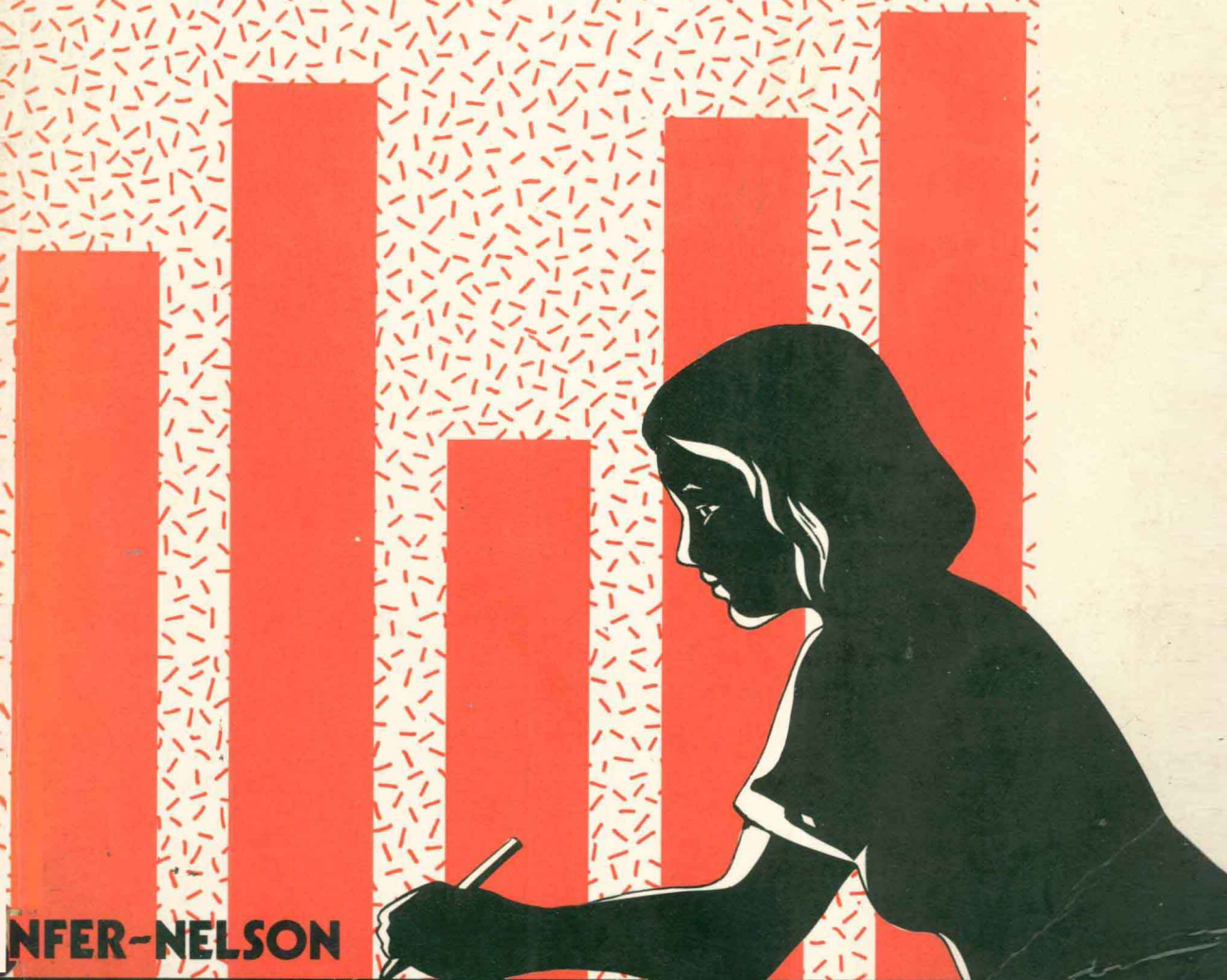


# **Self-evaluation**

## **A Primary Teacher's Guide**

**Janet R Moyles**



**NFER-NELSON**

# **Self-evaluation: A Primary Teacher's Guide**

**Janet R. Moyles**

**NFER-NELSON**

*Published by The NFER-NELSON Publishing Company Ltd.,  
Darville House, 2 Oxford Road East,  
Windsor, Berkshire SL4 1DF, England.*

