres circumvent this problem by training pairs, or groups, of participants to provide their own follow-up support and coaching when they return to the school setting (Ellis, 1990).

2.5.4 Scheduling Effective Staff Development Programmes

The issue of the length and frequency of staff development programmes is debated in the literature. Wade (1985) conducted a meta-analysis of research on the length of various staff development programmes, and concluded that there was no statistically significant effect of length of training on the efficacy of a programme. However, the majority opinion amongst researchers is that staff development is a process rather than an event (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987) and that effective staff development programmes are spaced over many months or even years (Lawrence, 1974; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Crandall, 1983). In the case of short-term programming, one staff development schedule that has demonstrated effectiveness is a series of four to six three-hour workshops spaced one or two weeks apart (Stallings, Needels and Stayrook, 1978; Anderson, Evertson and Brophy, 1979). The prevailing perception of staff development as a developmental process is consistent with research on adult learning theory.

There appear to be two explanations for this suggested time-span. First is the concept of mutual adaptation (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975), whereby adequate time is required for teachers to adapt and modify new practices to fit their unique situation. Second, Mohlman Sparks (1983) suggests that another rationale for the effectiveness of long-term change efforts is provided by the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), proposed by Hall and Loucks (1978). CBAM acknowledges that teachers' concerns will vary at different stages in the staff development process, and that programme activities will need to adapt to accommodate these concerns over a period of time. Clearly, if one accepts the hypothesis on which CBAM is based, then a 'one-shot' staff development activity is not as effective as a longer time-span, which also makes allowances for an inevitable trial and error period of 'creative floundering' (Hunter, 1985). Certainly, much depends on the

complexity of the programme content. If the purpose is simply to raise awareness about an issue, then a single session may be adequate. However, when dealing with topics of a greater complexity, a single session

> does not allow for the gradual change inherent in the concerns-based approach and in the notion of mutual adaptation. Further, in such settings there is no opportunity for ongoing discussion of problems and concerns related to implementation, which is critical (Mohlman Sparks, 1983, pp. 66-7).

2.5.5 Scheduling Teacher Centre Programmes

Scheduling of activities in teacher centres appears to corroborate the findings of effective staff development literature (Lawrence, 1974; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Mohlman Sparks, 1983; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). Teacher centres typically provide a variety of schedules, both during and after school hours, which can range from a single session to a number of sessions spread over the course of several months (Ellis, 1990). Central to the purpose of teacher centres is the notion that staff development is an ongoing, incremental process, which should provide opportunities for reflection as well as practice. Devaney (1976) suggests that the value of a teacher centre is that "the center elicits from teachers over time -- one, two, three years -- serious professional inquiry and creativity" (p. 416). Opportunity for reflection and the need for staff development continuity are two attributes that are reiterated in the literature on effective staff development in general, and in a survey by Howey (1980) in particular. In a subsequent survey of effective staff development literature, Hering and Howey (1982) assessed Howey's (1980) review and concluded that "the implications for and congruence with activities in teacher centres is obvious" (p. 15).

2.6 CONTENT OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

2.6.1 Content of Effective Staff Development Programmes

In the past, the content of staff development programmes was an ill-defined area, often relying on assumptions about education rather than on a solid research base. In such cases, staff development consisted of a generic, large-group presentation which dealt with a general curriculum area or teaching strategy. It was hoped that teachers would absorb some key ideas and somehow transfer them into classroom practice (Lewin, 1935; Bertani and Tafel, 1989). In addition, the deficit theory of staff development has been a traditional determinant of programme content (Arin-Krupp, 1989).

However, in the past decade, an increasing number of researchers have stressed the need for the content of staff development programmes to be guided by educational research (Vaughn, 1981; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). Studies on teacher effectiveness have identified specific classroom management practices, instructional techniques and expectations that appear to help raise student test scores (Slavin, 1980; Aspy and Roebuck, 1982; Brophy, 1982). Shulman (1987) analyzed the major sources of teaching knowledge, and the resulting framework has provided staff developers with new guidelines for determining programme content which may be matched to the local needs of participants (King, Hayes and Newman, 1977). Shulman (1987) identifies four general information sources:

1. Scholarship in content disciplines;
2. The materials, practices and setting of the institutionalized education process;
3. Research on schooling, social organizations, human learning, teaching and development, and

the other social and cultural phenomena that affect what teachers do; and,

4. The wisdom of practice (p. 8).

2.6.2 Content of Teacher Centre Programmes

The emphasis on teacher empowerment and an orientation towards growth which characterize teacher centre philosophy ensure that most centres avoid deficit theories or generic group presentations as determinants of the content of staff development programmes (Arin-Krupp, 1986; Bertani and Tafel, 1989). The need to base the content of staff development programmes on educational research which is emphasized in the literature of effective staff development (Vaughn, 1981; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987) is also consistent with research on teacher centres (Devaney, 1979; Hering and Howey, 1982).

In Swiniarski's (1982) view, responsibility for the final selection of content lies with the teacher centre staff, whose role it is to blend the desires of the classroom teacher with the broader view of a district's or school board's assessed needs of the schools and with current educational research. The blending of educational research with local needs is complicated by the fact that perceptions of these needs will occasionally differ among the various participant groups. A survey conducted by Byrd (1981) revealed that administrators and teacher educators tended to perceive the need for greater skill development and awareness on the part of teachers in a greater variety of areas than teachers tended to acknowledge. In view of these data, Hering and Howey (1982) recommend that teacher centres blend teacher perceptions of needs and interests with input from other key constituencies when planning content of staff development programmes. Research on the collaborative nature of teacher centre planning (see section 2.4.2) would suggest that most teacher centres put this recommendation into practice (Mertens and Yarger, 1981;

Collier, 1982; Orlich, 1988).

A review of the literature indicates that many teacher centres do employ the four major sources of teaching knowledge employed in Shulman's (1987) framework when deciding on the content of their staff development programmes (see section 2.6.1). First, the updating and expansion of curricular and instructional knowledge is an integral part of the content of many teacher centre programmes (Mertens and Yarger, 1981; Barker, 1985). The materials and setting of the institutionalized educational process are far less common (Mertens and Yarger, 1981), but teacher reflection on and reconsideration of research on the social and cultural phenomena of the educational process is a major element of teacher centre programme content, and one which is often interwoven with programmes on curriculum and instruction (Hering and Howey, 1982; Could and Letven, 1987). Finally, the wisdom of practice, and input from skilled educators is an essential component of the content of teacher centre programmes (Hering and Howey, 1982; Wenz, 1987). The use of experienced teachers as teacher centre staff and workshop presenters, and the beneficial effects of discussion between participants during staff development activities are well documented aspects of both the literature on effective staff development and on teacher centres (Knowles, 1978; Devaney, 1979; Wood and Thompson, 1980; Levine, 1985; Bertani and Tafel, 1989).

2.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR A CASE STUDY OF THE EDUCATION RESOURCE CENTRE (ERC) IN MONTREAL

The conceptual framework for the case study is derived from the organizational framework for the review of literature (see Figure 3). Figure 4 (next page) is based on a review of literature on effective staff development and teacher centres, and on an examination of the case study data. It outlines the proposed conceptual framework for the case study.

Figure 4

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE CASE STUDY OF THE EDUCATION RESOURCE CENTRE (ERC) IN MONTREAL

COMPONENTS	THE ERC AS A STRATEGY FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT
CONTEXT 4.1	-Community Support -Administrative Support -Teacher Support -The Physical Setting
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE 4.2	-The role of the ERC in the Jewish Education Council (JEC) of Montreal -Management -Staffing
PLANNING 4.3	-Philosophy -Needs Assessment -Goals -Funding -Client Profiles and Patterns of Usage -Evaluation
PROCESS 4.4	-Types of Staff Development Programme at the ERC -Scheduling of Staff Development Programmes at the ERC
CONTENT 4.5	-Content of ERC Programmes

- CHAPTER 3 -

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter delineates the use of the case study method and describes the process of gaining initial access to the setting, and of collecting and analyzing the data. The limitations of the study are also considered.

3.1 CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study is to analyze a teacher centre as an approach to facilitating staff development: how does the teacher centre operate, and why does it operate in that way? A case-study methodology was deemed appropriate as the purpose of this study was to understand teacher centres as an approach to staff development, rather than to evaluate them (Merriam, 1988). Understanding is facilitated by the type of 'thick description' which is one of the characteristics of a case study (Marshall, 1989). Hering and Howey (1982) describe case studies as fine-grained portraits and recognize that "Certainly there is a need at this time for... descriptive analyses of teachers' centers' practice and characteristics" (p. 33).

This choice of methodology is further validated by two criteria for case study research as defined by Yin (1984): (i) they should investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when (ii) the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident. Teacher centres fulfil these criteria since the phenomenon of staff development operates within the context of a teacher centre and, because the two elements are inextricably linked, the boundaries between them are unclear.

The object of analysis for qualitative research methods such as the case study is the notion of reality as a social

construct (Merriam, 1988). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), reality is "a multiple set of mental constructions...made by humans" (p. 296). The case study researcher is constantly attempting to capture and portray the world as it appears to the people in it (Walker, 1980). In Merriam's opinion (1988), reality is holistic, multidimensional and ever-changing, rather than a fixed, objective phenomenon, and in order to portray reality accurately, case study researchers need to achieve an adequate representation of these multiple constructions (or perspectives). For this study, adequate representation was sought by the use of multiple methods of data collection and analysis, the results of which were fed back to the participants for perceptual checks and verification. Observation at the research site was conducted over a period of time in order to ensure the validity of the findings, and to allow synthesis and an evolving interpretation of the evidence. The ultimate intention was to understand accurately how the teacher centre operates, and how its staff and clients perceive its function.

3.2 PROCESS

3.2.1. Identifying the Case and Gaining Consent to Undertake the Study

An interest in the process of staff development led the researcher to focus on teacher centres as staff development structures. The ERC was chosen because it was actively implementing staff development and because it was accessible to the researcher. At a preliminary meeting, the Director of the ERC and the researcher discussed the possibility and feasibility of conducting a study of the Centre and assessed a preliminary case study proposal. Provisional approved was granted by the ERC Director on condition that the JEC Director and the Centre's staff also approve. An initial misconception

amongst some participants that the researcher was planning to conduct an evaluation of the Centre, rather than a case study, was clarified, and formal, written permission was subsequently provided (see Appendix A).

3.2.2. Data Collection

Data were collected over the course of five months, from June to October, 1991, during nine site visits each of which lasted from one-half-day to five days in length (see Appendix B). As recommended by Yin (1984), multiple sources of data and evidence were collected. Data collection methods included (a) observation, (b) participant observation, (c) interviews, (d) review of documents and file data, and (e) completion of a client survey, as described more fully below.

(a) Observation

This method of data collection was used relatively extensively, in light both of the open-plan nature of the physical setting and the willingness of centre staff to be observed. The researcher observed the main work areas, the corridors and the entrance hall in order to ascertain the climate of the centre and to try to gain an understanding of the types of verbal and non-verbal interaction and communication that were constantly taking place between staff and clients. This provided a useful means of verifying the perceptions of staff expressed through the interview process. Direct observation provided a means of testing emerging hypotheses against the observable reality. In addition, the researcher also observed a governors' meeting, a mini-course, a one-day district-wide workshop, formal consultations between staff and clients, and a meeting between the ERC Director and the head of another department of the JEC.

(b) Participant Observation

The researcher employed this second method of data collection on the occasion of a district-wide workshop, participating in a two-hour workshop on cooperative learning. The objective was to gain direct experience of the process of staff development in a teacher centre, and to try to perceive this experience from the viewpoint of a centre client. However, despite being a valuable, one-off experience, the researcher avoided use of participant observation on subsequent site visits for fear of jeopardizing her neutral stance towards the data (Becker, 1958) and diverting too much attention away from the direct observation role.

(c) Interviews

Interviews provided the major source of data for the study. The centre's four staff members and Director were interviewed, as was the Director of the JEC and his Administrative Assistant. The Coordinator of Professional Development at McGill University's Centre for Educational Leadership was interviewed to provide perspectives from a similar staff development forum. In addition, informal discussions were conducted with Centre clientele representing a number of constituencies, and with members of the Governing Board. Those interviewed represented a cross-section of ages, genders, levels of seniority, experience and roles.

The interview protocol was developed after a number of preliminary site visits, and after discussions with the ERC Director and staff (see Appendix C). The intention -- endorsed by Yin (1984), Measor (1985), and Merriam (1988) -- was to allow the setting and the perceptions of the participants to determine the focus of the questions. Questions were also raised through an ongoing review of relevant literature. The result was a flexible, open-ended

interview format, centred around certain core subjects and themes, such as the interviewees' perceptions of the staff development process at the centre and their role within that process. The open-ended nature of the questions enabled the researcher to ask those interviewed for facts pertaining to the ERC, as well as for their perceptions and insights, an approach recommended by Yin (1984). With one exception, those interviewed appeared to be at ease during the interview process, and willingly provided extra time when necessary. The majority of interviews lasted between one-and-one-half and two hours. The researcher attempted to maintain a neutral position throughout the interview process, and those interviewed were assured of anonymity -- two approaches to interviews which appear to aid the free expression of opinion (Measor, 1985). The majority of those interviewed were very open about the ERC as a staff development structure, expressing opinions and discussing problems and successes in a frank manner.

Throughout each interview, a tape recorder was used in order to provide an accurate account of the proceedings. Use of the tape recorder is a controversial interviewing practice (Measor, 1985) as some researchers maintain that it inhibits free expression of opinion. However, others, such as Lofland and Lofland (1971), believe it is imperative that an interview be taped if accuracy is to be ensured. In this instance, the researcher asked each person interviewed for permission to use the tape recorder in advance of the interview, and tapes were subsequently erased following the transcribing of the contents. Full transcripts were provided to those interviewed for verification, and as a means of fostering cooperation and trust.

(d) Documents and File Data

Data on the ERC were collected in the form of newsletters, memos, minutes of meetings, newspaper articles, the mission statements, the budget proposal, the JEC constitution, evaluation sheets, fliers, and various pamphlets advertising ERC services and resources. These provided useful verification of evidence collected through interviews, and presented a comprehensive picture of how the ERC operates.

(e) Client Survey

The researcher conducted a survey of centre clientele during a one-week period (see Appendix D). Clients were approached as they entered the centre, and most were willing to answer questions. The survey was conducted in order to ascertain the various constituencies represented by the clientele, their purposes in coming to the centre, and their perceptions of the centre as a staff development structure. Eighty percent of the clients who visited the centre during the course of that week took part in the survey. The remaining 20 percent declined to participate or visited the centre while an interview was already in progress. The survey represented a random sample of potential centre clients, and data from it provided a useful indication of constituencies, client profiles, patterns of usage, and basic perceptions of the ERC (see Appendix E).

3.3 DATA ANALYSIS

As the various sources of evidence were being collected, the researcher fed the data into a data base. The initial themes and subject headings for the data base were derived from those suggested during preliminary interviews and observation at the ERC. The researcher then categorized the

results of both interviews and observations under subject headings. Data subsequently were synthesized with a review of literature and with research on staff development and teacher centres. The resulting framework provided the conceptual basis for the case study.

3.4 LIMITATIONS

There were two main limitations to this study. First, because she did not live near the ERC, the researcher was unable to visit the site on a daily basis. An accurate portrayal of centre operations was consequently more difficult, though by no means impossible to obtain. Related to this was the fact that research took place during a five-month period. In order to gain a precise picture of the centre's activities as an ongoing process of staff development, the researcher would have liked to have been able to conduct the study for a longer period of time. The study could then have been enlarged to include a greater emphasis on the perceptions of the centre clientele and of its staff.

Second, the relatively limited number of potential interviewees meant that, while participants were guaranteed anonymity, there may have been some concern on their part that those interviewed might be identified by the content of the final text. Thus, while most of those interviewed were fairly candid about their role in the ERC, some may have held back from fully expressing their opinions.

-CHAPTER 4-

CASE STUDY: FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, data gathered during a case study of the Education Resource Centre in Montreal have been analyzed by the researcher according to the framework outlined at the end of chapter 2 (see Figure 4). This framework, in turn, is based on Mohlman Sparks' (1983) model of staff development (see Chapter 2, Figure 1), which has been augmented with literature on effective staff development and teacher centres (see Chapter 2, Figures 2 and 3).

Quoted sections taken from the transcripts of interviews with staff members have been given the letters "SM" and a code number, to ensure anonymity. No distinction has been made between Education Resource Centre (ERC) and Jewish Education Council (JEC) staff members because of the close nature of their collaboration in fulfilling their respective functions, and because the staffs of each are relatively small and the identity of individuals interviewed could be more easily determined if such a distinction were made.

4.1 CONTEXT

This section examines the context of staff development programmes at the ERC. Four contextual factors are considered: community support; administrative support; teacher support; and the physical setting.

4.1.1 Community Support

The Education Resource Centre is one of several educational resources and services that are available to the Montreal Jewish Community. Other resources include the Jewish

Public Library, the YM-YWHA, the Canadian Jewish Congress and the Programme in Judaic Studies at McGill University. Like the ERC, one of the purposes of these various organizations is to foster the cultural maintenance of the local Jewish community.

In contrast to teacher centres that are connected to a school board , and thus formally embedded within the staff development policy of that board, the ERC, like the schools and organizations it serves, is a separate entity. The relationship between the ERC and its various clients is voluntary, with the ERC acting primarily as a support service. In the words of one staff member:

> Our relationship with the schools and with the other organizations is a voluntary one. Our mandate is to provide them with educational services, but they have no obligation to use our services. It is only through establishing worthwhile services which they value that we can attract them (SM 7).

Consequently, the ERC is arguably more dependent on the goodwill of its clientele than are teacher centres that operate as a formal department of a school board. Because funding for the ERC comes from the Montreal Jewish Community (AJCS)(see Section 4.3.4), continued support from the constituency is vital to the maintenance of the ERC. Staff members are acutely aware that if the ERC does not provide staff development programmes of a high enough calibre to attract adequate numbers of clients, then AJCS may question the value of continuing to fund it, especially during times of budget restriction. A staff member summarized this correlation between community support and continued funding for the centre in the following way:

> The agency is funded by the Jewish Community, and as that budget gets tight, if they see that the agency is not serving that many people, they could justifiably reach the conclusion that the money could be better spent elsewhere (SM 1).

