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## Definition of teacher professional development pdf

H. Borko, ... K. Koellner, of the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010Teacher Professional Development (PD) has been in high demand for the past decade, and the design and dissemination of new PD models has been the driving force for discussion among educators around the world. Formerly called teachers in service training, the preferred label of researchers and practitioners is now teacher professional development. In this article, we consider the difference between in-service training and professional development, and move on to discuss the current literature on features of high quality PD. We also provide examples of programs that illustrate these features and consider the emerging use of new technologies to improve PD opportunities.E. Bernhardt, DJ Tedick, in the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010Teacher development has become more centralized over the years. In the 1990s, the growth of National Language Centers and university language centers has provided a dynamic and a research-based focus on language learning and teaching that did not exist in previous decades. In the United States, a network of foreign language resource centers provides intensive workshop opportunities for teachers as well as for material development and curriculum development assistance. In Canada, the Modern Language Centre has played an important role in promoting bilingual language policy and conducting research on different instructional models for the development of bilingualism. In the European Union, a significant multinational effort runs in parallel. It contains the important dimension of accrediting language programmes across several national citizens. The National Centre for Languages in the UK is an example that is aspirational by the Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association in Australia. Similarly, individual universities have tended to centralize their language programs, making professional development and enrolment play more significant roles in the management of major language programs. Mike Askew, Hamsa Venkat, in Understanding Emotions in Mathematical Thinking and Learning, 2017Much work on teacher development focuses, rightly, on the intellectual, on the cognitive, knowledge-based side of mathematics teaching. But just as Zembylas (2004) has argued when it comes to science teachers that emotions play an important role in the character of a teacher's self-esteem (against teaching), so we also argue that primary mathematics teachers' feelings toward discipline must be regarded as inherent to professional development. This is particularly important in the context of South Africa, where teachers, both thanks to reports of international comparisons and to the results of national tests, are constantly reminded of how poorly their pupils are performing. Given the limitations identified in students' levels of achievement in mathematics in South African primary schools, and the proof of the need to improve teachers' mathematical content, and pedagogical content, knowledge (Carney & Chisholm, 2008; Taylor & Taylor, 2013) it is tempting to use the precious time that is made available for professional development to focus on knowledge and cognitive projects. These elements have certainly been critical and important in our work, but broader evidence in the South African context has noted that in addition to questions about what teachers are unable to (or cannot) do, there is also evidence of a more emotional reluctance, and perhaps even rejection, relating to certain aspects of teaching (they will not do) (NEEDU, 2013, pp. 20–30). In our work, therefore, we include explicit attention to the emotional aspects of engaging in mathematics. As part of the WMCP project, we built in a series of workshops—I hate Maths (HM)—with the deliberate intention of foregrounding the emotional aspects of engaging with mathematics. Emotional engagement with mathematics, for us, involves tangles, and tangles in turn, requiring a rejection of more dualistic views of emotions—where emotions are separate from the rational knowing of mathematics. Taken as separate, emotions can affect the knowledge, but they need to be addressed and handled in ways that keep emotions separate from the real work to come to know, because emotions are not seen as contributing to the work of coming to know; they only act in ways that inhibit or support it. This notion plays out popularly in the oft-expressed desire of teachers to find ways to make math fun, ways that are usually realized by wrapping the (supposedly) unpleasant pills of mathematics inside any variant of a spoonful of sugar that makes it more appealing, and perhaps even hides the fact that mathematics is worked on at all. Hiding mathematics, however, will not change participants' emotional relationships with discipline because negativity is largely assumed in this type of response. Harré's (1986) social building surface moves to emotions in the road based on the resolutions of the two earlier dichotomies discussed: knower/knowledge, individual/sociocultural. For Harré, emotions are culturally and socially determined, through the various discourses that groups use to talk about emotions—a position that suggests that if these discourses can change over time and place, so too can the associated feelings. This constructionist's view of emotions points to a double signification. Firstly, there is an improvisational aspect to emotions, in that they arise from interpretations of situations. Just like a Wittgensteinian view of discourse (Wittgenstein, 1958) speaking positions that work within specific language games—that word achieve meaning through their use—also a social constructionist's view of emotions posits emotions that arise by participating in a culture of emotional play. Secondly, emotions are not simply generically that is, they are not only responses from a physical body placed outside the social and cultural, physical, social, and cultural are intertwined. An implication of a constructionist stance on emotion is that some emotions dedicate more significance than others within specific cultures, by being considered acceptable when publicly articulated. When it comes to maths, for example, it is common in some cultures (e.g. in South Africa and the UK), for primary teachers to talk about how they have never liked mathematics, which helps to establish and maintain the perception that dismissing mathematics is normal. Emotions are thus as much a part of the local culture as they are the property of individuals. Griffith (1998) identifies two models for the social construction of emotions: the social concept and the social role. The social concept model (Solomon, 2003) argues that manifesting a feeling depends on making judgments about situations, and the emotional categories in which situations are classified are culturally determined. So while a fear of snakes can be seen as an emotional reaction to a natural object, fear of mathematics is an emotional reaction to a cultural object. This is exemplified in adults' responses to mathematics. Many adults claim that they are not good (which is as much an emotional reaction as a cognitive claim) to mathematics but when pressed reveals a significant degree of mathematical competence. When this skill is pointed them out, they will argue that what they can do is not real mathematics, that real mathematics are all the things they can't do. It is not mathematics itself that is addressed here, but the socially constructed categories of my mathematics and real mathematics. Armon-Jones states that emotions are made up of non-natural attitudes, these are acquired in, and explained by reference to, especially sociocultural contexts... such attitudes and their external referents are either irreducibly, or substantially sociocultural in nature (Armon-Jones, 1986, 36–37). While the social conceptual theory of emotions deals with the construction of categories of events that evoke emotions, the social role theory goes beyond examining how categories of events evoke emotions, and it theorizes how events set up manifests emotions. Averill (1980, p. 312) points out that social construction workers who take up the social role argue that emotions arise as a result of transient social roles that include an individual's assessment of the situation, which is interpreted as a passion rather than an act. So while a social role is a culturally ordained normed behavior pattern, such as mother or boss, a transient social role is addressed and adopted on an intermittent basis within specific social situations—such as a strict teacher or kind stranger. Averill claims that, for example, being loving or being afraid are roles that are addressed in particular roles that reflect a cultural ascribing of what is acceptable or appropriate in that situation. Rather than love or fear naturally or spontaneously occurs, with the simultaneous assumption that such feelings can thus not be easily changed, according to Averill, emotions can be assumed, can be acted out, with an emotional reaction arising from the transient social roles we take on. If a social role is taken on often enough, then this becomes a habit of acting-out emotions that in turn result in the sense that emotions originate that are internal and individual, rather than social. Over time, individuals do not consciously produce an emotional reaction, but the public provides amplification for specific responses. From this position, encouraging teachers to take on a different social role over their relationship to mathematics can support them adopting another emotional response to discipline: over time, by acting in accordance with these new social role expectations, the production of changing emotions becomes relatively automatic.R. Fessler, E. Rice, in the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010The base of knowledge on teacher development is rooted in a more general literature that addresses the stages of human development. The whole notion that teachers go through a certain number of stages can actually be traced to Erikson's (1959) writings at the adult stages of development. Erikson's work on identity development also gave rise to innovative works on the development of cognitive complexity and moral development. Frances Fuller was the first to apply a similar model for teachers. Fuller (1969) linked categories of problems to phases of teachers' careers, from early concern for self to concerns about mastering teaching, to possible concerns about the impact of one's practice on students. Fuller's theories led to a model of personal teacher training designed to match the phases experienced by teachers, introducing the idea that professional development must be differentiated according to the teacher's needs. While the earliest models of teacher career stages built on the work of Fuller, they generally derived their categories from common-sense observations and reflections on the careers of teachers (Unruh and Turner, 1970; Gregorc, 1973; Katz, 1972). These models, while espousing slightly different sets of stages, all emphasized preservice, induction and maturity. While Gregorc and Katz each offered a fourth stage, the general model was still one where the beginning teacher moves through one or two steps to become a mature, fully functioning professional. All of these models were consistent with more general beliefs about how people evolved through careers: they are educated, they go about a first introduction/learning period at work, and finally they do their job. Little attention was paid to individual differences or variations in teachers' careers, and there were analysis of environmental factors that may affect career development. Nevertheless, these descriptive models provided an important basis for further research, and they helped focus attention on the unique professional development needs of preservice and new teachers. In a series of studies at Ohio State University in the United States, Kevin Ryan, along with Flora, Burden, Newman, and Patterson, began investigating the issue of the careers of teachers as a whole (Ryan et al., 1979). Using personal interviews with teachers, these studies looked at freshmen, teachers with 4–20 years of experience, teachers with 20–30 years of experience and retired teachers. The researchers documented teachers' changing concerns and implications for professional development, and showed how experienced teachers' needs changed from technical skills to larger issues such as how to teach creatively. However, they still presented teacher development as a static and one-way