In addition to providing high quality staff development programmes in order to maintain the support of ERC clientele and, consequently, the support of the wider Jewish community, ERC staff work hard to establish links within that community. Positive relationships and strong links are forged in a variety of ways in order to familiarize the widest possible audience with ERC activities, and to foster a broad-based network of support for the ERC and its objectives. A staff member summarized these links thus:

> Contact is established through outreach to the various groups of clientele. Word of mouth, as high a profile as possible, newsletters, associations such as the Association of Principals of Jewish Schools, or the Federation of Teachers, with which we try to work...and then I think we can also depend to some extent on an established reputation (SM 7).

4.1.2 Administrative Support

The importance of administrative support for legitimizing and maintaining staff development efforts is well-documented in the literature on effective staff development and teacher centres (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1978; Crandall and Loucks, 1983; Wenz, 1987; Sparks, 1991). At the ERC, administrative support at the school level for centre programmes appears to be important for three reasons:

1. Due to the voluntary nature of the relationship between the ERC and the schools within the Jewish school system, administrative approval of ERC activities constitutes a persuasive force for encouraging and facilitating teacher attendance at these activities;

2. Because the ERC is not mandated to provide coaching or formal follow-up support with a school following a staff development programme, incorporation of new or revised practices into existing school policy remains within the jurisdiction of each school principal; and,

3. Principals' approval of ERC programmes represents a powerful justification for continued funding of the ERC by the Jewish Community.

Administrative support is sought in a variety of ways. Regular needs assessments are carried out through periodic interviews with principals, the results of which are used as the basis for planning future staff development programmes (see Section 4.3.2). This necessitates regular contact by telephone between ERC staff and principals, as observed during site visits by the author. Since the inception of the ERC, ongoing attempts have been made to establish and maintain trust and cooperation between the ERC and administrators. In collaboration with the Association of Principals of Jewish Schools, the ERC provides programmes and facilities that are of direct relevance to the needs of principals, as well as to the needs of their staff. Additionally, the ERC Director serves as the staff person for the Professional Development Committee of the Association of Principals. One staff member described these activities and facilities as follows:

> We also have an informal principals' centre here in the ERC and we buy books that principals would find interesting. We have sessions for principals and they themselves decide what it is they want to do.... Last year, we had a study group on current educational issues, and each principal would read articles and present a case study to the rest of the group (SM 5).

In addition to the principals of the Jewish day schools, the principals of the supplementary schools are also served by the ERC. A staff member commented:

> I organized a supplementary school principals' network.... They have never got together, these schools. They were all in their individual niches, reinventing the wheel. So I called them all together for a meeting (and they)...recognized immediately that they had common interests, common

> concerns.... Basically, the group decides what it would like to focus on. I lead it, but everybody really owns it (SM 4).

One staff member reported some initial reservations on the part of some principals with regard to certain staff development activities: "For many of the principals, whereas they were very sceptical in the beginning, now I will be invited to come into their schools and work with their teachers.... I'm given a very free reign" (SM 6). Another member of staff acknowledged that trust has to be built up over a period of time, and stated that as links between the ERC staff and principals have strengthened over the years, the ERC has been able to move from a reactive stance to a more proactive stance with regard to staff development: "We have also started doing more projects with schools, and I think in that sense the trust has changed from staff just being available to going into a school and working with a principal and his or her teachers" (SM 5).

Much of the trust appears to be fostered by the mutual recognition of a common agenda, by the attitudes exemplified by ERC staff, and by the manner in which they approach the principals. A revealing insight was provided by one staff member when she characterized her relationship with principals as:

> informal (and) friendly. We share problems. I'm on their side and I make that clear.... I think that most of the principals I work with are driven people. They really believe in what they do.... They have an emotional commitment to their work and they recognize that I feel similarly (SM 4).

During a random survey of centre clientele, similar positive perceptions of the supportive nature of the relationship between administrators and the ERC were expressed by the four principals who were interviewed. One principal voiced the opinion of the others when he remarked: "Whenever I

come here I feel like we're working as a team, a team with common needs and common goals. It's also a great place to come whenever you need a powerful dose of enthusiasm and motivation".

Analysis

The task of maintaining administrative trust and support is an ongoing issue for the ERC. In common with other teacher centres, there appear to have been some reservations amongst certain principals about the role of the ERC and its activities (Zigarmi and Zigarmi. 1979). However, these reservations have dissipated, according to ERC staff, and the ERC has clearly attempted to cater to specific needs of principals through the use of an informal principals' centre within the ERC, through the establishment of principals' study groups and through the staffing of the Professional Development Committee of the Association of Principals, and through the creation of a supplementary school principals' network. Several staff members emphasized that the principals themselves choose the issues on which they would like their professional development study groups to focus, thus fulfilling the need for self-direction and choice that is specified in adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978). Tangible administrative support for ERC staff development activities is demonstrated by their willing participation in needs assessments and the planning of staff development programmes (see section 4.3.2), by their presence at these programmes, by the high level of written, telephone and face-to-face contact that is evident between ERC staff and the principals, and by the release time they provide for teachers to attend numerous staff development activities during the course of the school day. According to the ERC Director, the vast majority of principals within the Jewish school system utilize the services of the ERC. The two or three principals who choose

not to utilize these services tend to make their decisions for religious reasons, and are generally in charge of the most ultra-orthodox schools within the community.

4.1.3 Teacher Support

Although the ERC serves a wide variety of constituencies, teachers constitute the majority of ERC clients (see Section 4.3.5) and, as such, are the focus of much of the planning for staff development activities at the ERC. In the words of one staff member, "The thing I always have my eye on is the teacher and to get the best possible situation for him or her" (SM 5).

Great care is taken by ERC staff members to avoid the so-called deficiency model of staff development (see Section 1.1.3), so that teachers feel that the centre represents a non-evaluative, supportive environment. As an example of a staff development method that is diametrically opposed to methods favoured at the ERC, one staff member recalled, "We once had a person who specializes in linguistics [and who gave a seminar on teaching a second language], and within the first five minutes they [the teachers] could have killed him. The first thing that he informed them was they knew nothing" (SM 5).

As awareness of the need to avoid the adoption of a judgemental, evaluative stance with centre clients was reiterated by two other members of staff:

> Teachers don't want to be judged. So I don't want to be seen as a judgemental element. [Because of this] teachers very often tell me things that no one else hears (SM 6).

> It's also a question of how much 'meddling' teachers want. I was really surprised the first time I offered to provide feedback. A teacher came in for some new techniques. I said, "You know, I'd be happy to come and watch you teach and give you some

> feedback". The guy nearly passed out. And I realized that it's not a comfortable situation for a lot of teachers. I have to be careful not to come on too strong (SM 4).

The voluntary nature of the relationship between the ERC and its clientele means that teachers need to be motivated to participate in centre activities. One motivating factor appears to be the adoption of a supportive, non-judgemental stance on the part of the ERC. Another motivating factor seems to be the enthusiasm that is kindled in centre clients by a new idea or by a skilled staff. One member of staff commented on this re-energizing process: "The people who come here get fired up. If I'm invited, or principals send a group of teachers to me, it will be with that aim in mind. Get them enthused, get them fired up, get them to feel valued" (SM 6).

Similarly, when asked about teacher motivation for participation in the week-long staff development programme during the summer vacation, another staff member contended:

> The motivation there was that they really wanted to learn something new. They wanted to have some time to themselves to grow as a professional, as a person. They said now it's my time. It's about renewal (SM 5).

In order to ensure relevance of centre staff development programmes for teacher needs, which in turn heightens motivation for participation in these programmes, these needs are regularly assessed by ERC staff (see Section 4.3.2).

During a client survey taken at the ERC in October, 1991, teachers were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with ERC staff development programmes and services on a four-point scale, with one representing "Totally Satisfied" and four representing "Dissatisfied". Eight percent of respondents claimed to be Totally Satisfied, 72 percent claimed to be Very Satisfied, 19 percent said that they were Satisfied, and one percent of respondents claimed to be Dissatisfied, citing a

relative lack of staff development materials in French as the main reason for their dissatisfaction. However, despite such favourable ratings from the teachers they serve, there was no evidence of complacency amongst ERC staff. Indeed, two staff members expressed concern about the number of teachers who utilized the ERC:

> I would like to see every teacher in this community come in two or three times during the year.... I would like to put some of the responsibility for this on ourselves. We have not proved useful enough and it is our role to impress on those teachers that it's worthwhile coming (SM 7).
>
> Many of the teachers will come in and say, "I don't understand why more of our teachers don't come here". That's a dilemma, and a concern that we all have (SM 1).

Various steps have been taken to enhance teacher utilization of the ERC. An outreach programme, consisting of a library 'caravan' visiting schools to increase awareness of ERC materials and facilities, began in the autumn of 1991. Centre activities and lists of services are advertised on colourful fliers, and a periodic newssheet, called the *JEC Memo*, containing dates and times of staff development programmes, is distributed through the schools to every teacher in the Jewish school system. Principals are telephoned by the ERC Director prior to a staff development programme to ask them to encourage their staff to participate, and the expression of teacher opinion about ERC programmes is encouraged through formal and informal needs assessments. Other attempts at outreach are somewhat constrained by budgetary requirements. According to the JEC Director, in an ideal world, "A paid, official liaison person would be established in each school. We would then have someone to represent us in the schools, not just voluntarily, but in a way that he or she is obligated to do something". In the absence of a paid ERC representative, the Centre continues to rely on administrators to distribute

JEC materials to their faculty, and to encourage and facilitate the attendance of teachers at ERC staff development activities.

Analysis

The fact that teachers constitute the majority of ERC clientele is consistent with the findings of research on teacher centres (Hering and Howey, 1982; Barker, 1985). Because of this, teacher support for ERC staff development programmes is crucial to the continued existence of the ERC. ERC staff expressed awareness of the need to attract teachers with staff development programmes of a high quality and possessing direct relevance to teacher needs. The emphasis on a collegial environment and the adoption of a supportive, non-evaluative stance by ERC staff is consonant with recommendations in the literature on effective staff development and teacher centres (Levin and Horwitz, 1976; Fullan, 1982). At the same time, the ERC promotes the benefits of teachers learning from other teachers through the three methods identified by Wenz (1987): by providing a recognized forum for teachers to share their experience and expertise; by providing new roles for teachers as presenters of some staff development programmes; and by providing a formal structure for teachers to direct their professional growth.

According to the results of the client survey, 80 percent of teachers utilizing ERC services claim to be totally or very satisfied with those services. In the absence of a more in-depth survey, it was difficult to determine precisely the specific motivation of teachers who participated in centre activities. In particular, it was difficult to ascertain whether the ERC staff development programme provided what is arguably the most effective motivator to participation, that of a sense of efficacy (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978).

Nevertheless, from the high level of satisfaction with ERC programmes expressed by clients, and the regularity with which these clients use the ERC (see Section 4.3.5), it could be surmised that teachers perceive that they derive various benefits from the ERC, and one of these may well be an enhanced sense of efficacy within the classroom setting.

4.1.4 The Physical Setting

According to a review of literature (see Section 2.2.5), the physical setting should:

1. Provide a centralized and permanent setting conducive to collaboration and to a culture of continuous growth; and,

2. Establish a network, or web, with other teacher centres and staff development fora in order to pool resources, personnel and ideas more effectively.

The ERC, in common with most teacher centres, is characterized by permanent work-spaces, physical continuity, and centralization of resources and expertise (Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981). The centre facilities have been described in detail (see Section 1.3), and the physical layout, consisting of staff offices opening off the main corridor and the open-plan work-spaces, is conducive to informal, collegial interaction between centre staff and their clients. A wide range of audio-visual and library resources are centralized within the ERC, presenting an array of choices that few schools could afford to provide for themselves.

Lack of space was a unanimous complaint amongst ERC staff, but the existing space appears to be utilized effectively and creatively. One of the advantages of having the various work-spaces in such close proximity to each other is that it facilitates input and collaboration amongst ERC departments, allowing for an easy flow of ideas and opinions.

Participation in a network, or web, with other teacher centres and staff development fora is exemplified by the ERC. Letters, newsletters and minutes of meetings demonstrate that both the ERC Director and the JEC Director communicate verbally and in written form with other teacher centres, such as those based in New York City, and with other staff development fora, such as schoolboard personnel and the McGill, Concordia and University of Toronto Education Departments, pooling information, advice and resources. According to one staff member, "Cooperation and networking form the key to providing the best possible staff development opportunities for our clients" (SM 7).

Analysis

During site visits the author was able to observe at first hand the high level of collaboration and collegial interaction at the ERC that is promoted by the physical layout of the setting and by the efforts of ERC staff. Social interaction amongst centre clients occurs informally (during conversations with other clients and with centre staff) and formally (as a planned component of staff development activities)(see Section 4.4.1). Collegial and social interaction of this type is advocated in literature on effective staff development and adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978; Hering and Howey, 1982; Crandall, 1983; Gould and Letven, 1987). Similar parallels with the literature are demonstrated by ERC collaboration with networks of other staff development fora (Wenz, 1987; Ellis, 1989; Holt, 1989) and by the position of the ERC as a catalyst for communication (Weiler, 1983), providing information about these various staff development fora for ERC clients.

4.2 ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

As shown in Section 2.3, research indicates that, while general staff development programmes, existing as one element of a larger organizational structure (such as a school board) often require only a planning and coordinating committee, teacher centres, which usually operate as distinct, independent entities, require their own formal management structures.

4.2.1 The Relationship Between the Education Resource Centre and the Jewish Education Council

The ERC is unusual in that it resembles both staff development programmes which are part of a larger organizational structure as well as independent teacher centres. Existing as a cohesive, distinct organization in its own right, the ERC also falls within the jurisdiction of its parent body, the JEC. The JEC, in turn, is a division of the Allied Jewish Community Services of Montreal (since renamed Federation -- Combined Jewish Appeal), and is the community's coordinating and planning agency for Jewish education. Meeting approximately six times per year, the JEC comprises 27 voting members representing various constituent organizations, and the term of office is one year. Within the JEC, there exists an Executive Committee comprised of 12 members who meet bi-monthly (see Figure 5). The purpose of the JEC is to advocate Jewish education and to support Jewish schools and other educational programmes "through enhancement of the quality of learning experiences, increased instructional and educational effectiveness, increased enrolment and improved facilities" ("JEC Objectives", *Budget Submission 1991/92*, p. 1). The JEC is responsible for educational planning and coordination through cooperation and in consultation with various educational organizations, ranging from daycare to

JEWISH EDUCATION COUNCIL OF MONTREAL
STRUCTURE

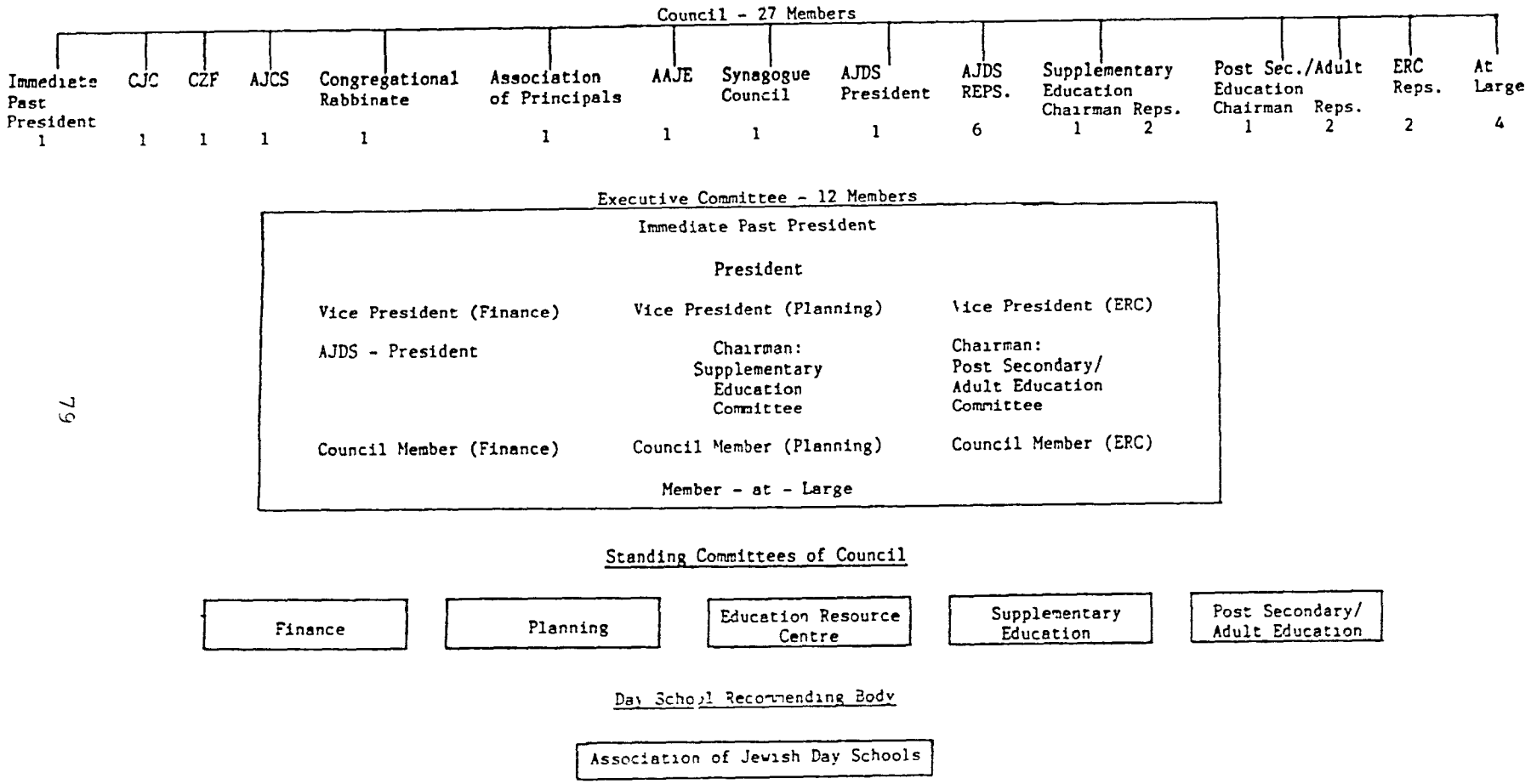


Figure 5

Jewish Day Schools, supplementary schools and golden age programmes. In order to fulfil these responsibilities, the Board of the JEC has six standing committees which are in charge of different departments or specific educational areas (see Figure 5). One of these departments is the ERC, which constitutes the educational services arm of the JEC.

4.2.2 Management of the ERC

The ERC is managed by the ERC Committee, which meets approximately four times per year. According to one staff member,

> The ERC Committee manages on an ongoing basis the operations of the ERC. It tries to implement policies set up by the Board of the JEC, receives the reports on the implementation and oversees staff and its achievements. This committee works with [the Director of the ERC], who is the staff person in charge of that committee (SM 7).

This perception of the role of the ERC Committee is consistent with the specifications of the JEC constitution (as revised in December, 1990), which describes the mandate of the Committee in articles 6.2.1 through 6.2.7:

- to implement JEC policy according to established procedure (6.2.1).
- to develop new policies and procedures and recommend them for adoption by the board (6.2.2).
- to monitor implementation and evaluation pertinent to programs and activities (6.2.3).
- to assess needs and recommend appropriate plans (6.2.4).
- to provide guidance to professional staff assigned to the Committee (6.2.5).
- to oversee the budget allocated to the Committee and make recommendations for future budget years (6.2.6).
- to recruit members from the community as per article 6.3.1 (6.2.7).

The President of the JEC appoints the Chair of the ERC Committee from among the members of the Board, who in turn appoints the Vice-Chair and other Committee members, in consultation with the President, the Executive Director, and the staff person assigned to the Committee. Approximately twenty committee members are invited to join the ERC Standing Committee; these consist of administrators, community leaders, ERC clients and a representative from the Teachers' Federation. In addition, the Director of the JEC is a permanent member of the ERC Committee, as is the ERC Director, and other ERC staff members are often present at meetings, in order to answer questions and to make presentations about the activities of the various ERC departments.

The ERC's day-to-day management is the responsibility of the ERC Director, who coordinates and facilitates centre programmes and activities. Of staff supervision the Director said,

> A typical day, I would begin first of all with checking in with the staff. I always know what each of the staff people is doing and what they are working on...so you get the good news and the bad news at the same time. I also check in with [the Director of the JEC], who is my supervisor.

In addition, there is a weekly meeting of the senior management staff of the JEC, consisting of the JEC and ERC Directors, and each of the JEC department heads. The collaborative nature of this weekly meeting was evident from interviews with staff members:

> This staff meeting might handle inter-departmental things, or I might say that I have a particular problem and they will help me solve it. We will each try to help each other's department (SM 5).
>
> Obviously there's a lot of interchange and networking and suggestions and group thinking, planning and problem-solving... We help each other,

> not only in terms of ideas, but [because] it's a clearing house for dates, too. It's a coordinating and thinking body. It's on a higher level than the nitty-gritty (SM 3).

The ERC Director is the only member of the ERC staff to attend this weekly meeting. The reason given for this was that the intensive nature of the ERC programme schedule does not allow for all staff members to meet simultaneously. Instead, the ERC Director meets on a daily basis with particular groups of staff:

> It is never possible to get everyone together at the same time, because then we'd have to close the place down. So what happens is that I will meet [various ERC staff members] in groups depending on what it is, and that is an ongoing process. Occasionally, if there's something big coming up, we might convene and do something together. So there is no formal meeting, but every day there are ongoing meetings with staff.

When staff members were asked specifically about their degree of satisfaction with this level of input, every staff member but one said that they were happy with the existing system, and each stressed the collaborative nature of their work at the ERC. In the words of one person, "Communication is kept open. I think that there is a good level of collaboration and consultation. There is mutual respect" (SM 7). The one dissatisfied staff member expressed regret about a lack of involvement in decisions about the organization and activities of the ERC:

> What I would like to see would be a meeting, perhaps once a month, of the staff of both the ERC and the JEC, to say what we did this month, what may be coming up, rather than meeting only with [the Director of the ERC], or only with another person who says, okay, this has been planned, what are you doing, how do you fit in. I would rather it be more

> as a very large team which plans way in advance and gives reports on what everybody is doing so that one can plug into these different areas (SM 6).

However, despite some frustration with the day-to-day management of the ERC, this particular staff member, in common with every other member of the ERC staff, expressed satisfaction with the degree of autonomy they had in carrying out their own job: "I have a very free reign here... [In] most of my programming, planning, designing, I can do literally what I want. There's trust" (SM 6).

Analysis

There appears to be congruence between the mandate of the ERC Committee (articles 6.2.1 through 6.2.7) and the four areas of responsibility which typify most teacher centre boards (Collier, 1982; section 2.3.1): namely, (i) recommending policy and procedures for the teacher centre, (ii) developing goals and objectives for the centre within the policies determined by the local school board, (iii) recommending the employment of appropriate teacher centre staff, and (iv) making recommendations on an appropriate budget. Two other similarities between the composition of the ERC Committee and those of non-federally-funded centres emerge from the data. First, representatives of local community groups and organizations are included in the ERC Committee, and second, teachers constitute a minority of Committee members. The composition of the various groups represented on the ERC Committee has remained unchanged for many years, suggesting that this system has proved effective. However, the discrepancy between the number of teacher representatives on the Committee and the proportion of teachers who utilize ERC services may have implications for the nature of the staff development programmes at the ERC, and would provide an interesting topic for further study (see section 5.2).

4.2.3 Staffing

In section 2.3.2, three elements of teacher centre personnel were discussed: (i) composition; (ii) competencies; and (iii) the extent to which centre staff identify with, and reflect, teacher concerns.

The composition of staff at the ERC is consonant with that of larger teacher centres, such as those in Florida (Yeatts, 1975; Hering and Howey, 1982; Gould and Letven, 1987). Led by the Director of Educational Services, the ERC staff consists of a part-time consultant for the arts, games and visual projects; a full-time consultant for supplementary education and family education; a librarian and programme assistant; and a full-time audio-visual technician. In addition, JEC staff associated with the ERC include the Director of the JEC, the JEC Director's Administrative Assistant, the Director of the Department of Curriculum Development, and the Director of the Department of Living Judaism. The ERC shares a receptionist and clerical staff with the JEC, which occupies the same floor of the Jewish Federation CJA Building in Montreal.

The background and training of ERC staff and associated JEC personnel reflect the competencies detailed in section 2.3.2, which research has identified as important for staff developers (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977; Nadler, 1980; Wenz, 1987; Castle, 1989). The diverse backgrounds of the ERC and JEC staff bring a breadth of expertise and experience to the centre. With only two exceptions, all ERC staff and associated JEC personnel have received formal teacher training, ranging from early childhood education through to high school and university, and have worked as teachers in various school systems, whether in Canada, the U.S. or Israel. Two staff members have graduate degrees in educational technology, two others have graduate diplomas in library technology, one has wide experience as an artist, formerly

teaching art education at university level, and one has considerable expertise as an audio-visual technician, skilled in audio-visual production and the various technological resources that the ERC makes available to the schools and organization it serves. In addition, three staff members have degrees in Judaic studies, and two others have taught university courses.

The various qualifications include the skills of a specialist in, and producer of, learning materials, and a manager of technical processes and operations, two of the competencies emphasized by Branscombe and Newsom (1977). A third competency, that of an administrator managing education staff and programmes and aligning the staff development function with the school district's strategic mission, is also reflected in the job description of various ERC and JEC staff members. Both the ERC Director and the JEC Directors are responsible for motivating and managing educational staff and programmes, whether within the ERC or the wider community. The consultant for supplementary education manages the supplementary schools programme, collaborating closely with the principals of these schools. Finally, all staff members to a greater or lesser extent appear to be involved in the acquisition, allocation and control of resources dedicated to the staff development function. Alignment of the ERC's staff development function with the school district's mission is achieved through ongoing consultation and collaboration with members of the school boards and with school administrators (see sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2).

The fourth type of staff developer competency included by Wenz (1987) is knowledge of adult learning theory. Although none of the ERC or JEC staff appears to have received formal training in this area, it became clear during the interview process that most staff members are acutely aware of adult learning needs through attending conferences and professional readings, and these needs are taken into account when planning

the context, process, and content of staff development programmes at the ERC (see sections 2.5.1, 4.1, 4.4, and 4.5).

Edelfelt (1982) maintains that the role of a teacher centre director is a critical element of centre effectiveness. In addition to the competencies of staff development in general, teacher centre directors require leadership skills and the capacity to work collaboratively with centre staff, governing board and clientele (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977). The image of the ERC Director gleaned from the interview transcripts was that of a motivated, competent leader:

> I work with [her] very closely; we are colleagues and there is a close relationship. A collegial understanding [and] mutual respect (SM 7).
>
> She's super. I'm happy with my level of input. She is always open to suggestions (SM 1).
>
> [She] is a good coach and an excellent facilitator. There's an easy consultation back and forth (SM 3).

Observation of, and discussion with, the ERC Director herself indicated that she works collaboratively with both centre clientele and ERC staff:

> (On centre clientele): Because I'm working with people who have different work styles, I'm constantly 'dancing' to a different time-frame, and differently with different people.... The thing I'm aiming for is collaboration, cooperation.
>
> (On centre staff): I as a supervisor am here so that I can facilitate...and I can work with them so that they can do their best. Management by walking about.
>
> We're a team -- the staff developer, the principal and the teacher together.

Use of experienced educators to staff a teacher centre is well-supported by research (Fullan, 1982; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; DeJarnette Caldwell, 1989). The general consensus

appears to be that teachers learn best from other teachers, and that teacher centres are an effective vehicle for this process (Levin and Horwitz, 1976; Wenz, 1987). An ability on the part of the ERC staff to reflect on and identify with teacher needs and concerns is apparent in these extracts from interview transcripts:

> To be a gold medalist, you can't do it without a coach, you can't do it without watching your own performance. Teachers don't get enough feedback (SM 5).
>
> [Staff development takes the form]...of developing the person, getting them to think of themselves as a decision-maker, getting them to figure out what else they need to know in order to make better decisions (SM 5).
>
> [Our purpose is]...to help [teachers] meet their needs as they perceive them, to respect their various educational, political and religious philosophies, and to act as leaders to help schools...to aspire to greater achievements (SM 3).
>
> We want to respect the individuality of the teacher and to try to respond to the specific needs of individual schools (SM 7).

Analysis

There appear to be strong parallels between the staffing of the ERC and the staffing of teacher centres as described in the literature. The composition of the ERC staff reflects the diversity of roles and job descriptions recommended for larger teacher centres (Hering and Howey, 1982; Gould and Letven, 1987), and the varied experience and training of ERC staff incorporates the necessary competencies for staff developers that were identified by Branscombe and Newsom (1977), Wenz (1987) and Castle (1989). In addition, evidence from site visits and interview transcripts demonstrates that the ERC Director possesses the required leadership skills and the

capacity to work collaboratively with centre staff, governing board and clientele, competencies described by Branscombe and Newsom (1977) and Edelfelt (1982) as vital to the efficient functioning of a teacher centre. Finally, the fact that the majority of ERC staff originally trained and worked as teachers suggests that they are both sensitive and responsive to the needs of the teachers served by the ERC (Levin and Horwitz, 1976; Wenz, 1987). This perception was corroborated through observation during site visits, by statements made by ERC staff during their interviews, and through discussion with centre clients.

4.3 PLANNING

The planning process utilized by both effective staff development programmes and teacher centres for establishing and facilitating staff development objectives has been discussed in section 2.4. This section compares the planning process used at the ERC with that of teacher centres in general.

4.3.1 The Philosophy of the ERC

A philosophy of staff development constitutes an integral element of the planning process in teacher centres (see section 2.4.4). The ERC has published a document entitled *Our Policies on Professional Development* (see Appendix F) which specifies the premises and assumptions on which the centre operates -- that is, the belief that professional growth is a dynamic process, and that each professional can continuously develop, and more successfully facilitate, the learning process (p. 4). According to this document, the role of the ERC in providing staff development is to revitalize educational professionals, encouraging them "to develop the optimum use of their initiative and skills" (p. 2). One of

the basic tenets of the ERC philosophy is to have a positive impact on students through providing staff development for their teachers.

During their individual interviews, each staff member was asked to summarize the philosophy of the ERC as he or she perceived it to be. With one exception, all respondents were comfortable expressing their views on the subject. The reluctance of SM2 to express an opinion about the philosophy of the ERC was consistent with SM 2's perceptions of this individual's own role within the centre. During the course of the interview, it became evident that the preference of this individual was to operate SM2's department as a largely independent entity, taking care not to encroach on the responsibilities and activities of other departments within the ERC. Hence:

> If you want to talk about philosophy, you'd have to talk about the various departments of the ERC. I really don't know what [the] ... philosophy is in Supplementary Education, and I really don't know what [the] philosophy is in the library.... There is nothing, as far as I know, written down in terms of an ERC philosophy, but I have a very general one which is that we do anything that is necessary to satisfy our customers (SM 2).

Although all other interviewees appeared to view the ERC in less compartmentalized terms than SM 2, a similar perception of each department providing service to the community was expressed by another staff member when asked about the philosophy of the ERC:

> The way I see it -- and I think that most people on the staff do -- is as being of service to the people who come in here. I see ourselves, for instance, as being different from ...any other public library. You don't tend to get the same kind of tailor-made service or relationship there as you would have here (SM 1).

However, as the interviews progressed, it became clear that the majority of staff members viewed their philosophy in terms of the ERC as a whole, identifying 'higher' purposes for the centre beyond that of a service agency. One staff member summarized it thus:

> On one level [our purpose] is to provide technical services to schools and organizations in a way that is cost-effective for them, and...also advice and expertise.... [However,] We are not just a service. We are also in the business of marketing excellence. We want to inspire as well as serve (SM 3).

This view of a more encompassing purpose for the ERC was reiterated by two other staff members, who said of the ERC's philosophy:

> I think there's a real striving for excellence, a high-quality, intellectual approach to learning. In our work we recognize that there are some very fine educational leaders out there. [Nevertheless,] there is a sense that two heads are better than one (SM 4).

> We try not to make professional development into a deficiency model, but rather as vitamin enrichment. I look on it as an ongoing development that each person needs in order to do their job better. It is a positive way of saying that even Olympic champions need coaches (SM 5).

The idea that the quality of education for students would be improved through developing and inspiring teachers proved to be a recurring theme amongst ERC staff:

> The philosophy of the ERC as I perceive it, and I'm, sure that everyone else will give you a different kind of philosophy, is to make teaching and learning a satisfying experience for both the teacher and the child (SM 6).

> The ERC is a support system to the Jewish educational community in Montreal, attempting to enable the front-line educator to do a better job.

> Ultimately, the role of the ERC is to reach the students through the individuals who work in the educational field (SM 7).
>
> [Our] philosophy is that, by the care and development of the staff, we can reach the students, and let them have a better learning experience in school (SM 5).

Another common theme which emerged during discussion was the notion of the ERC as an instrument of educational change. Two staff members made the following comments:

> We are fine-tuning the existing repertoire [of teachers] and adding new pieces. And the reason for the new pieces, for updating them, is because things are changing (SM 5).
>
> [Our purpose is] to open avenues for innovation and new programming to these people... I think that this notion of change is one in which we want to be involved. The permanent in education is change (SM 7).

Analysis

There appear to be three themes to the response of staff members when questioned about their perceptions of the philosophy of the ERC:

1. Although all staff members perceived the ERC as having a philosophy based on service to the Jewish community, opinion was also divided, with the majority seeing the ERC from a broader perspective, as part of an ongoing drive towards educational excellence, and the remainder viewing the role of the ERC solely in the concrete, practical terms of a service agency;
2. Several staff members based their philosophy and sense of purpose on the idea that, by inspiring and energizing teachers through professional

development, they could have a positive influence on the quality of education for the students.

3. Two staff members also viewed the ERC as a catalyst for change, keeping clients up-to-date with developments in educational research, and demonstrating the practical applications of this research in light of their needs.

These three themes are consistent with literature of effective staff development and teacher centres in general (see sections 1.2.3 and 2.4.4). Amongst ERC staff members an awareness of the need to provide immediate, practical assistance to educators in the short-term is complemented by an understanding that long-term professional growth is a process rather than an event. The majority opinion among staff members is that the ERC is more than just a support service; it also provides opportunities for professional development, for keeping abreast of educational innovations, and for striving for educational excellence -- three factors that are corroborated by Sykes (1980) when he identifies the functions performed by teacher centres.

Another theme which emerged from discussion about the philosophy of the ERC was the notion that staff members are oriented towards individual and local needs of educators. In the words of one staff member, "We want to respect the individuality of the teachers and to try to respond to the specific needs of individual schools" (SM 7). This notion is consistent with the work of Devaney (1976) and Loucks-Horsley et al. (1987), who maintain that teacher centres can be distinguished from other forms of staff development by the emphasis they place on the individual requirements of educators and on an area's local needs, thus ensuring that the work of a teacher centre is relevant to the specific situation of its potential clients.

4.3.2 Needs Assessment

The focus and direction of ERC staff development programmes is achieved through two types of needs assessment: formal and informal. The vast majority of ERC needs assessments appear to be informal, conducted through discussion with the various constituencies that are served by the centre. In the course of interviews with the staff, six specific groups with which the ERC conducts needs assessments were identified: teachers, principals, ERC staff, other administrators, workshop presenters, and experts in a particular field. The results of these interviews are presented in the following table (Figure 6), which indicates which of the seven staff members used which categories of needs assessment:

(Figure 6)

CATEGORIES OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT UTILIZED BY ERC STAFF

Staff Member	Teachers	Principals	ERC Staff	Other Administrators	Workshop Presenters
SM 1	1	1	1	0	1
SM 2	0	1	1	0	0
SM 3	0	1	1	0	0
SM 4	0	1	1	0	1
SM 5	1	1	1	1	1
SM 6	1	1	1	1	1
SM 7	1	1	1	1	1

Principals and other ERC staff represented the most utilized categories when conducting needs assessments, with teachers also strongly represented.

During staff interviews there emerged a consensus on the importance of catering to the needs of individual clients:

> We want to respect the individuality of the teacher and to try to respond to the specific needs of individual schools (SM 7).

> I will observe teachers and I will be in the classroom for a few minutes and write a note to the teacher; the note will be very warm. The whole purpose is to let them know that you are not a threatening person. [The note may read], "Your teaching was so interesting and it made me think of some great ideas.... Why don't you make an appointment to come and see me?" (SM 4).

Needs assessments are also conducted with the principals who use the services of the ERC. The perceived needs of principals and their staff will sometimes differ (see Section 2.6.2). Hence, the ERC staff are aware of the need to solicit needs from both constituencies in order to ensure programme relevance:

> I usually discuss with the principals and I try to tailor-make the session. I'll discuss with them my ideas of what I'd like to do and I'll see what they think (SM 4).