process, with mature teachers treated as a homogeneous group. The latter work of Burden (1982), while valuable for its use of a data-driven approach, continued to share many of the characteristics of former theorists. Given that his focus in Ohio State studies was on teachers with 4–20 years of experience, it is interesting that Burden's proposed stages of survival, adjustment and maturity were very similar to the schedules of Unruh and Turner or Katz. A major limitation that Burden shared with previous writers was his concentration on the early years of teacher development, positing a mature or fully functioning teacher of the fourth or fifth year of a teacher's career. He, like many former theorists, had little to say about differentiated teacher development after the early years. Overall, however, Ohio State studies did bring the necessary changes to the conceptualizations of teacher career stages. The focus on research, along with the description of individual differentiation within career phases and a sophisticated analysis of these individual differences, expanded widely the descriptive knowledge of teacher careers. However, these studies still did not provide a conceptual framework for thinking about teachers' careers other than as a linear model, and they paid little attention to either external or personal environmental factors that could differentially affect the careers of individual teachers. Throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s, several researchers began to propose more complex, multidimensional analyses of teacher career stages. The two notable characteristics shared by these approaches were a dynamic, nonlinear approach to teacher development and a focus on the role that different environmental factors played in the specific development paths taken by a particular teacher. Huberman (1969) introduced the concept of career paths that describe a range of paths, or options, that arise during teachers' careers. His themes/phases were derived interviews with women and a more general population, resulting in documentation of specific pathways for different groups. In his generic model, teachers begin with concerns about survival and discovery and move into a period of stabilization, followed by multiple paths that differ based on their experiences and responses to their changing environment. He also suggested that professional development must respond to these differentiated experiences and trajectories. Another nonlinear approach arose in the early work on the Teacher Career Cycle Model (Burke et al., 1984). These researchers observed teachers' career paths through direct observations, teacher interviews, case studies, and literature reviews to develop a model that presented a social-orientation system to teacher career stages. At its most fully developed (Fessler and Christensen, 1992), teacher Career Cycle Model emphasized eight phases: preservice, induction, building skills, enthusiastic/growing, career frustration, career stability, career wind-down, and career exit. However, individual teachers' paths through these stages were uniquely influenced by both organisational and personal environmental factors. Organizational factors included functions like school regulations, leadership style leaders, the atmosphere of public trust (or a lack of it), societal expectations, and the role of professional organizations and unions. Personal factors included considerations such as the teacher's family life, positive events or crises in the teacher's life, individual dispositions, outside interests, and the teacher's career. What distinguishes this approach from previous models was that it postulated a dynamic ebb and flow, with teachers moving in and out of stages in response to influences from both the personal and organizational environmental dimensions. While these different methods have served as useful methods of analysis for practitioners and researchers for several decades, recent dramatic environmental changes require a reassessment of career stages and their implications for professional development teachers.A. Murata, in the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), the 2010Lesson study is a form of teacher professional development that originated in Japan. This article provides an overview of the lesson study with its structure, variety and history and reviews emerging lesson study research literature to explicate models of learning with lesson study as well as to identify future research agendas. Teachers learn with lesson studies by developing knowledge for teaching, establishing professional communities, and producing teaching resources. The challenges that teachers face with lesson studies in new cultures should be considered as learning opportunities through which teachers develop the necessary research skills, and it will help us better understand teacher learning and existing teaching systems. M Sato, C. Rogers, in International of Education (Third edition), 2010In many ways, perceptions of teacher development based on theories of reasoning and reflective practices differ from each other; nevertheless, their close association with the practical nature of teachers' work ties them together in this discussion and in the very work associated with case methods. Reasoning can be seen as a rational process of planned measures. Practical activities, such as teaching, often require action on the ground without the luxury of première. The Aristotelian concept of pronesis, often translated as practical reasoning or practical wisdom (Dunne, 1993), not only contains the action derived from the idea, but also suggests that one may come to know what one thinks by taking action. The knowledge of the practitioner is bound in the act and can be further articulated or made explicit through reflection on this action. Schön (1987) similarly described knowledge-in-action as spontaneous and subtle, a taken-for-granted type of knowing. Through reflection-in-action, one can make adjustments and even perform on-site experiments or engage in a pattern of investigation (p. 27) that allows one to adapt actions to the tasks of the situation. Reflection-on-practice enables post-analysis of the situation and a review of one's results, with the potential to evaluate the effectiveness and process of their choices. Using a framework centered on reasoning to examine the