Needs assessments not only help ascertain general needs and areas of interest for clients; they also identify specific topics within these general areas. As an example, the ERC Director mentioned a workshop on the subject of discipline with dignity which was given at the ERC by Dr. Alan Mendler. Prior to the workshop, the Director distributed Dr. Mendler's book amongst school principals and asked them to specify the sections on which they wished him to focus. The Director then contacted Dr. Mendler and he was able to give a workshop that was tailor-made to client needs:

> The thing I always have my eye on is the teacher and how to get the best possible situation for him or her, and to do that I need to program and direct the expert who is coming in. So part of my work is with the clients, and part of my work is with the people who are going to be presenting.

The beneficial outcomes of paying such close attention to needs that have direct relevance for centre clients are evident in another example, which involves so-called 'Idea Exchanges'. This is a staff development format and a type of needs assessment whereby educators in similar fields (e.g. math teachers, principals or librarians) meet to discuss needs and ideas. After one such idea exchange which resulted in the identification of two specific needs on the part of a group of special education teachers, the Director was asked to find a presenter to give a workshop on learning skills. "As a result", the Director commented, "I went out on my hunt to find a person to bring in. We had 80 people for that workshop -- a lot for us, because usually there are 20 to 25".

Even before a needs assessment is conducted amongst centre clients, some ERC staff will consult experts in a particular field to ascertain the focus of needs assessment questions, and the potential direction of a staff development activity:

> Before the math course, I consulted three people who teach mathematics, including at the university level, to find out where math is going, what skills people don't have, and so on.... Then when I'm talking to the person who is actually doing the workshop, I can say that this is the part that is missing. Even before I conduct a needs assessment with the teachers, therefore, I need to know what questions are worth asking (SM 5).

Once needs have been assessed for a particular workshop, ERC staff work to tailor-make that staff development activity so that it accurately reflects these needs, and they will often refer back to clients during the planning stage. Thus

one commented, "I'll always check with [clients]. I don't do it in a vacuum. I'll always try to get some feedback" (SM 1). Another observed, "[Clients] will tell me what they need... [and] I will work within their needs and provide something for them" (SM 6).

The dearth of relevant documentation suggests that formal needs assessments using statistical analysis of systematically-gathered data are much less common than informal needs assessments at the ERC. Nevertheless, a few examples do exist. In 1984, for instance, a needs assessment was conducted with all high school teachers in the school system. In 1989, all Hebrew principals were interviewed to assess their perceived needs, and in January 1990, a structured needs assessment questionnaire was sent out to all math teachers in the school system. This was followed up by math mini-courses on identified needs the following October.

Analysis

Data show that, even though the majority of needs assessments conducted by the ERC are informal in nature, the centre nevertheless does conduct a combination of formal and informal needs assessments. This is consistent with the conclusions in the literature on the most effective methods for teacher centres to identify needs (King, Hayes and Newman, 1977; Hering and Howey, 1982). Needs assessments at the ERC are conducted across a wide spectrum of constituencies that are consistent with the varied clientele they serve, and they aim to incorporate specific, relevant needs within the resulting staff development activities. This collaborative approach is also advocated in the literature as a valuable element of the teacher centre planning process (Barker, 1985; Saslaw, 1985).

Because principals and teachers tend to view their needs differently (Byrd, 1981), the literature recommends achieving

a balance when soliciting these views (Hering and Howey, 1982; Orlich, 1988). Use of a broad spectrum of constituencies when conducting needs assessments suggests that the ERC achieves such a balance.

The close attention paid by ERC staff to the needs of individual educators, in addition to the needs of faculties as a whole, is consonant with the importance of addressing individual needs which is advocated by research on effective staff development (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; Ellis, 1989). Similarly, attention to individual needs on the part of the ERC is consistent with research on teacher centres in general (Mertens and Yarger, 1981) which identified attention to the needs of individuals as one of the most distinctive features of these centres.

Where the ERC differs from the literature on teacher centres in general is in the importance it places on consulting with experts in a particular field and on feeding the results of a needs assessment back to a presenter prior to a workshop. This approach is not specifically mentioned in teacher centre literature, although it may well fall within the general recommendation for collaborative planning and for staff development activities that are of relevance to clients.

4.3.3 Goals

Once a general philosophy on staff development has been articulated and the initial needs of clients have been assessed it is possible for a teacher centre to establish a statement of goals. According to Dornbush and Scott (1975), goals serve three purposes: (i) as a source of legitimacy, (ii) as a source of direction, and (iii) as a basis for evaluation.

At the ERC, the centre's goals have been drawn up by the ERC Committee of the JEC, and originate from the ERC's staff development philosophy and from an ongoing assessment of

client needs (sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). In the JEC *Budget Submission 1991/92*, five goals and objectives are specified for the ERC:

1. To encourage educators to develop the optimum use of their initiatives and skills, and to respond to their inservice training needs on an ongoing basis;

2. To offer opportunities for educators to renew their vitality and update their skills for working with their learners;

3. To explore ways and means for professional development;

4. Together with individuals, schools and organizations, to assess their educational needs in order to plan for new developments and requirements; and,

5. To offer consultations, guidance and support in planning and implementing professional development (p. 11).

In addition, each separate department of the ERC has a statement of goals and objectives that are relevant to the function of that particular department.

Analysis

The first purpose of a statement of goals, in the opinion of Dornbush and Scott (1975), is to serve as a source of legitimacy. In this context, the word 'legitimacy' is used to denote 'justification'. Thus, the ERC justifies and clarifies its role as an avenue for staff development by its statement of goals and objectives. This statement, in turn, provides a source of direction for the ERC, providing general guidelines for staff development programmes and other ERC activities. In addition, the ERC's statement of goals and objectives establishes a useful framework for evaluating centre staff development programmes (section 4.3.6). Therefore, the

purposes of ERC goals and objectives can be said to corroborate the three purposes identified by Dornbush and Scott (1975).

ERC goals and objectives are consistent with the literature on effective staff development in two additional ways. First, the ERC's goals are very general in nature and are procedural rather than substantive -- two methods of promoting a necessary flexibility in staff development programmes which are recommended in the literature (Clark, 1981). Second, the fourth ERC goal emphasizes the centre's practice of working with individual schools and organizations, rather than focusing on a single constituency, thus ensuring the necessary 'ecological balance' required for an effective staff development programme (Vaughn, 1981).

4.3.4 Funding

As is the case with most teacher centres, the ERC follows its own particular funding procedure. Budget forecasts and requests are submitted annually to the JEC, which then submits the overall JEC priorities to the Budget Review Committee of the Allied Jewish Community Services of Montreal (since renamed Federation CJA). Subsequently, the Budget Review Committee allocates funds to its respective organizations, attempting to balance the needs and budgets of all its constituent agencies. One of these agencies is the JEC which, in turn, distributes funds through various budget lines to its constituent departments, including the ERC.

Total budgets are decided a year in advance in order to facilitate the ERC planning process. The ERC is accountable to the JEC for its budget. Budgetary responsibility rests with the ERC and JEC Directors, who monitor expenses on a monthly basis to get a realistic overview of the flow of these expenses.

Another commonality between the ERC and teacher centres in general is a reliance on various funding sources. When the ERC opened in 1974, approximately 75 percent of its budget came via the JEC from the Combined Jewish Appeal, a fund-raising drive that is organized each year by the AJCS. A further 25 percent came from the Canadian Zionist Federation (CZF), but this source of funding has subsequently ceased. At present, according to the JEC Director, the AJCS is the major source of JEC funding, with additional financial support coming from the federal multiculturalism budget, and from the provincial government for the supplementary schools of the Jewish community. The JEC Director is also instrumental in obtaining funds from various foundations in Israel, such as the Pinchus Fund, and North America, such as the Jewish Community Foundation. Finally, the ERC generates a small amount of income for other JEC departments from the provision and renting of audio-visual equipment, from ERC publications, and from charging nominal amounts for professional development activities, already subsidized by the ERC.

Operating on an annual budget of approximately $550,000, the JEC has been subjected to increasingly stringent budget cuts since the late 1980s, when the national recession began to have a noticeable impact on the amount of money raised by the Combined Jewish Appeal. These cuts are inevitably a source of concern to ERC and JEC staff, and have manifested themselves in various ways, such as a reduction in the hours of the arts and games consultant in 1991 from 70 percent to 50 percent, a 20 percent reduction in the library budget in the same year, and the elimination of all out-of-town professional development subsidies for educators to attend conferences. Budget cuts have also generated an ongoing debate about the cost of professional development programmes at the ERC. At the present time, the ERC subsidizes the cost of its professional development activities for schools, and makes a concerted effort to keep their cost significantly below the

market rate. For example, an all-day seminar with Gordon Elhard at McGill in 1991 cost individuals $107, whereas the identical seminar at the ERC cost $50. Inflation and higher prices have generated a continuing debate as to whether the number of ERC staff development programmes should be reduced to offset increased costs, or whether these programmes should be maintained in their present number, but at a greater cost to client schools, who themselves are experiencing budgetary constraints.

An acute awareness of funding problems and concern about the implications of future budgetary cuts permeated the interviews with all JEC and ERC staff members. Without exception, insufficient funding was mentioned as a major constraint in carrying out their job. The words of this staff member reflect the general feeling of frustration caused by an inevitable gap between what staff feel they can actually achieve given current funding levels, and what they could potentially achieve:

> It's going to be really tough. We're in the business of being creative and optimistic and upbeat and we're being told to stop having good ideas! There's no money to carry them out. It's very frustrating, because you know how much you could be doing (SM 4).

Another staff member expressed concern about the ability of the ERC to maintain the high quality of its services and programmes if budget cuts continue indefinitely: "If you don't have the resources to carry out programmes and provide materials, then the quality goes. At the moment, it's not an immediate problem, but if it keeps up..." (SM 1).

Analysis

In common with all teacher centres (Edelfelt, 1982), funding constitutes a critical issue for the ERC in terms of

the quantity and quality of the staff development programmes that it can provide. When the three levels of budget planning recommended for teacher centres by Allen and Allen (1973) are used to assess the budget planning of the ERC (see Section 2.4.5), then the impact of stringent budget cuts on ERC programmes and services is increasingly clear. Levels of both continuous budgeting and incremental budgeting have been reduced by approximately 10-20 percent. According to the ERC Director, the centre to date has been able to absorb the impact of these cuts and maintain current levels of services and programmes without any reduction in terms of quality or quantity. However, four staff members expressed doubts that existing levels could be maintained indefinitely if cuts continue.

The ERC has suffered most in the area of expansion, or creative budgeting, with scant money available to support new goals and expand centre functions. For a dynamic and evolving centre such as the ERC, an inability to put new ideas into practice is a particular source of frustration. This was evidenced by the unanimous views of staff members who spoke about the dichotomy between what they would like to do, and what they are actually capable of doing given existing budgetary constraints. One exception to this is in the sphere of education technology, an additional element of a teacher centre budget recommended by Steinaker (1976) in order to keep a centre up-to-date with technological developments in the educational field. Operating within their budgetary constraints, ERC staff members are making a concerted effort to keep abreast of new developments in this area. For example, the ERC Director and librarian have learnt how to operate *Geshernet*, a computer tele-conferencing network service which links Canada with Israel, and which has interesting possibilities for educational activities in schools.

4.3.5 Client Profiles and Patterns of Usage

Data from interview transcripts with staff members and the results of a client survey conducted over a week-long period indicate that clients who utilize the ERC derive from a wide spectrum of constituencies. One staff member summarized this diversity in the following way:

> First of all, we serve anybody who comes in. The most obvious group are the teachers and administrators. In addition to that [there] could be recreational workers, camp counsellors, clergymen [whether Jewish or non-Jewish], university professors, university students.... We've had people from prisons who are involved in some kind of Judaic programme, we've had people from museums, we've had publishers who've come for some help with preparation of books (SM 1).

The directory of organizations who use ERC services corroborates the notion of a broad clientele, ranging from the B'nai B'rith Hillel Foundation, the *Canadian Jewish News* and the Israeli Consulate to the Jewish General Hospital, the Golden Age Association, the Jewish Public Library and various branches of the YM-YWHA. In terms of schools, the *Jewish School Directory 1992-93* lists thirty-three schools as potential users of ERC services (see Appendix G). Of these, 23 are day school and ten are supplementary schools, ranging from preschool to high-school-age students. In addition, the directory lists 13 separate day-cares and pre-schools who are potential users of the ERC.

According to the Director of the ERC, all schools, including the orthodox Yeshivot and Hassidic Schools utilize the ERC. The faculty at a few ultra-orthodox schools do not come formally as a staff, but will often visit the centre in an individual capacity. This perception on the part of the Director was born out by the results of the client survey conducted by the author, which demonstrated that, over the

course of one week, teachers from all segments of the Jewish school system visited the ERC. Of these, 68 percent were elementary school teachers, and 32 percent were high school teachers. It proved impossible to obtain an exact percentage breakdown of ERC clientele over a longer course of time as few records, if any, are kept of those who use the centre, other than information that can be obtained from records of workshop attendance. According to one staff member:

> I think statistics have been our weakest point. We've never kept proper statistics about anything. We have made a number of half-hearted attempts to keep statistics in various ways. We had a book where everybody had to sign it, [and] every once in a while we'd come up with a new way to keep statistics of who comes in here and so on. But it has not really worked out (SM 5).

The week-long client survey was used to identify patterns of usage among ERC clients. Those interviewed were asked to estimate how many times they would visit the ERC during the course of a year. The results of the survey are as follows:

Daily	4 percent
Every Week	18 percent
Once per Fortnight	4 percent
Once per Month	20 percent
Every Two or Three Months	38 percent
Infrequently/ Once or Twice per Annum	16 percent

Clients come to use a broad range of ERC services: audio-visual, laminating, books, educational materials, workshops and individual consultation or advice. Numbers were evenly divided amongst these six categories. Of those who participated in the survey, 69.5 percent were teachers, with the remaining 30.5 percent representing diverse categories of individuals, including counsellors, JEC and AJCS staff, Golden

Age workers, and one Ph.D. student. A significant statistic that emerged from the survey was that an overwhelming majority of ERC clients were women (87.5 percent), with men constituting only 12.5 percent of ERC clients during this particular week.

Analysis

An analysis of the data suggests that the broad spectrum of ERC clients is consistent with the breadth and diversity of participants who use teacher centres in general (Yeatts, 1976; Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981; Barker, 1985). Furthermore, the fact that a sizeable majority of visitors to teacher centres comprise elementary school teachers (Barker, 1985) corroborates the findings of the client survey conducted at the ERC. This could explain the fact that 87.5 percent of ERC clients during the week of the survey were women, since it is generally the case that a substantial majority of elementary school teachers are female.

Due to the absence of documentation it is impossible to obtain concrete information about the percentage of potential schools who officially use the services of the ERC over the course of a year. However, based on the results of the week-long survey, it can be inferred that the percentage of utilization is very high and probably exceeds 90 percent of all the schools within the Jewish school system.

No consistent patterns of usage of teacher centre services is evident in the literature (Alberty, Neujahr and Weber, 1981; Hering and Howey, 1982), and this reflects the situation at the ERC, where usage varies in terms of the category of client, the frequency with which the ERC is visited, and the nature of the ERC service that each client requires. This is consistent with adult learning theory (Knowles, 1978), which is based on the idea that, since individual differences amongst people increase with time,

adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning and needs. Data reviewed here and in sections 4.4 and 4.5 suggests that the ERC fulfils these criteria.

4.3.6 Evaluation

According to data gathered from ERC documents, interview transcripts and a client survey, ERC staff use various methods to evaluate their staff development programmes. The most conventional method is that of an evaluation sheet which is distributed to participants at the end of a staff development activity. At the ERC, the one-page evaluation sheet contains specific questions about a participant's level of satisfaction, the extent to which the course addressed their needs, and the degree to which they felt that they could transfer what they had learnt back to the classroom. Each component is rated on a simple, Likert-type scale, with one denoting the highest level of satisfaction and five the lowest. At the end of the form, participants are invited to make suggestions to improve the content of that particular course, to suggest follow-up activities and to recommend future ERC professional development activities (see Appendix H).

A similar evaluation form is used in the ERC library. The form is intended to identify the type of service sought by a client, and their level of satisfaction with the quality of the service and content of the library materials. Space is also provided for suggestions and recommendations for additional materials and services (see Appendix I). The library evaluation form also employs a simple, Likert-type scale for clients to rate their level of satisfaction, but in contrast to the ERC course evaluation form, five denotes the highest level of satisfaction and one the lowest.

Summative evaluation, as it is defined in literature on staff development and teacher centres (Collier, 1982; Hering and Howey, 1982; Holt, 1989) is used to assess the extent to which the goals of a staff development programme are matched by the outcomes of that programme. This type of evaluation is conducted through two methods: (i) by the use of evaluation forms immediately following the conclusion of a staff development programme or activity; and, (ii) by assessing the degree of carry-over of new skills and strategies into participants' classrooms.

While the ERC conducts summative evaluations in the form of the distribution of evaluation sheets to programme participants, longer-term summative evaluation, where centre staff assess the degree of carry-over in a classroom setting, is not conducted. As the ERC Director explained, "I don't know if they've gone to the classroom and done anything with what they've learned. That's a definite limitation. But we are not constituted to do more, because that's on a school level".

The Director elaborated on this situation by explaining that the relationship between the ERC and the schools within the Jewish school system is a voluntary one, and any formal assessment by centre staff of the degree of carry-over in a participant's classroom would be exceeding the ERC's mandate and would constitute an encroachment on the autonomy of the schools. Thus, once a staff development programme has been provided by the ERC, it becomes the responsibility of the principal and his or her faculty to ensure that new skills and strategies are incorporated into the teaching repertoire.

In addition to the use of evaluation forms, two types of formative evaluation are used at the ERC. The first method involves face-to-face meetings and telephone conversations between centre staff and administrators. Regular telephone contact is maintained between the ERC Director, for example, and the various principals of the Jewish school system, and

their evaluations of ERC programmes are sought in the same active and direct manner as their assessed needs (see Section 4.3.2). At the same time, evaluation of ERC staff development programmes is achieved through the presence of centre staff when an activity is taking place. In this way, feedback is immediate and spontaneous, and ERC staff appear to be skilled at sensing the overall mood of those participating. One staff member echoed the opinion of her colleagues when she stressed the importance she placed on being present during an activity: "I always try to sit in on the workshop. I make a point of asking the participants how they feel about the presentation" (SM 1).

This evaluation method was observed by the author during a one-day workshop at the ERC. Throughout the programme, ERC staff members could be seen interacting with clients, soliciting their opinions, and generating frank exchanges which provided an overall impression of their level of satisfaction with the quality of the workshop. As with other staff development programmes at the ERC, these views are subsequently taken into account when offering follow-up courses and when planning future workshops on a similar theme.

Analysis

Evaluation is conducted on an ongoing basis at the ERC in order to ascertain the effectiveness of its staff development programmes and services, and to clarify centre purposes and directions. Evaluation is both formative in nature, consisting of regular dialogue between ERC staff and their clients during and after an activity, and summative, consisting of the distribution and completion of evaluation forms at the conclusion of a staff development programme. However, there appear to be two drawbacks to the summative evaluation methods used by the ERC:

1. According to certain staff members, evaluation forms are not necessarily distributed after every single staff development activity, an inconsistent approach which may provide an incomplete overview of the effectiveness of ERC programmes; and,

2. Different formats of evaluation forms are used for various ERC activities and services, and the forms do not use a consistent rating scale. This may confuse clients when completing these forms.

In addition, longer-term summative evaluations, where centre staff go into schools to assess the degree of carry-over of new skills and strategies into participants' classrooms, do not occur at the ERC for the reasons explained above. The ERC Director is aware of the limitations posed by the absence of this type of summative evaluation. Consequently, tentative plans have been formed to develop and pilot-test a coaching model to facilitate transfer of programme content, which in turn would provide the teachers with support in implementation and the ERC with a useful impression of the degree to which teachers use new strategies and skills following a staff development programme.

Although the current lack of long-term summative evaluation at the ERC is inconsistent with the recommendations for teacher centres found in the literature (Holt, 1989), two other elements of the evaluation process at the ERC do reflect these general recommendations:

1. Sporadic use of evaluation forms and a continuous dialogue between ERC staff and clients facilitates an ongoing evaluation of ERC programmes and allows for modification of these programmes (Branscombe and Newsom, 1977); and,

2. Evaluation methods at the ERC are congruent with the goals and objectives formulated by their needs assessments (Barker, 1985)(see Section 4.2.3). For example, requests on the evaluation form for clients to express their views on how a given staff development activity may be improved and to make

suggestions for future programmes is consistent with goals (1) and (3) that are specified in the *JEC Budget Submission 1991/92*.

Despite the fact that the process of evaluation at the ERC is not an exact science, it would appear from interviews with staff members that they do have an accurate sense of the level of client satisfaction with the quality and quantity of the centres's programmes and services. In short, the ongoing dialogue and frank exchange of views that is fostered by ERC staff would seem to provide a sensitive, detailed and honest evaluation of centre activities despite the absence of analysis of systematically gathered data from evaluation forms.

4.4 PROCESS

This section discusses the process of, or delivery systems for, staff development programmes at the ERC. Two elements of the staff development process are considered:

1. Types of staff development programmes at the ERC; and,
2. Scheduling of staff development programmes at the ERC.

A third element in the process of staff development -- that of adult learning theory (see Section 2.5.1) -- is incorporated in the analysis of elements 1 and 2.

4.4.1 Types of Staff Development Programmes at the ERC

Data indicate that a wide variety of programme delivery systems are employed by the ERC to facilitate staff development. A review of programmes offered by the ERC during an eighteen-month period (May 1990-October 1991) demonstrates

that the centre has employed all nine delivery systems identified in the literature on teacher centres (see Section 2.5.3). In addition, the ERC employs a tenth type, rarely referred to in the literature, known as an 'idea exchange'.

The first two delivery systems identified in the literature consist of formal and informal consultations. While observing at the ERC the author noted a consistent flow of clients who sought out staff members for individual consultations or advisory support. These consultations were both formal in nature, where an appointment had been made beforehand, or informal, where a client would simply 'drop-in' for immediate, practical advice.

A third delivery system, that of centre staff acting as brokers whereby they find another staff member to assist a client if they are unable to do so themselves, is also utilized by ERC staff. In the words of one staff member:

> If I feel that the person needs more than I can offer, I say that I think you'd better make an appointment with [the supplementary schools consultant, the arts and games consultant, or the Director of the ERC]. It's another form of collaboration (SM 1).

A fourth delivery system -- special projects -- appears to be an increasingly popular staff development format at the ERC. According to one staff member:

> The format of the professional day has changed drastically over the past few years. Instead of the format where everyone meets together on a city-wide basis, we are now more likely to cater to the specific needs of schools (SM 7).

Special projects constitute one important method employed by the ERC to meet these specific needs. For example, a school may identify a need to update and revitalize its social studies curriculum. Subsequently, the school faculty would approach the ERC for advice and assistance, and the ERC staff

would then work collaboratively with them to review and revise the curriculum and rekindle the enthusiasm of the faculty, perhaps culminating in the organization of a special event, such as a festival or performance connected to that curriculum area.

Workshops represent another popular staff development delivery system at the ERC. Usually a single-session activity, the majority of these workshops take place at the centre (such as the workshop on Individualized and Small-Group Instruction, given by Shoshona Glatzer on 10 October 1991), but can also be presented at individual schools (such as the professional day for teachers of all schools given by the ERC at the Solomon Schechter Academy on 28 November 1990).

ERC mini-courses are a series of workshops given over a longer period of time (such as the six-session Language Enrichment mini-course for teachers of grades 2-6, given during October and November, 1990). According to the JEC Budget Submission 1991-92, 32 workshops and mini-courses were offered at the ERC during the course of the 1990-91 academic year. However, the official statistics obscure the larger picture, in that during the same time-span the arts and games consultant alone provided 112 'sub-workshops' and small-group consultations within, or in addition to, these 32 workshops and mini-courses. Thus, while the official statistic for staff development activities at the ERC in 1990-91 may be 32 workshops and mini-courses, the actual number of sub-sessions and activities that occur within, or as a result of, these workshops and mini-courses suggests that the total number of staff development activities of this type is actually much higher.

Conferences, organized collaboratively by the ERC and schools are common. However, conferences organized by the ERC and other educational institutions are a less common delivery system. On occasion, these conferences will be a cooperative effort in sharing resource persons between the ERC and an

organization such as the McGill Centre for Educational Leadership. Another example was the National Conference on Jewish Education in December, 1991, organized for Jewish educators across Canada by the Canadian Jewish Congress, and the ERC was directly involved in planning the conference programme.

Individual study, usually for an advanced degree, constitutes another less common type of staff delivery system at the ERC. Nevertheless, individual study is facilitated through ease of access to the library collection, and the author interviewed a Swedish Ph.D. student who was studying cultural maintenance patterns in the Montreal Jewish Community and who was utilizing the ERC library for her research.

Summer scholarships, or conference attendance fees, are the ninth staff development delivery system identified in the literature on teacher centres. In November, 1990, the ERC launched an initiative to provide teachers and administrators with subsidies of up to $300 to attend out-of-town professional development activities, such as conferences. The intention was that these subsidies would be matched by subsidies from the individual's schools. In return, applicants were required to provide feedback for other educators on what they had learnt, either in the form of a written summary or an oral presentation. Unfortunately, increasingly stringent budgetary constraints led to the cancellation of this initiative the following year (April 1991), and it has been suspended indefinitely until such time as the ERC budget increases.

The final staff development delivery system employed by the ERC is that of 'idea exchanges' (sometimes referred to in the literature as job-alike groups). The ERC Director defined idea exchanges as providing an open forum for staff from various schools who work with the same age groups, subject area or special project, to share ideas and concerns and to foster mutual learning and growth. One such idea exchange

considered 'how to plan a math event' and was organized by the ERC in February, 1990, for principals, math teachers and administrators. During her interview, the ERC Director emphasized the value of an idea exchange as a staff delivery system, stating:

> That's a format of staff development that I've worked on a lot.... This is actually a very good kind of staff development because it doesn't just rely on the outside experts.... On one level, it's a needs assessment, and on another, it's a sharing, and the sharing is peer-to-peer.

Although a review of the literature on ERC activities between May 1990 and October 1991, together with data from interview transcripts, indicate that certain staff development delivery systems (such as individual consultations, workshops and mini-courses) are more common at the ERC than others, ERC staff nevertheless demonstrated an awareness of the need to provide as broad a range of staff development activities as possible. One staff member, when asked about the numerous staff development systems employed at the ERC, explained it thus:

> We're dealing with a wide variety of different needs here. Needs of students, needs of individual teachers, needs of administrators, needs of schools...and in order to try to meet all these needs, we have to be flexible, and that means providing a broad range of options so that people can find the one that suits them (SM 3).

Despite the increasing popularity of idea exchanges at the ERC, workshops and mini-courses constitute the commonest forms of staff development delivery systems. In order to ascertain whether the typology of five training components for effective staff development delivery systems, identified by Joyce and Showers (1980) and Mohlman Sparks (1983) (see Section 2.5.2), were present in ERC workshops and mini-courses, staff members were asked to identify which components they generally

utilized. In addition, the author observed a day-long co-operative learning workshop at the ERC in order to see how these components were put into practice.

Each staff member stressed the importance of incorporating some element of the theory underlying the skill or teaching strategy forming the focus of the staff development activity. In the words of one staff member, "Every single session that I give would have an element of theory in it, well-researched by myself" (SM 6).

Similar emphasis was placed by all staff members on the inclusion of modelling, or demonstration of a new practice or skill by the staff developer or workshop presenter. Although most modelling, or demonstration, of a skill or strategy takes place during workshops at the ERC site, one staff member has been able to demonstrate in a classroom setting: "If necessary, I will go into the classroom and start a project with the children, so the teacher can see how I'm working with the class. If I do that, more than one teacher is usually present' (SM 6).

Staff members were also unanimous about the need for informal group discussion within a staff development activity. One staff member expressed the views of several colleagues when she said:

> There should be group discussion in all workshops, as far as I'm concerned. Usually when I'm organizing it, I stress to the workshop leader that this is very valuable. That's an essential aspect of any workshop because not only do you get input from the person giving the workshop, but it is also very valuable to get feedback in exchange from the other participants (SM 1).

For various reasons, practice of a new skill under simulated conditions or within a classroom setting is utilized infrequently at the ERC. Only one staff member incorporated the practice of a new skill under simulated conditions within a staff development activity, often bringing a small group of

children into the ERC to work on the new skill or strategy with course participants. Reasons given by other staff members for the lack of practice of a new skill under simulated conditions or within a classroom were the same as those given for the absence of coaching for application in the classroom setting: lack of time, and lack of human and financial resources. In addition, such actions within a classroom setting would exceed the ERC's mandate (see section 4.3.6). The ERC Director summarized it this way:

> We don't have the manpower or the resources to incorporate those components. That's where the supervision of the principal has to come in. Basically, we are a central agency, and that is not what we are mandated to do. That's the weakness of the programme.... There are limitations.

At the same time, it should be emphasized that the ERC staff do provide informal feedback for workshop and mini-course participants, frequently advising and soliciting verbal progress reports from these participants when they utilize the centre in the days and weeks following a staff development activity. A staff member described the nature of that feedback when she said:

> More often than not, what will happen is that a teacher will be here again, and I'll sit down with that teacher and find out what they've done, and perhaps they've even brought some examples back to show me. So I usually know what's happened after a course. It's a more open-ended feedback (SM 6).

In conclusion, ERC staff members were largely in agreement about the importance of incorporating as broad a selection of training components within a staff development activity as possible. This staff member voiced a consensus when she said:

> All the elements are important... It's also important to find out what the needs are and to find out the relevant theory. The key to a successful staff development activity is to find the right balance between the various elements (SM 5).

Analysis

The provision of a wide selection of staff development delivery systems at the ERC is consistent with research findings on teacher centres in general (Collier, 1982; Barker, 1985; Holt, 1989), which suggest that programmes should vary according to the interests and needs of the community served by the centre, the philosophy of the centre, and the instructional talent and teaching resources that are available. The broad selection of ERC programmes facilitates choice, variety and flexibility, three criteria that are consonant with effective staff development literature (Lawrence, 1974; Yarger et al, 1980). Equally, these criteria are consonant with the findings of a survey by Christiansen (1981) which established that teachers prefer a variety of instructional formats. The wide variety of delivery systems employed at the ERC also makes optimal provision for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning, factors that are considered crucial by adult learning theorists in order to accommodate individual differences among people (Knowles, 1978; Andrews, Houston and Bryant, 1981; Levine, 1985). Similarly, the development of idea exchanges and the inclusion of informal group discussion in a staff development activity at the ERC facilitates the analysis of experience and the adult need to be self-directing, two other factors considered to be of importance by adult learning theorists (Knowles, 1978).

Infrequency of practice under simulated conditions or within a classroom, and an absence of coaching for application are two characteristics that the ERC has in common with most

teacher centres (Hering and Howey, 1982). Nevertheless, ERC staff do provide informal follow-up and feedback after a staff development programme, usually in the form of individual consultations that take place at the ERC. To a certain extent, this fulfils the criterion of providing some sort of follow-up support in order to ensure the transfer of programme content into a teacher's repertoire, generally regarded as a vital component of effective staff development programmes (Wood, Thompson and Russell, 1981; Guskey, 1986; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987).

4.4.2 Scheduling Staff Development Programmes at the ERC

As is the case with most teacher centres (see section 2.5.5), the ERC provides a varied staff development programme schedule, with activities taking place during the day, in the evening, and sometimes at the weekend. In addition, the ERC provides certain staff development activities during the summer vacation in the form of an intensive, week-long programme. ERC staff development programmes are evenly divided between single-session activities (lasting a half-day or a whole day) and activities spread over a longer period of time (a few consecutive days, a number of weeks or a number of months). During an eighteen-month period (May 1990-October 1991) 54 percent of scheduled ERC staff development activities consisted of a single session, and 46 percent took place over a longer period of time.

In general, single-session ERC activities tend to raise awareness of an issue, or to 'fine-tune' existing teaching skills and techniques, such as a three-hour workshop on the subject of gifted children in the classroom, held on 8 May 1990, and a two-hour workshop on integrating grammar within a whole language programme, which took place on 11 May 1991. Issues of a greater complexity, requiring a deeper cognitive understanding or involving curricula innovations, naturally

need a longer period of time, such as the twenty-hour math mini-course for grades one to three, consisting of eight sessions between 16 October and 11 December 1991. To broaden programme appeal, courses are regularly offered in both French and English, and activities can also be scheduled at a school site, instead of at the ERC. One example of this is the so-called ERC 'Library Caravan', which will travel to schools on request to show examples of the types of library resources that are available to the clientele.

Analysis

Consistent with research on teacher centres in general, the ERC varies the scheduling of its staff development programmes according to the content of the programme. Single session activities are used to raise awareness, or to fine-tune an issue or topic. Multiple sessions spread over a period of weeks or months are used to examine complex issues in greater detail. Use of multiple sessions reflects a notion prevalent in teacher centres that staff development is an ongoing, incremental process. This parallels the research of Bertani and Tafel (1989), which demonstrated that adult learning levels are not static but rather part of a continuing growth process. A series of four to six three-hour workshops spaced one or two weeks apart is a format frequently used at the ERC, and one that has demonstrated effectiveness (Stallings, Needels and Stayrook, 1978). This also allows for a necessary period of 'creative floundering' (Hunter, 1985) while teachers adapt and modify new practices to fit their particular situation (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).

4.5 CONTENT OF ERC PROGRAMMES

In response to an increased awareness amongst researchers of the need for the content of staff development programmes to be guided by educational research (Vaughn, 1981; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987), Shulman (1987) analyzed the major sources of teaching knowledge and identified a framework of four components for determining staff development programme content (see section 2.6.1). A review of literature on the content of teacher centre programmes (see section 2.6.2) indicates that these four major sources of teacher knowledge are indeed utilized in the content of teacher centre staff development programmes (Devaney, 1979; Hering and Howey, 1982; Bertani and Tafel, 1989).

According to a JEC/ERC document entitled *Our Policies on Professional Development*, the content of ERC programmes aims to "Reflect a balance between current trends in subject matter (disciplines); variety of resources and methodologies; aspects of planning and evaluation; and better understanding of learning" (p. 5) (see Appendix F).

Shulman's framework was used by the researcher to analyze the content of staff development programmes at the ERC during an eighteen month period (May 1990-November 1991). Data on these programmes were gathered from *Memo*, the periodic JEC calendar of events, and from other publications. The first component of Shulman's framework -- scholarship in content disciplines and the updating and expansion of curricular knowledge -- constituted 24 percent of the 62 staff development activities that took place during that eighteen month period. As specified in the projected plans paragraph of the 1991-92 *JEC Budget Submission* (p. 11), a slight majority of these activities focused on mathematics as a curricular area, ranging from a mathematics mini-course for teachers of grades 1-3 and 4-6, a math course in French, and a math study session for elementary and high school teachers

entitled 'Turning Theory into Practice: An Overview of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics'. Other curricular areas included an English Language Arts Ideas Exchange (grades 4-6), Science Experiences for the Younger Learner (grades 3-6), How to Promote Grammar within a Whole Language Programme, and Art Experiences for Younger Children (pre-school to grade 1).

The materials, practices and setting of the institutional educational process constituted 27 percent of staff development activities during this period. These included an ERC Library Caravan, which exhibited books and audio-visual materials to enable staff at different schools to become familiar with the scope of ERC materials; a mini-course on making big books; a question-and-answer session entitled 'Everything You've Ever Wanted to Know about Jewish Day Schools'; and a workshop on gaining access to the archives of the Jewish Public Library.

By far the most prevalent element in the content of ERC programmes was that of research on schooling, social organizations, human learning, teaching and development. This element comprised 49 percent of all staff development activities during the eighteen month period. Topics were diverse, and included workshops on gifted children within the classroom, a study approach to cognitive learning strategies, discipline with dignity, and elements of effective instruction and supervision. Mini-courses included 'What We Can Learn from Child Development Research' and 'Skills Enhancement for Learning Disabilities'.

The fourth element of Shulman's framework is the wisdom of practice, which refers to the importance of input into staff development programmes from skilled and experienced educators (Hering and Howey, 1982; Wenz, 1987). The inclusion of the wisdom of practice in the content of teacher centre staff development programmes generally takes two forms: the use of experienced educators, such as university lecturers,

consultants or teachers, to plan and conduct the staff development activity; and the provision of a discussion period within a staff development activity to enable participants to reflect on the content of the programme in light of their own professional experience.

At the ERC, input is gained from a variety of experienced educators, including ERC personnel, education consultants, university personnel, acknowledged experts in a particular field, private practitioners (such as psychologists), community leaders, teachers and administrators. These experienced educators play a direct role in the planning and presentation of most ERC staff development activities (section 4.3.2).

During interviews with ERC staff, it became clear that opportunity for discussion and for the sharing of experience by programme participants is deliberately incorporated into all staff development activities at the ERC. As one staff member put it,

> We always make it part of a programme, if possible, and our clients list the discussion period, whether formal or informal, as the most productive and informative element of a staff development activity... On a day-to-day basis teachers rarely get the chance to talk on a professional level with their colleagues (SM 4).