potential results of case methods is less concerned with knowledge structures and cognitive processes of transmission and places more emphasis on addressing the complexity of practice through actions, including the moral means and ending with one's choice. Harrington (1995) explored the development of pre-service teacher reasoning by examining the student's written analyses of dilemma-based cases. She analysed the responses according to the following framework for making reasoned decisions: problem identification, awareness of alternative perspectives, motivation of solution, consideration of consequences and reflectivity. She argued that case methods have the potential to prepare teachers to make reasoned decisions—decisions that incorporate and balance theoretical, normative, practical, and consequential—promoting the development of critically reflective practitioners (p. 212). Much has been written about the use of case methods to promote reflective practices and increase the reflective capacity of novice teachers. However, many have criticised the overused and underdefined concept of reflection in teacher training practice and research. Harrington et al. (1996) argued that preparing teachers who are reflective requires a clear idea of what reflection is and means to promote its development (p. 25). In their study of 21 students studying to be primary school teachers, they analyzed a set of case analyses conducted by students to determine whether students' case analyses be used to understand specific aspects of reflection exhibited by the pre-service teachers. Supported by Dewey's (1933) definition of reflection, the authors examined the nature of open-mindedness (the ability to understand and take multiple perspectives), wholeheartedness (the ability to identify and address the limitations of one's assumptions about authority and understand the complexity and ambiguity of issues), and responsibility (the ability to consider the moral and ethical consequences of choice and action on oneself, others, and the broader society). The authors concluded that student case analyses demonstrated evidence of these multiple dimensions of reflection.J. Imants, K. van Veen, in the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010Against the background to increased attention in teacher professional development programs to place learning learning in the workplace, given an overview of what is known in general and in educational workplace learning literature on characteristics and conditions in the workplace. Although learning in the workplace potentially has several advantages, the six workplace factors identified for learning to take place, also show the complexity of teacher training in the workplace and several potential problems. It is argued that not all learning at work is good, and a balance is necessary between individual and organizational learning, and off-site and on-site learning.P. Ponte, of the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010The results described above present a general picture of research actions as a tool for teachers' professional development. However, it is necessary to make contributions for differences between action research carried out by student teachers and experienced teachers' action research. These differences can be clarified by looking at how the five strategies that teachers learn when doing action research, as previously stated, need to be changed when applied to the teaching profession. Regarding the interaction between application and construction of professional knowledge, students are not empty tablecloths when they embark on a course; also, what they bring with them is neither professional nor systematized knowledge based on professional experience. Basic teacher training programmes cannot therefore start using professional skills as a basis for progress to develop new knowledge. Students do not have this knowledge when they start the course; they have to build it up gradually. This can be done by making connections with what they have, namely general ideas about what teaching means based on their own experiences. In this sense, there seems to be a fundamental difference between action research by the teaching profession and experienced teachers. This also applies to the interaction between academic and professional knowledge. For both groups of teachers, it is a question of how the component refers to the action component, however, student teachers will ask different kinds of questions from experienced teachers. When it comes to the interaction between pedagogical knowledge and methodological knowledge, students come to the course with the expectation that they will learn to teach and what their lessons should contain (pedagogical knowledge). Only during the course will they learn to see and use action research as a way to constantly develop their practice (methodological knowledge, see above). This focus on lifelong learning will be less evident among the teaching profession than among experienced teachers. In terms of the interaction between individual knowledge and collective knowledge, students cannot be expected to have experience of teaching in an institutional, collective environment, let alone sharing knowledge in such an environment, as the ideal research model has envisaged. The challenge for the course is therefore to teach students to link the action research they learn about on the course with the situation at the school where they conduct that research. Finally, in terms of the interplay between ideological, instrumental, and empirical knowledge, student teachers can be expected to concentrate on the instrumental field of knowledge (What do I have to do?) and not yet in the ideological field of knowledge (Why do I want to do it?), Or the empirical field of knowledge (Is what I do consistent with the reasons why I do it?). The challenge for the course here is to stimulate the students to use their research to develop knowledge in the different areas and to connect the different areas together. Teacher training courses must therefore take into account the specific needs of student teachers, and the research teams (Ponte et al., 2004) suggest that the courses are most successful in this as they slowly build up to grooming students to conduct a full-fledged action research project. This means that reflective research-based activities