> Question-and-answer sessions and informal group discussions between the participants and workshop leaders...are essential (SM 1).

Thus, the wisdom of practice, or input from experienced, skilled educators and the inclusion of a discussion period during a staff development activity, appears to permeate the content of all staff development programmes at the ERC. As such, in this context it cannot be treated as a separate content area but rather constitutes an integral element of the other three sources of teaching knowledge identified in Shulman's (1987) framework.

Analysis

A review of ERC literature on the content of the centre's staff development programmes demonstrates a strong correlation between these programmes and those of other teacher centres (Devaney, 1979; Hering and Howey, 1982), and of effective staff development programmes in general (Vaughn, 1981; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987). The content of ERC programmes is firmly based in educational research, and the four major sources of teaching knowledge employed in Shulman's (1987) framework are much in evidence. The one discrepancy between the programmes of the ERC and those reviewed in the literature is that the materials, practices and setting of the institutionalized education process form a substantial component of the content of ERC programmes, whereas in teacher centre literature this topic is described as "uncommon" (Mertens and Yarger, 1981). This may be due to the comprehensive and inclusive approach to staff development pursued by the ERC, which appears to regard the tools and environment of teaching to be of a similar importance as practical applications of educational research in the overall staff development process.

- CHAPTER 5 -

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

5.0 INTRODUCTION

Three primary questions, outlined in sections 1.4 and 3.1, provided the motivation for this study:

i. What purposes do teacher centres serve?
ii. How do teacher centres operate?
iii. Why do they operate in the way that they do?

In order to seek answers to questions (i) and (ii), the researcher conducted a study of the origins, evolution and purposes of teacher centres, and of the manner in which these centres operate. Section 1.2.3 of the thesis identified seven common purposes for teacher centres that are commonly found in teacher centre literature (Devaney, 1976, 1979; Burrell, 1976; Levin and Horwitz, 1976; Sykes, 1980; *Final Evaluation Report for the Washington, D.C. Teachers' Centre*, 1985-86):

i. to respond to teachers' own perceptions of their inservice training and professional needs;

ii. to refine and expand teachers' instructional skills;

iii. to update teachers' knowledge of pedagogical developments and educational research;

iv. to further teacher professional development, both as individuals and as a faculty;

v. to provide supplementary educational resources and instructional materials;

vi. to provide immediate, practical assistance, as well as to facilitate longer-term professional growth; and,

vii. to provide a supportive, non-judgemental and collaborative environment.

These seven purposes provide a useful yardstick for comparing the ERC with other centres. Data analysis conducted in chapter 4 demonstrates a strong similarity between the purposes of the ERC and those of teacher centres in general.

In order to understand *why* teacher centres operate in the way that they do, the researcher found it necessary to combine research on teacher centres with research on effective staff development in general (see Chapter 2), an approach corroborated by Hering and Howey's (1982) assertion that "literature on inservice education needs to be interwoven with and related to the literature on teacher centres" (p. 10). Once this research had been undertaken, it was organized into a comparison chart (see Figure 3, section 2.1) which indicates that the elements of teacher centres as a strategy for staff development largely reflect those for effective staff development programmes in general. Using this review of literature and comparison chart of teacher centres and staff development as a frame of reference, the researcher subsequently conducted a case study of one specific teacher centre: the Education Resource Centre (ERC) of Montreal (see Figure 4, section 2.7). The intention was to provide a detailed portrait of a teacher centre in order to further understanding of teacher centres as a means of facilitating staff development.

Inherent in every case study is the question of generalizability: in this particular case, can research findings on the ERC be generalized to other teacher centres? According to Anderson (1990), it is very difficult to generalize on the basis of one case, and the extent to which generalizability is possible relates to the extent to which a case is typical or involves typical phenomena. While the ERC, like all teacher centres, possesses certain unique characteristics, it is the view of the researcher that there are definite commonalities between the ERC and other centres. When data gathered at the ERC are compared with literature on

teacher centres and on effective staff development programmes in general, it becomes evident that all three -- the ERC, other teacher centres, and effective staff development programmes -- are underpinned by broader theoretical issues such as adult learning theory and the role of context, planning, process and content in the staff development process. Yin (1984) argues that, in a case study, the investigator is striving to generalize a particular set of results or findings to some broader theory. If one accepts Yin's argument, then the findings of this particular case study are generalizable to teacher centres as a whole because both are underpinned by the same theoretical issues mentioned above. However, generalizability of case study findings remains a grey area in the field of research: thus, it is probably more appropriate to conclude that, because teacher centres appear to be linked by certain common purposes and practices, the findings of this case study will have relevance for, and be of interest to, other such centres. With this conclusion in mind, the purpose of this chapter is to provide a synthesis of the salient points which emerged from a study of the Education Resources Centre in Montreal.

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, the main conclusions drawn from the case study are discussed within the context of research on teacher centres in general. The 'nested' model of staff development devised by Mohlman Sparks (1983) and later modified by Raybould (see Chapter 2, Figures 1 and 2) is used as a framework for presenting these conclusions. The following aspects of the ERC are considered:

i. Context;
ii. Organizational Structure;
iii. Planning;
iv. Process; and,
v. Content.

For each of these five aspects, the researcher first refers back to the findings in Figure 3, so that ERC data may be considered within the context of other teacher centres and staff development programmes in general.

5.1.1 CONTEXT

As shown in Figure 3, research indicates two contextual elements for effective staff development in general: administrative support and teacher support. Research on teacher centres includes a third contextual element: that of the physical setting. In addition to these three contextual elements, research conducted at the ERC revealed community support as a fourth element.

A. Community Support

The ERC contrasts with most teacher centres in terms of the extent to which it requires the support of the community for its continued existence. Three main issues emerged from this research:

1. Unlike those teacher centres which are connected to school boards, the relationship between the ERC and its various clients is a voluntary one. Schools, which comprise the majority of the centre's clients, are under no obligation to utilize ERC services.

2. Because the vast majority of ERC funding comes through the JEC from the Montreal Jewish community (AJCS, or Federation-CJA), continued support from

the community is vital to the continued existence of the ERC.

3. Staff members demonstrated acute awareness of the need to provide staff development programmes of a consistently high quality in order to attract an adequate clientele and to ensure continued financial support from the wider Jewish community.

To date, this support has been forthcoming due partly to the efforts of ERC and JEC staff to forge strong links with other community organizations. Another less tangible reason for this continued community support for the ERC appears to be its established reputation, and perceptions within the community of the ERC as an invaluable vehicle for the maintenance of excellence in educational services offered to Jewish schools.

B. Administrative Support

The importance of administrative support from individual school principals for legitimizing and maintaining staff development efforts is well-documented in the literature on effective staff development and teacher centres (see section 2.1.2). The ERC is no exception. Research indicates three factors which make such support of importance to the ERC:

1. The voluntary relationship between the ERC and the schools within the Jewish school system -- each of which is a private school -- means that administrative support is crucial for encouraging and facilitating teacher use of the ERC.

2. Without a mandate to provide coaching or formal follow-up support after a staff development programme, the ERC relies heavily on administrators to take over the incorporation of revised practices into existing school policy.

3. Administrative approval of ERC programmes represents a compelling justification for continued funding of the ERC by the Jewish community.

Although the importance of administrative support for the ERC appears to be more acute than for many teacher centres due to reliance on community funding and to the voluntary nature of the centre's relationship with the schools of the Jewish community, the question of ongoing administrative support nevertheless is clearly a key issue for all teacher centres. There is a direct correlation between the methods utilized by the ERC to establish and maintain this support, and the methods advocated in the literature (see section 2.2.2); that is, by way of an informal principals' centre within the ERC, through staffing the Professional Development Committee of the Association of Principals, by creating a supplementary school principals' network and by providing useful and relevant staff development programmes for school faculties.

C. Teacher Support

Research indicates that the ERC actively pursues a policy of providing high-quality, relevant staff development in a non-judgemental, collegial and hospitable environment (see section 4.1.3). Such a policy is recommended in staff development and teacher centre literature as the method most likely to obtain teacher support. At the ERC, as in all teacher centres, teachers comprise the majority of centre clients. A survey undertaken in October, 1991, demonstrated that 80 percent of teachers who utilized the ERC claimed to be "totally satisfied" or "very satisfied" with the service provided by the centre. In addition, the majority of those surveyed visited the ERC on a regular basis, with 18 percent rating their frequency of use as once per week, and 58 percent rating their frequency of use between once a month and once every two to three months. While the intention here is not to evaluate the ERC, the results of this survey nevertheless indicate strong support among those teachers who use the centre. This issue would provide an interesting avenue for

further research (see section 5.2). Attempts by ERC staff to reach every teacher in the Jewish school system have met with mixed success. ERC staff expressed concern about this, and are employing various strategies to encourage use of ERC services by the widest possible clientele.

D. The Physical Setting

Evidence collected from observation and site visits during a five month period (June-October, 1991) suggests that the ERC exemplifies the type of physical setting advocated in the literature (see sections 2.2.5 and 4.1.4) as a means of facilitating staff development. To summarize:

1. The ERC is characterized by a centralized and permanent setting that is conducive to collaboration and to a culture of continuous growth.

2. The ERC participates in a network, or web, linking persons, resources and institutions with the mutual aim of promoting staff development; and,

3. The ERC acts as a catalyst for communication, communicating verbally and in writing with centre staff, clients, community groups, higher education personnel and other teacher centres.

5.1.2. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The organizational structure of effective staff development programmes in general comprises two elements: the position of the programme within a larger organization, such as a school board, and the composition of the programme committee. Most teacher centres also comprise two organizational elements: management and staffing. At the ERC, management and staffing must be examined in the context of the relationship of the ERC to the JEC and to the AJCS, or Federation CJA (see section 4.2.1).

A. Management

The ERC Committee, which manages the operations of the ERC on an ongoing basis, constitutes one component of a complex, highly organized system (see section 4.2.1) which culminates in the Allied Jewish Community Services of Montreal (AJCS, or Federation CJA). The mandate specified for the ERC Committee (see section 4.2.2) is consistent with the four areas of responsibility for teacher centre boards identified by Collier (1982)(see section 2.3.1). As is the case with non-federally funded teacher centres in the United States, representatives of local community groups are included in the ERC Committee, and teachers, although represented on the Committee, do not constitute a majority of Committee members. Two main issues emerge from the research:

1. While studies show that teacher centre boards, or committees, such as the ERC Committee, which contain a minority of teachers, are not necessarily detrimental to teacher interests (see section 2.3.1), a case could well be made for the inclusion of a greater number of teachers than at present. It is not the purpose of this case study to determine whether inclusion of a minority of teachers on the ERC Committee is detrimental to teacher interests, or not. However, this question could furnish the basis of further study (see section 5.2).

2. The composition of the ERC Committee is such that every constituency who utilizes the ERC is represented, thus ensuring the collaborative approach to management recommended in the literature (see section 2.3.1).

B. Staffing

During the data collection process, strong parallels emerged between the composition, training and competencies of ERC staff, and those recommended in the literature for larger teacher centres (see sections 2.3.2 and 4.2.3). A synthesis of research conducted by Branscombe and Newsom (1977), Wenz

(1987) and Castle (1989) reveals five key competencies which staff developers require: (i) skill as an educator, (ii) skill as a specialist in learning materials, (iii) skill as an administrator, (iv) skill as a producer of learning materials and manager of technical processes, and (v) knowledge of adult learning theory. As demonstrated in section 4.2.3, these competencies reflect to a remarkable extent the competencies found amongst staff at the ERC, thus indicating the high calibre of ERC staff members.

5.1.3. PLANNING

Effective staff development programmes generally incorporate four components when planning staff development: needs assessment, statement of goals and beliefs, time-frame and evaluation. Teacher centres, on the other hand, tend to incorporate five slightly different components in the planning stage: needs assessment, purpose and philosophy, funding, client profiles and patterns of usage, and evaluation. Planning at the ERC reflects that of teacher centres in general, although at the centre, 'purposes' are referred to as 'goals', and these goals are considered separately from the philosophy of the ERC.

A. Philosophy of the ERC

Discussion of ERC philosophy with staff members furnished valuable insights into the development of the centre. Without exception, every staff member spoke of the ERC as being of service to the community. However, while two members of staff appeared to view the ERC simply in practical terms of a service agency, the majority ascribed 'higher' purposes to the centre, seeing it in terms of an ongoing drive towards educational excellence. In addition, the majority saw themselves functioning as a team, with the whole being greater

than the sum of the parts. This perception corresponds with the findings of Hering and Howey (1982), demonstrating "how a centre can be more than an *ad hoc* collection of individually oriented activities" (p. 35). This belief in the pursuit of educational excellence, and in the importance of collaborative action appeared to underscore much of the dialogue between staff and clients and most staff development activities which occurred at the ERC during data gathering by the researcher. Finally, staff members emphasized the need to respond to the individual needs of teachers and of specific schools, thus fulfilling the criterion identified in literature on teacher centres, in which it is maintained that teacher centres can be distinguished from other forms of staff development by the emphasis they place on the individual requirements of educators and on an area's local needs (Devaney, 1976; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987).

B. Needs Assessment

Needs assessments conducted at the ERC are both formal and informal in nature, and incorporate all constituencies which utilize the ERC. This approach is consistent with that advocated in the literature as a valuable element of the teacher centre planning process. According to available literature, the ERC appears to differ from literature on teacher centres in two ways: (i) in terms of the importance the ERC places on consulting with experts in a particular field in order to incorporate this knowledge in the planning process; and, (ii) in terms of feeding the results of a needs assessment back to a presenter prior to a workshop in order to facilitate a closer match between the presenter and the teachers' requirements. To the author's knowledge, no specific mention is made of this approach in teacher centre literature.

C. Goals

Five goals and objectives have been specified for the ERC (see section 4.3.3). A review of data demonstrates that these goals and objectives serve to justify and clarify the role of the ERC, and that there is congruence between the ERC's stated goals and current practice at the centre. The ERC's goals are very general in nature and are procedural rather than substantive, thus allowing for the degree of flexibility in staff development programming which is recommended in the literature (Clark, 1981).

D. Funding

Four main issues emerged from data about ERC funding:

1. Widespread concern among ERC staff about the impact of increasingly stringent budgets and the maintenance of funding levels demonstrates that funding, in common with most teacher centres, constitutes a critical issue for the ERC (see sections 2.4.5 and 4.3.4).

2. The ERC is unusual in terms of the degree to which it relies on funding from the community it serves in order to survive. In contrast, most teacher centres derive their funding from school boards, provincial governments or the federal government, rather than from a centre's constituency.

3. However, like many independent teacher centres, the ERC seeks alternative funding sources, applying for funding from foundations and organizations both in North America and in Israel.

4. Staff members expressed frustration about the growing gap between what they could potentially achieve and what they could actually achieve, in view of budget cuts. While the general consensus was that the ERC, as of the date when research was completed, had been able to absorb the impact of these cuts and maintain current levels of service, the situation nevertheless raised crucial questions about expansion or creative budgeting, the number of

hours officially worked by various staff members and the continuing ability of the ERC to subsidize the staff development programmes that it offers to schools.

E. Client Profiles and Patterns of Usage

Despite the absence of statistics relating to centre clientele and patterns of usage, the researcher gained a relatively accurate impression of the nature of the clientele from interviews with ERC staff members. The constituencies and approximate percentages identified in these interviews were born out by a client survey conducted by the researcher over a week-long period. Several issues emerged from the data, notably that the ERC data were consistent with data on teacher centres in general in terms of:

a. the broad range of organizations who utilize ERC services,

b. the fact that schools outnumber other organizations in terms of ERC usage by a ratio of 7:3,

c. the absence of any consistent patterns of usage of ERC services by clients,

d. the fact that 69.5 percent of centre clients during the week-long survey were teachers (with the majority of these comprising elementary teachers), and

e. the fact that the overwhelming majority of clients surveyed were female.

The ERC Director cited the priority placed on a 'people first' approach as the reason for the lack of statistics on centre clients. However, while the gathering of such data on a consistent, day-to-day basis might prove arduous and cumbersome to administer, sporadic, short-term surveys of centre clients and their patterns of usage may well enhance or corroborate staff perceptions of the breakdown of the clientele, and might also identify any changes in usage, information which could then be fed into the planning process.

Similarly, a longer-term, in-depth examination of centre clientele could prove to be an interesting topic for further study (see section 5.2).

F. Evaluation

In common with most teacher centres, evaluation of centre programmes and services is conducted on an ongoing basis at the ERC, through dialogue between staff and centre clients, and through distribution of evaluation forms at the conclusion of most staff development activities. The ERC is unusual, however, in that the centre's mandate precludes summative evaluations of the degree of carry-over of new skills and strategies into participants' classrooms (see section 4.3.6). ERC staff are aware of this limitation, and existing plans to develop and pilot-test a coaching model to facilitate transfer of programme content in a classroom context may well enable the ERC staff to circumvent this by providing valuable information about the degree to which new strategies and skills are utilized following a staff development programme. Clearly, the pilot-test of such a coaching model would provide a valuable topic for further study (see section 5.2).

5.1.4 PROCESS

The process of both effective staff development programmes and teacher centres involves two main components: types of staff development programmes, and the scheduling of these programmes. A third component -- that of adult learning theory -- appears to permeate current staff development research and practice. The ERC, in common with effective staff development programmes and other teacher centres, also incorporates these components in the staff development process.

A. Types of Staff Development Programmes at the ERC

Nine programme delivery systems are identified in the literature on teacher centres (see section 2.5.3), namely: individual consultations, informal 'drop-in' programmes, centre staff acting as brokers, special projects, workshops, mini-courses, conferences, individual study, and the provision of summer scholarships or conference attendance fees. Although most centres offer a wide cross-section of staff development programmes, it appears to be rare for a teacher centre to utilize all nine delivery systems (Harty, 1984). The ERC would seem to be unusual, therefore, in that it has employed all nine delivery systems, and in addition incorporates a tenth -- the idea exchange. As is the case with many centres, individual consultations, workshops and mini-courses constitute a large proportion of these ERC activities. The fact that the ERC has employed every delivery system recommended in teacher centre literature, despite an increasingly stringent budget, is testament to the high quality of service maintained by the ERC. Similarly, this wide spectrum of delivery systems accommodates differences in style, time, place and pace of learning by the clientele, which is advocated by adult learning theorists (Knowles, 1978; Andrews, Houston and Bryant, 1981; Levine, 1985).