should run right through all parts of the curriculum from the beginning, but that a full-fledged action research project will only be appropriate at the end of the course. Action research is increasingly being carried out in projects where teacher educators, mentors or teachers at school and student teachers collaborate (Campbell et al., 2007). Teachers who attend a 1-year teacher training after a first degree in a given subject will only be able to engage in a full-fledged action research project as part of continuing education activities after completion of initial training. Close cooperation between initial and post-initiating activities is therefore crucial. Finally, it is possible to conclude that learning to do action research can be classed as a form of professional socialization, that is, the gradual internalization of a set of professional norms and values. This socialisation will not be achieved by implementing a blocks of action research within a curriculum based on traditional principles. Rather, it is a total concept of professionalism and professional development of teachers that permeates the entire curriculum.H. Tillema, in the International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010Peer assessment is a process by which students rate their peers, and is as such of great relevance to teacher development. This means joint cooperation between those involved in the learning process in the evaluation of their own learning. In an arrangement for peer evaluation assessment, students consider the amount, level, value, quality or success of learning from peers of similar status (Topping, 1998). Peer assessment is not only a direct assessment of what has been learned (results) but also of how learning (process). The presumed positive effects of peer assessment are not only different, but also ineffective (Falchikov, 2005). Peer assessment (and its related format: co-assessment, that is, mentor/assesse) is said to help students develop meta-cognitive skills, for example, communication skills, self-evaluation skills, observation skills, and self-criticism (Havner and McDowell, 2007); and this can more easily lead to acceptance of feedback. However, presumed effects of peer assessment for learning vary considerably. The results range from better attendance, learning gains, impact on the ability to self-assess, develop critical thinking, to no effects at all (Topping, 1998). Peer assessment is essentially a social assessment process where feedback is given to and received by others, which aims to improve the learner's performance. Therefore, interpersonal and interactional processes play an important role, such as psychological security, diversity of values between peers, interdependence in social relationships, and trust in the other as an assessor. Framing functions in the arrangement of peer review can condition how peers step into the process of assessing each other's learning outcomes. A first set of framing functions has to do with specifying contextual arrangements of the assessment, that is: 1.the why, that is, reasons for utilizing peer review;2.the what, that is, goals, teaching areas, and products /results;3.when, that is, time;4.where, that is, location; and5.how, that is, it is complementary to grading or required; mandatory or voluntary? A second set of framing features consider the interaction between peers in the assessment; because of the interpersonal factors mentioned, the assessment may vary in terms of who assesses who. This direction of peer assessment can be a way (from assessor to assessed), mutual (peers assess each other, e.g., in pairs) and mutual (all peers assess all peers). In addition, peer assessment may differ in the level of integrity (anonymous, and public) and the nature of contact between assessors and assessors (at a distance or face-to-face). A third set of framing functions refers to the by the peer group that provides feedback – it may differ in ability or not; its constellation may vary or not. In teacher education, student teachers often work and practice together during training teaching/mentoring. Even in professional development programs, teachers work together as colleagues and share learning experiences. This approach provides a platform for peer review where students assess each other as critical friends (Edwards et al., 2002).K.D. Brown, G.N. Carnes, in International Encyclopedia of Education (Third Edition), 2010In-service education, also called in-service training (IST), in-service training, education, and practice (ISTEP), professional teacher development (TPD), and education, continuing to the professional development of teachers who are already in the classroom. Governments around the world rely on in-service training to improve and update the skills of current teachers and to introduce and implement education reforms. For example, in the 1990s, state governments in countries including Vietnam and Namibia, have relied on it to promote child-centered curriculum reform. ISTEP sessions for elementary teachers range in length from a few hours (e.g., Estonia) to at least one month (e.g. Mongolia before voucher reform) during the school year or breaks; IST may be mandatory, a requirement for continued certification, or optional. The funding and administration of ISTEP varies worldwide. In industrialized countries like New Zealand, groups associated with national or teacher-training programs, such as the advice service, operate in-support teacher training, whereas in many developing countries organizations based outside of the country, such as international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and bilateral and multilateral organizations dominate ISTEP. International organizations (e.g. UNESCO) have found existing in-service training programs to be inadequate and ineffective. Although participation in programs in service can be high, the transfer of the skills learned in these IST sessions and a significant change in teacher actions is limited by, at least, four factors: (1) a disjuncture between the assumed nature and the reality of classroom conditions; 2) the lack of follow-up support from skilled mentors. 3) the continued dominance and requirements for degrees, the role and content of which may be in line with the proposed reform. and (4) outdated teaching methods used in in-service sessions. Sessions.