B. Scheduling of Staff Development Programmes at the ERC

Scheduling of staff development programmes at the ERC appears to be fairly evenly divided between single-session activities and activities taking place over a longer period of time (see section 4.4.2). Scheduling varies according to the content of the programme, and is based on whether the aim is to raise awareness of, or 'fine-tune' a topic, or to examine complex issues and changes in greater depth. Data indicate that ERC scheduling accurately reflects recommendations in

literature on staff development and teacher centres (see section 2.5.4, 2.5.5, and 4.4.2), and reflects the widely-held notion that staff development is an ongoing, incremental process (Devaney, 1976; Ellis, 1990).

5.1.5 CONTENT OF ERC PROGRAMMES

In recent years, researchers have emphasized the importance of basing the content of staff development programmes on educational research (see section 2.6.1). Shulman (1987) identified the four major sources of teaching knowledge, namely: (i) scholarship in content disciplines; (ii) the materials, practices and setting of the institutionalized education process; (iii) research on process, schooling, social organization, human learning, teaching and development; and, (iv) the wisdom of practice. In common with effective staff development programmes in general and other teacher centres, Shulman's (1987) analysis provides a useful framework for analyzing the content of ERC staff development programmes and the researcher found that there is a strong correlation between the content of ERC programmes and that which is recommended in the literature (Devaney, 1979; Hering and Howey, 1982; Shulman, 1987; Bertani and Tafel, 1989). This finding is consistent with the stated aims of the ERC laid out in the ERC document *Our Policies on Professional Development* (see Appendix F).

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Five recommendations for further study emerged from research at the ERC:

i. Multiple case studies of teacher centres could be conducted to verify the findings and to improve the generalizability of a single case study.

ii. A comparison of the composition of the governing bodies of various teachers' centres: how do they differ? What are the implications of these differences for the purposes of these centres, and for the way in which each centre operates?

iii. An in-depth, long-term survey of the clientele of the ERC in terms of the gender and occupation of client, type of school or organization they work for, frequency of centre use, and type of use. What would be the implications of the results of such a study in terms of the planning process at the ERC?

iv. A study of the development and pilot test of a coaching model to facilitate transfer of ERC programme content into a classroom context.

v. An evaluation of ERC staff development programmes and the subsequent degree of carry-over of new skills and strategies into participants' classrooms.

Appendix A

Letter of Introduction to ERC Staff

June 3, 1991

...
Education Resource Centre
5151 Cote St-Catherine Road, Suite 200
Montreal, Quebec H3W 1M6

Dear ...:

I am conducting a case study of the Jewish Education Resource Centre in Montreal for my Master's thesis at McGill University. The focus of the study will be on the organization of the Jewish Education Resource Centre. I am particularly interested in the role of the Centre as an instrument for the professional development of educators. The purpose of this research is to document what is happening at the Jewish Education Resource Centre, so that educationalists, provincial boards of education and cultural groups who are interested in establishing or developing such a centre can refer to and learn from your experiences. These are the questions I am hoping to address: what are the goals and philosophy of the Centre, how is the Centre organized to fulfil these goals, why is it organized in this manner, and what, if any, are the difficulties encountered in this process.

This study has been endorsed by the Director of the Jewish Education Council, the Director of Education Services and by the Chairman of the Education Resources Centre. In order to gain a full understanding of the Centre, I would like to talk to you informally during the times when I visit the ERC (June to August 1991). I would also like your help in participating in an interview (of approximately 1/2 hour in length). I appreciate that there are many calls on your time, so the timing of the interview would take place at your convenience.

I look forward to meeting you during my visits to the Jewish Education Resource Centre.

Yours sincerely,

Kate Raybould

Appendix B

Visits to the ERC

The following table indicates the number of visits the researcher made to the Centre and the dates they were made:

Visits	Dates	Number of Days
1	Jun 20-21	2
2	Jun 27	1
3	Jul 04-05	2
4	Jul 08-09	2
5	Jul 11-12	2
6	Jul 29-31	3
7	Aug 01-02	2
8	Aug 15-16	2
9	Oct 07-11	5
	TOTAL:	21

Appendix C

ERC Staff Interview Protocol

1. What was the nature of your previous training and work experience?

2. How long have you worked at the ERC?

3. What does your current job at the ERC entail?

4. Please could you provide a breakdown of the services and resources that you provide?

5. What do you perceive to be your area of expertise?

6. How would you summarize the philosophy of the ERC?

7. What aspects of your previous training do you find most useful for your present job?

8. Has your role changed during your time at the ERC?

9. What groups of people do you serve?

10. Could you give me two or three examples of activities in a typical date for you at the ERC?

11. What part of your job do you most/least enjoy?

12. What, if any, are the obstacles to carrying out your job?

13. In theory, do you feel that you could be useful in additional areas of the ERC, apart from your own job?

14. To what extent are you involved in decisions about the organization and activities of (i) your own job, and (ii) the ERC as a whole?

15. To what degree do you collaborate with other staff members at the ERC?

16. Are you satisfied with this level of collaboration?

17. What form do staff development activities take?

    a. informally, on a one-to-one basis?
    b. formally, on a one-to-one basis?
    c. at a workshop?
    d. at a mini-course?
    e. at a seminar?
    f. other?

18. Where do these activities take place?

    a. at the ERC?
    b. in the field?

19. How many workshops do you conduct/organize in a year?

20. What is the length of most of the workshops that you give?

21. When planning staff development activities, do you conduct any formal or informal needs assessment of prospective clients?

22. In general, do these staff development activities aim to:

    a. introduce new concepts and skills?
    b. develop and improve existing skills?
    c. develop and produce curricula?
    d. other?

23. How do you advertise these activities?

24. Which of the following elements do you include in a staff development activity?

    a. presentation of theory?
    b. modelling or demonstration?
    c. informal group discussion and idea sharing?
    d. practice under simulated conditions?
    e. structured feedback?
    f. informal feedback?
    g. coaching for application?
    h. video/audio feedback?
    i. course evaluation?
    j. other?

25. What do you regard as the most important elements of a staff development activity?

26. How do you decide what your goals are for each staff development activity?

27. How do you know if you have achieved these goals?

28. Following a staff development activity, do you provide any type of follow-up support or on-site supervision?

29. As far as schools are concerned, what sort of contact do you have with principals and other administrators?

30. What do you perceive to be the motivation for client participation in your staff development activities?

31. A certain amount of staff development is done in the form of consultations. What happens when a client comes to see you?

32. How do you determine the short-term/long-term needs of that client?

33. Are the clients usually clear about their requirements?

34. In your view, what degree of satisfaction does the client receive?

35. If you were given the task of creating a teacher centre, to what extent would you create it along the lines of the ERC?

36. What changes, if any, would you make?

Appendix D

ERC Client Survey

1. Are you here on business for:

    a. a school?
    b. an organization?
    c. a private business?

2. What is your occupation?

3. Where do you teach?

4. What grades do you teach?

5. When were you last at the ERC?

6. What services do you normally use at the ERC?

7. How would you rate your level of satisfaction with the service you receive at the ERC?

    a. Totally Satisfied?
    b. Very Satisfied?
    c. Satisfied?
    d. Dissatisfied?

8. Approximately how many times do you visit the ERC each year?

Appendix E

Data From Week-Long ERC Client Survey

1. The Percentage of clients who were at the centre on business for:

   (a) a school: 69.5%
   (b) other organization: 30.5%

2. The percentage of clients who worked in a school as:

   (a) elementary school teachers: 68%
   (b) high school teachers: 32%

3. The percentage of clients who were:

   (a) female: 87.5%
   (b) male: 12.5%

4. The degree of satisfaction with ERC services expressed by centre clients:

   (a) Totally Satisfied: 08%
   (b) Very Satisfied: 72%
   (c) Satisfied: 19%
   (d) Dissatisfied: 01%

5. Patterns of client usage of the ERC during the course of a year:

   (a) daily: 04%
   (b) every week: 18%
   (c) once per fortnight: 04%
   (d) once per month: 20%
   (e) once every 2-3 months: 38%
   (f) infrequently/once or twice per annum: 14%

ועד החינוך היהודי במונטריאל
יידישער דערציאונגס-ראט פון מאנטרעאל
Le Conseil de l'éducation Juive de Montréal
Jewish Education Council of Montreal
Edifice Cummings House, 5151 Cote St Catherine Rd.,
Montreal, Quebec H3W 1M6 (514) 735-3541 Ext 355

נס"ד

OUR POLICIES
on
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

PREFACE

APPROACHES TO PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE TO WHICH WE SUBSCRIBE

-"...the extension of professional competence and its application in a complex situation." (Joyce and Showers, 1984)
-"To create behaviour changes in teachers and eventually students." (Wade, 1984)
-"Staff development should be justified on its potential impact on student learning." (Vaughn, 1982)
-"Staff development is...an attitude, a commitment to help individuals grow personally and professionally in a supportive climate." (J. Rogus and E. Shaw, 1983)

Definitions of Terms Used

-We use the terms "Professional Development", "Staff Development" and/or "In Service Education" interchangably.

-"Program(s)" - event(s) that implement professional development. This can be a single session, workshop, seminar, mini-course, series, etc.

-"Professionals", "Clients", "Participants" are the teachers or group leaders, they may be in a formal or informal educational setting (salaried or volunteers).

-"Learners or Students" regardless of age are those with whom the "professionals" work.

INTRODUCTION

Professional Development is one of the ways to implement the goals of JEC/ERC and is an integral part of our overall activities. By providing Professional Development, we act as a support system to Jewish education in all its forms and contribute to "the enhancement of the quality of Jewish education and instruction" as well as help "develop cooperation, coordination and consultation among the schools, and address communal educational concerns" (JEC Constitution, 1984).

The overall goal of Professional Development is to provide a wide variety of quality programs to educators that will enhance and further develop their multiple skills in working with their learners.

The ERC provides a central, neutral place where educators may meet in a non-judgmental atmosphere, to focus on educational concerns and receive support for their educational needs as professionals.

The ERC in providing Professional Development, which is viewed as a lifelong, ongoing process - REVITALIZES the professional, gives him/her the tools for practice, inspires and stimulates new ideas. Therefore every visit to the ERC contributes to our clients professional development.

We implement Professional Development in two distinct forms:

A) Informal - via consultations with our staff re:planning, pedagogic methods, selection and use of A/V and library resources, arts, crafts and games.

B) Formal - via organized Professional Days, Workshops, Mini-courses, etc. This aspect is the focus of this policy paper.

Professional Development brings about a "change process". It is therefore viewed in the larger school/organizational context i.e. the goals, policies, curriculum, supervision, staff evaluation, the collective agreement etc. Links between all these components as well as the implications of the "change process" are considered when planning professional development.

The ultimate goal is to encourage participants to develop the optimum use of their initiatives and skills.

JEC/ERC POLICIES ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Overall Directives
   - -Establish professional development as a major priority of the ERC.
   - -Offer consultation, guidance and support to schools, organizations and agencies for planning professional development with their staff.
   - -Represent JEC/ERC commitment to professional development on communal level (e.g. Federation of Teachers, National Conferences, etc.)

2. Quality in Programs
   - -Provide the highest quality of programs that are theory-based, in tune with current research and have practical application to the participant's situation.

3. Planning
   - -Consult with potential groups (or samples) to identify their needs and interests.
   - -Involve those who are directly concerned with professional development (e.g. principal, teachers, group workers, etc.) in the planning process.
   - -Plan strategies to address clarified needs.
   - -Establish guidelines and standards, e.g. minimum and maximum attendance, etc.
   - -Implement plans within a defined time frame.

4. Format(s)/Model(s)
   - -Explore alternative models and approaches to professional development appropriate to the needs of our clients and plan strategies to achieve them.
   - -Provide variety and flexibility in programs offered (e.g. duration, organization, etc.)
   - -Facilitate "sharing" and interaction among professionals and lay leaders in education with similar needs and interests (e.g. Idea Exchanges)
   - -Plan and implement professional development programs within a school, interschool, city-wide as well as open workshops, University courses, Mini-courses, etc.
   - -Involve the participants actively.
   - -Encourage the discussion of diverse views in a constructive neutral atmosphere.

5. Content
   - -Reflect a balance between current trends in:
     - subject matter (disciplines)
     - variety of resources and methodologies
     - aspects of planning and evaluation
     - better understanding of learners

6. Resource People
   -Engage highly qualified persons in their field that can relate theory and suggest practical applications.
   -Utilize JEC/ERC staff when appropriate, supplementing with local or out of town resource people
   -Engage visiting guest lecturers.
   -Provide an honorarium on a per session basis in accordance with designated budget when required.
   -Reimburse expenses on a pre-arranged basis.

7. Scheduling
   -Provide/facilitate professional development on school's/agency's time, professional's own time, or shared time.
   -Schedule programs at the most effective and appropriate times of year.

8. Location
   -Host sessions on JEC/ERC premises.
   -Facilitate or participate in sessions on school's/organization's premises when more appropriate.
   -Seek other locations when necessary.

9. Physical Set-Up
   -Provide a pleasant atmosphere and comfortable setting conducive to professional development.

10. Climate and Atmosphere
   -Facilitate an atmosphere that is conducive to professional growth.
   -Respect each individual, accommodating the unique educational philosphy and teaching style that he/she represents.
   -Encourage neutrality, trust and confidentiality.
   -Promote the belief that professional growth is a dynamic process, and each professional can continuously develop and be more successful in facilitating learning.
   -Encourage open and honest interaction among participants.

11. Role of Our Staff
   a) With clients:
      -Respond to the needs and interests, balancing perceptions with current educational theory and practice within our available resources.
      -Maintain open, ongoing communication.
      -Assume a supportive role as a follow-up to professional development.

b) Within JEC/ERC
- -Work in a cooperative manner, consult and support each other regarding professional development.
- -Implement these policies as set by the ERC Committee.
- -Present periodic reports, evaluations and budget recommendations to the ERC Committee.

c) With guest resource persons:
- -Search for and "screen" potential session leaders.
- -Act as liaison between our clients and resource person(s).
- -Consult with him/her about the potential audience, organization of the session(s) manner of presentation and assist in preparation of equipment and material(s) as needed.
- -Organize the logistics of the program(s).

12. Publicity and Public Relations

Implement Public Relations strategies that will encourage participation of our clients and bring JEC/LRC professional development programs to the attention of the community.

13. Fees
- -Charge either the school/organization or participants for specific session(s) or courses, when expenses are incurred.
- -Keep charges to a minimum, to cover expenses, when practical.
- -Apply surplus income from professional development activities solely to professional development budget lines.

14. Role of the ERC Committee
- -Receive and discuss reports and plans of professional development activities.
- -Be accountable to the JEC for professional development.
- -Establish and periodically review the priorities for professional development, while maintaining a balance for all whom we serve.
- -Balance and integrate professional development with other JEC/ERC functions.
- -Explore ways and means to promote and expand the status of professional development which will hopefully result in schools/organizations alotting increased time and incentives for inservice education.
- -Establish guidelines for fees and charges.

15. The Role of the JEC

The JEC should convey the need for professional development as a priority to school lay leaders, the Federation of Teachers and other related angcies, so as to effect participation and financial support to implement the goals outlined in this paper.

Appendix G

1992-93 List of Montreal Jewish Schools and Daycare Centres

Day Schools

Bialik High School

Ecole Maimonide (Cote St. Luc)

Hebrew Academy, Inc.

Jewish People's Schools and Peretz Schools (Cote St. Luc)

Solomon Schechter Academy

Hebrew Foundation School

Beth Rivkah Academy for Girls

College Rabbinique-Lubavitch

Herzeliah High School (Snowdon)

Jewish People's Schools and Peretz Schools (Snowdon)

United Talmud Torahs (Snowdon)

Belz Boys School

Belz Girls School

Skver Boys School

Skver Girls School

Beth Jacob

Yeshiva Gedola Merkaz Hatorah

Jewish Association for Special Education

Ecole Maimonide (Ville St. Laurent)

Ecole Sepharade de Montreal

Herzelia High Schools (Ville St. Laurent)

United Talmud Toras (Ville St. Laurent)

Akiva School

Supplementary Schools

Adat Rei'im Hebrew School

Atid Jewish Youth Learning Centre

Free Hebrew for Juniors

Hebrew Academy of Congregation Beth Tikvah

House of Israel Congregation

A. Reisen School

Shaar Hashomayim Pals

Temple Emanu-el-Beth-Sholom Religious School

TMR Private Hebrew School

Tikvah Program for Children with Learning Disabilities

Daycares and Preschools

Adath Israel Kiddie Korner

Gan Malka

Ganeynou

Garderie du Centre communautaire Juif

Garderie Shalom

Garderie Toch

Gyly

Hebrew Day School

Kan Tsippor

Laval Nursery ("Y")

Snowdon Nursery

TBDJ Nursery School

West Island Service of Laval "Y" Nursery

יידישער דערציאונגסראט פון מאנטרעאל
Le Conseil de l'éducation juive de Montréal
Jewish Education Council of Montreal
Edifice Cummings House 5151 Côte Ste Catherine, Montréal, Québec H3W 1M6
Tél. (514) 345-2610 • Fax (514) 735 2175

Appendix H

EVALUATION OF JEC MINI COURSE

Course Title:_____Instructor:_____Date:_____

Please complete this form to help us assess the mini-course and plan for the future. (Circle the number that you choose)

	Most				Least
1. Overall, how satisfied were you with this mini-course?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Extent to which the content addressed your needs.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Degree to which you can transfer what you learned.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Extent that instructor was helpful with your individual needs and/or interests.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Were there sufficient support materials (e.g., handouts)?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Extent of relationship between the content and materials.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Extent to which you would recommend this topic to your colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Extent to which you would recommend this instructor to offer this/other course(s).	1	2	3	4	5

9. Comments:

a) This mini-course could have been better if:

b) Suggestions for follow-up to this mini-course:

c) Suggestions for future JEC mini-courses:

יידישער דערציאונגס־ראט פון מאנטרעאל
Le Conseil de l'éducation juive de Montréal
Jewish Education Council of Montreal
Edifice Cummings House, 5151 Côte Ste-Catherine, Montréal, Quebec H3W 1M6
Tel (514) 345-2610 • Fax (514) 735-2175

Appendix I

Please take a few minutes to help us:

EVALUATE OUR LIBRARY SERVICES

Date _____ Time _____

CHECK THOSE THAT APPLY:

1. I (we) came primarily to:
   - Borrow/return library books/a/v materials
   - Consult materials in the library
   - Consult the librarian about a specific topic: _____
   - Other (specify) _____

2. Please note the overall level of satisfaction of this visit:

5	4	3	2	1
Excellent	Very Good	Acceptable	Fair	Low

3. Degree that staff was helpful to you: 5____4____3____2____1____
   Most Helpful ... Least Helpful

4. The strength of our service was in:

   - materials available _____
   - expertise available _____
   - staff readiness to assist _____
   - cooperative atmosphere _____
   - other_____

5. What kind of difficulties did you encounter? (specify)

6. Suggestions for additional materials/services you would like to see.

7. Other comments you care to add:

Thank you for your cooperation!

REFERENCES

Alberty, B., J. Neujahr and L. Weber (1981). *Use and Setting: Development in a Teachers' Center*. Grand Forks, ND: University of North Dakota (ERIC No. ED 272491).

Allen, K. and L. (1973). *Organization and Administration of a Learning Resources Center in the Community College*. The Shoestring Press, Inc.

Anderson, G. (1990). *Fundamentals of Educational Research*. London: The Falmer Press.

Anderson, L., C. Evertson and J. Brophy (1979). "An Experimental Study of Effective Teaching in First-Grade Reading Groups", in *Elementary School Journal*, 79, pp. 193-223.

Andrews, L.O. (1980). "From Campus Schools to Teacher Centers: The Continuing Search for Effective Arrangements for Teacher Education Functions", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 2, pp. 9-17.

Andrews, T.E., W.R. Houston and B.L. Bryant (1981). *Adult Learners: A Research Study*. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators.

Arends, R., R. Hersh and J. Turner (1980). *Conditions for Promoting Effective Staff Development*. Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.

Arin-Krupp, J. (1989). "Staff Development and the Individual", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 44-56.

Aspy, D.N. and F.N. Roebuck (1982). "Affective Education: Sound Investment", in *Educational Leadership*, 39, pp. 488-493.

Baden, D.J. (1980). "A User Guide to the Evaluation of Inservice Education", in *Inservice*, 1, pp. 5-8.

Barker, J.D. (1985). *Teacher Center Client Profile Patterns of Use and Recommendations for Data Collection and Research*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee (ERIC No. ED 265153).

Becker, H.S. (1958). "Problems of Inference and Proof in Participant Observation", in *American Sociological Review*, 23, pp. 652-660.

Behling, H.E., Jr., (1981). *What Recent Research Says About Effective Schools and Effective Classrooms*. Chelonsford, MD: Update Northeastern Region Exchange.

Bentzen, M. (1974). *Changing Schools: The Magic Father Principle*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Berman, P. and M. McLaughlin (1975). *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. IV, The Findings in Review*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Berman, P. and M. McLaughlin (1978). *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. III, Implementing and Sustaining Innovations*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Bertani, A.A. and L.S. Tafel (1989). "Theory, Research and Practice: Foundations of Staff Development", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 140-154.

Borg, W.R. (1975). "Protocol Materials as Related to Teacher Performance and Pupil Achievement", in *Journal of Educational Research*, 69, pp. 23-30.

Branscombe, F.R. and H.E. Newsom (eds.)(1977). *Resource Services for Canadian Schools*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson.

Brophy, J. (1982). "Successful Teaching Strategies for the Inner-City Child", in *Phi Delta Kappan* (April 1982), pp. 527-530.

Burrell, D. (1976). "The Teachers Centre: A Critical Analysis", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 422-427.

Byrd, D. (1981). "Do Educational Constituency Groups Agree on Topics for Professional Development?", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 3:1, pp. 77-90.

Caldwell, R.M. (1980). "The Development of Teacher Effectiveness Within a Teacher Center Consortium", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 2, pp. 75-82.

Castle, D.K. (1989). "Competencies of the Staff Developer", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practice*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 156-175.

Christiansen, J. (1981). "Professional Development: What Do Teachers Think?", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 3:1, pp. 77-90.

Clark, D.L. (1981). "In Consideration of Goal-Free Planning: The Failure of Traditional Planning Systems in Education", in *Educational Administrative Quarterly*, 17:3, pp. 42-60.

Clark, D.L., L.S. Lotto and T.A. Astuto (1984), "Effective Schools and School Improvement: A Cooperative Analysis of Two Lines of Inquiry", in *Educational Administrative Quarterly*, 20:3, pp. 41-68.

Cohen, M. (1987). "Improving School Effectiveness: Lessons from Research", in Virginia Richardson-Kohler (ed.), *Educators Handbook: A Research Perspective*. New York: Longman, pp. 479-490.

Collier, A.J. (1982). *Florida's Teacher Education Centers: Determining If They Make a Difference*. Atlanta, GA: National Council of Inservice Education.

Conference Board of Canada (1992). *Employability Skills Profile*. Ottawa.

Corbett, H.D., J.A. Dawson and W.A. Firestone (1984). *School Context and School Challenge*. New York: Teacher's College Press.

Crandall, D.P. (1983). "The Teacher's Role in School Improvement", in *Educational Leadership*, 41:3, pp. 6-9.

Crandall, D.P. and S.F. Loucks (1983). *People, Policies and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement, Vol. IX, A Roadmap for School Improvement*. Andover, MA: The Network, Inc.

Crosby, J. (1982). "Participation in Evaluation as Staff Development", in *Journal of Staff Development*, 3:1, pp. 147-155.

DeJarnette Caldwell, S. (ed.). *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.

Devaney, K. (1976). "What's a Teachers' Center For?", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 413-416.

Devaney, K. (ed.)(1977). *Essays on Teachers' Centers*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory.

Devaney, K. (ed.)(1979). *Building a Teachers' Center*. San Francisco: Teachers' Centers Exchange.

Dillon-Peterson, B. (ed.)(1981). *Staff Development/ Organizational Development*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Dornbush, S. and R.W. Scott (1975). *Evaluation and the Exercise of Authority*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Drumm, G.B. (1976). "The Center for Open Education: A Center Without Walls", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 441-443.

Duke, D.L. and L. Corno (1981). "Evaluating Staff Development", in B. Dillon-Peterson (ed.), *Staff Development/ Organizational Development*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Edelfelt, R.A. (1982). "Critical Issues in Developing Teacher Centers", in *Phi Delta Kappan*, 63:6, pp. 390-393.

Edwards, C.H. (1975). "Changing Teacher Behaviour Through Self Instruction and Supervised Microteaching in a Competency-Based Program", in *Journal of Educational Research*, 69, pp. 219-222.

Ellis, S.S. (1989). "Putting it All Together: An Integrated Staff Development Program", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 58-69.

Ellis, S.S. (1990). "Introducing Cooperative Learning", in *Educational Leadership* (January 1990), pp. 34-37.

Evertson, C. and E. Emmer (1982). "Effective Management at the Beginning of the Year in Junior High School Classes", in *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, pp. 485-498.

Feiman, S. (1977). "Evaluating Teacher Centers", in *School Review*, 85:3, pp. 395-411.

Feldens, M.G.F. and J.K. Duncan (1978). "A Field Experiment: Teacher-Directed Changes in Instructional Behaviour", in *Journal of Teacher Education*, 29, pp. 47-51.

Florida Teacher Education Center Act (1973). FS231.600-231.610.

Fonzi, M.A. (1982). "A Critique of Guidelines for Better Staff Development", in *Educational Leadership*, 40, pp. 32-33.

Friedman, P. and B. Alley (1980). "Reality from Dreams", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 2, pp. 63-67.

Fullan, M. (1982). *The Meaning of Educational Change*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for the Study of Education (OISE) Press.

Glatthorn, A.A. (1987). "Cooperative Professional Development: Peer-Centered Options for Teacher Growth", in *Educational Leadership*, 45, pp. 31-35.

Gomez, J.J. (1988). *Evaluation of the Dade-Monroe Teacher Education Center* (ERIC No. ED 299302).

Goodlad, J.I. (1983). *A Place Called School*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J.I.(1983). "The School as Workplace", in G. Griffin (ed.), *Staff Development*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, pp. 36-61.

Gould, S. and E. Letven (1987). "A Center for Interactive Professional Development", in *Educational Leadership*, 45, pp. 49-52.

Griffin, G. (ed.)(1983). *Staff Development: 82nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Guilkey, J. (1980). "The Clustering of Teacher Centers: Sharing and Documentary Success", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 2, pp. 53-57.

Guskey, T.R. (1985). "Staff Development and Teacher Change", in *Educational Leadership*, 42:7, pp. 57-60.

Guskey, T.R. (1986). "Staff Development and the Process of Teacher Change", in *Educational Researcher*, 15:5, pp. 5-12.

Hall, G. and S. Loucks (1978). "Innovation Configurations: Analyzing the Adaptations of Innovations". Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Toronto, 1978.

Harty, H. (1984). "Perceived Institutional Payoffs from Teacher' Centers", in *Educational Research Quarterly*, 9:1, pp. 19-25.

Hering, W.M. and K.R. Howey (1982). *Research In, On, and By Teachers' Canters: Summary Report*. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (ERIC No. ED 225975).

Holly, M.L. (1982). "Teachers Views on Inservice Training", in *Phi Delta Kappan*, 63, pp. 417-418.

Holt, D.M. (1989). *Linking School and University Staff Development: A Partnership for Educational Improvement*. University of North Florida (ERIC No. ED 309149).

Howey, K. (1980). *School Focused Inservice Education: Clarification of a New Concept and Strategy: Synthesis Report*. Paris: OECD Center for Educational Research and Development.

Hunter, M. (1985). "What's Wrong with Madeleine Hunter?", in *Educational Leadership*, 42:5, pp. 57-90.

Joyce, B. (1981). "A Memorandum for the Future", in B. Dillon-Peterson (ed.), *Staff Development/Organizational Development*, Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, pp. 113-127.

Joyce, B. and B. Showers (1980). "Improving Inservice Training: The Messages of Research", in *Educational Leadership*, 37:5, pp. 179-185.

Joyce B. and B. Showers (1981). "Teacher Training Research: Working Hypotheses for Program Design and Directions for Further Study". Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, 1981.

Joyce, B., and B. Showers (1982). "The Coaching of Teaching", in *Educational Leadership*, 40:1, pp. 4-10.

King, J., P. Hayes and I. Newman (1977). "Some Requirements for Successful Inservice Education", in *Phi Delta Kappan* (may 1977), pp. 686-687.

Knowles, M. (1978). *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species*. Houston, TX: Gulf.

Korinek, L., R. Schmid and M. McAdams (1985). "Inservice Types and Best Practices", in *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 18:2, pp. 33-38.

Krupp, J.A. (1981). *Adult Development: Implications for Staff Development*. Colchester, CT: Project RISE.

Lawrence, G. (1974). *Patterns of Effective Inservice Education*. Tallahassee, FL: Department of Education, State of Florida.

Lawrence Dale, E. (1982). "What Is Staff Development?", in *Educational Leadership*, 40:1, p. 31.

Levin, C. and R. Horwitz (1976). "The Teacher Canter, Inc. (New Haven, Connecticut): A Case Study", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 434-440.

Levine, S.L. (1985). "Translating Adult Development in Staff Development Practices", in *The Journal of Staff Development*, 6:1, pp. 6-17.

Levine, S.L. and N.E. Broude (1989). "Designs for Learning", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 70-82.

Lewin, K. (1935). *A Dynamic Theory of Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lieberman, A.N. (ed.)(1986). *Rethinking School Improvement: Research, Craft and Concept*. New York: Teachers' College Press, Columbia University.

Lieberman, A. (1986). "Collaborative Work", in *Educational Leadership*, 43:5, pp. 4-8.

Lieberman, A., and L. Miller (1984). *Teachers, their World and their Work: Implications for School Improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Lincoln, Y.S. and E.G. Guba (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newberry Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Little, J.W. (1981). *School Success and Staff Development in Urban Desegregation Schools: A Summary of Recent Research*. Boulder, CO: Canter for Action Research (ERIC No. ED 205628).

Lofland, J. and L.H. (1971). *Analyzing Social Settings: A Guide to Qualitative Observation and Analysis*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Inc.

Loucks-Horsley, S., C.K. Harding. M.A. Arbuckle, L.B. Murray, C. Dubea, and M.R. Williams (1987). *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

Loucks-Horsley, S., and L.F. Hergert (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Loveinger, J. (1976). *Ego Development: Conceptions and Theories*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Marshall, J.C. (1989). "Assessing Program Effects", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.

Maslow, A. (1971). *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature*. New York: Viking Press.

McLaren, H. (1976). "The Teacher Curriculum Work Canter, Chicago: A Case Study", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 444-446.

McLaughlin, M.W. and D.D. Marsh (1978). "Staff Development and School Change", in *Teachers College Record*, 80:1, pp. 69-94.

Measor, L. (1985) "Interviewing: A Strategy in Qualitative Research", in R.G. Burgess (ed.), *Strategies of Educational Research: Qualitative Methods*. London: Falcon Press, pp. 55-77.

Merriam, S.B. (1988). *Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mertens, S. (1982). "The Basics in Inservice Education: Findings from the RAND and Teacher Canter Studies", in *Action in Teacher Education*, 4:1, pp. 61-66.

Mertens, S. and S. Yarger (1981). *Teacher Canters in Action: A Comprehensive Study of the Federally Funded Teacher Canters*. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.

Metzdorf, J. (1989). "District-Level Staff Development", in Sarah DeJarnette Caldwell (ed.), *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, pp. 14-24.

Mohlman Sparks, G. (1983). "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development for Effective Teaching", in *Educational Leadership*, 41:3, pp. 65-72.

Nadler, R. (1980). "A Model for Professional Development", in *Training and Development Journal*, 34:5, pp. 14-22.

Oakland Teacher Canter Survey (1982). "Teachers' Perception of the Roles of a Teachers' Canter in the Professional Development", in J.D. Barker (1985), *Teacher Canter Client Profile Patterns of Use and Recommendations for Data Collection and Research*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee (ERIC No. ED 265153).

Oja, S.M. (1980). "Adult Development is Implicit in Staff Development", in *Journal of Staff Development*, 1:2, pp. 7-56.

Orlich, D.C. (ed.)(1988). *A Handbook of Staff Development*. Dubuque, IA: Kendell/Hunt Publishing Co.

Rogers, V.R. (1976). "Why Teachers Canters in the U.S.?", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 406-412.

Rourke, A.E. and W.E. Davis (1981). "Staff Development and Organizational Development", in B. Dillon-Peterson (ed.), *Staff Development/Organizational Development*. Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Roy, P. (1987). "Consumers Guide to Selecting Staff Development Consultants", in *The Developer*, 2:1, pp. 8-9.

Salley, C. (1982). *Newark Teacher Canter Principal's Survey*. Newark, N.J.: Board of Education.

Saslaw, R.S. (1985). "Survey of Professional Organizations, States and Teacher Canters: Inservice Education and Professional Development". Paper Presented at the AACIE Annual Meeting, Denver, February 27, 1985 (ERIC No. ED 258931).

Schmuck, R. P.J. Runkel, J.H. Arends, and J.I. Arends (1977). *The Second Handbook of Organizational Development in Schools*. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.

Schultz, T.W. (1961). "Investment in Human Capital", in *American Economic Review*, 51, pp. 1-17.

Schultz, T.W. (1963). *The Economic Value of Education*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Shulman, L.S. (1987). "Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform", in *Harvard Education Review*, 57, pp. 1-23.

Slavin, R. (1980). "Cooperative Learning", in *Review of Educational Research*", 50, pp. 315-342.

Sparks, D. (1991). "Can Staff Development Make a Difference?", in *The Developer* (December 1990/January 1991), p. 9

Sprinthall, N.A. and L.T. (1983). "The Teacher as an Adult Learner: A Cognitive-Development View", in *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education - 1983*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Stallings, J. (1981). *What Research Has to Say to Administrators of Secondary Schools About Effective Teaching and Staff Development*. CA: Stallings Teaching and Learning Institute.

Stallings, J., M. Needles and N. Stayrook (1978). *How to Change the Process of Teaching Basic Reading Skills in Secondary Schools: Phase II and Phase III Final Report*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Steinaker, N. (1976). "Ten Years Hence: The Curriculum Development and Usage Canter", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 447-449.

Swiniarski, L. (1982). "A Teacher Canter, British Style: An Innovative Approach to Inservice Education", in *Childhood Education*, pp. 39-41.

Sykes, G. (1980). "What Are Teachers Canters For?", in *Action for Teacher Education*, 2:2, pp. 25-30.

Thompson, S.R. and F.H. Wood (1982). "Staff Development Guidelines Reaffirmed: A Response to Fonzi", in *Educational Leadership*, 40, pp. 34-35.

United States Government (1976). Public Law 94-482 Education Amendments Part B, Section 532. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Uris, A., and J.J. Tarrant (1983). *Career Stages: Surmounting the Crises of Working Life*. New York: Seaview/Putnam.

Vaughn, J. (1981). "Using Research on Teaching, Schools and Change to Help Staff Development Make a Difference", in *The Journal of Staff Development*, 4:2, pp. 6-24.

Wade, R.K. (1985). "What Makes a Difference in Inservice Teacher Education? A Meta-Analysis of Research", in *Educational Leadership*, 42:4, pp. 48-54.

Walker, R. (1980). "The Conduct of Educational Case Studies: Ethics, Theory and Procedure", in W.B. Dockerell and D. Hamilton (eds.), *Rethinking Educational Research*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Washington D.C. Teachers' Canter. *Final Evaluation Report* (1986-1986). Washington, D.C.: District of Columbia Public Schools (ERIC No. ED 279636).

Waxman, H.C. (1985). "Research on School-Based Improvement Programs: Its Implications for Curriculum Implementation", in *Education*, 105:3, pp. 318-322.

Weiler, P. (1983). "Blueprint for a Teacher Canter", in *Instructor* (September), pp. 146-148.

Wenz, A. (1987). "Teacher Canters: The New York State Experience", in *The Journal of Staff Development*, 82:2, pp. 4-8.

Wilsey, C. and J. Killion (1982). "Making Staff Development Programs Work", in *Educational Leadership*, 40:1, pp. 36-43.

Wood, F.H. and S.R. Thompson (1980). "Guidelines for Better Staff Development", in *Educational Leadership*, 37:5, pp. 374-378.

Wood, F.H., S.R. Thompson and F. Russell (1981). "Designing Effective Staff Development Programs", in B. Dillon-Peterson (ed.), *Staff Development/Organizational Development*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Yarger, S., K. Howey and B. Joyce (1980). *Inservice Teacher Education*. Palo Alto, CA: Booksend Laboratories.

Yeatts, E.H. (1976). "Staff Development: A Teacher Canter and Inservice Design", in *Educational Leadership*, 33, pp. 417-421.

Yin, R.K. (1984). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Zigarmi, D. and P. (1979). "The Teacher Canter: Threat or Promise for Principals", in *Elementary Principal*, 58:4, pp. 52-56.