*First published 1988  
© 1988, Janet R. Moyles*

*All rights reserved, including translation. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording or duplication in any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publishers. However, the user is free to reproduce by any method Appendix C: The model for self-evaluation without infringing copyright.*

*Printed by Dotesios Printers Limited, Bradford-on-Avon, Wiltshire*

*ISBN 0 7005 1180 6*

*Code 8298 02 1*

# **Self-evaluation: A Primary Teacher's Guide**

# Acknowledgements

I acknowledge with gratitude, the contribution of the many primary heads and teachers who gave so much of their time and energy in helping to develop the model, despite all the difficulties of union action, new contracts and curriculum revision. Thanks are also due to the local education authorities involved for the opportunity to use the schools and facilities for distributing draft documents.

A number of other individuals have given valuable support, knowingly and otherwise, among them Ted Ross, Les Bell, Mavis Marvill, Margaret Massie, Alan Beck, Alan Peacock, Sheila Ball and Annie Webster. Many thanks also go to Brian, my husband, who patiently read drafts, corrected proofs and put up with all the general inconvenience caused by writing books and theses.

Finally, acknowledgement must be given to the contribution of my publishers for allowing me the opportunity to share this research with a wider audience of committed people.

*Janet R. Moyles*

# Introduction

As a primary school teacher or as one involved in primary education, you, the reader, must have asked yourself on frequent occasions: 'What have I achieved today? What have I really taught and the children actually learned? What are the most important aspects of my teaching? What are my main strengths and weaknesses? What gives me greatest job satisfaction?' And maybe: 'Why do I find this job so frustrating yet so enjoyable? How can I make a better job of what I do? Where should I be going now in the profession?'

It is quite likely that you have voiced your thoughts to other teaching colleagues and explored various answers and possibilities. You may have discussed your future prospects with the head or been on in-service courses to enhance your professional understanding and performance in the classroom. It is possible that, despite all your efforts, you still need help in making sense of and evaluating your role as a primary school teacher.

This is and should be the basis of teacher appraisal. The Department of Education and Science (DES) document 'Better Schools' (GB. DES, 1985) suggests 'all teachers need help in assessing their own professional performance and in building on their strengths and working on limitations identified'. The starting point must be the teacher herself\* embarking, at least initially, on some form of self-evaluation. But how are individuals to know, except intuitively, what it is they are evaluating and does this compare with other primary teachers opportunities for assessment of themselves?

There is an obvious need for a carefully conceived document, applicable right across the primary age range (three- to eleven-year-olds), by which teachers can compare their own personal and individual performances and yet which gives a cohesion to a range of such self-evaluations and a system of agreed principles on which this should operate. Such a document is the subject of this book and an integral part of it (see Appendix C).

The model presented here highlights all the many features identified as constituting 'the effective primary teacher'. It incorporates elements related to both teaching skills and processes and sets them firmly in the context of schools. Its development by a teacher, with teachers, for teachers has proved to be its greatest strength. As a criterion-referenced system it is capable of being used by a wide variety of different teachers within the three to eleven age range in many contexts. Simplicity in use has also proved to be an asset to busy teachers. Rather than sitting on the edge of an uncomfortable system, the model reflects and is a part of everyday classroom life and teachers have felt able to adopt its checklist format as an aide memoire to evaluating their role as primary teachers.

The model's main use, however, is as a self-evaluation document within a system of teacher appraisal. The reasons for the current pressure for systematized teacher appraisal lie within the notion of general accountability and demands for higher standards. The first chapter takes a brief look at the rise in demands for accountability within the education system and the consequent calls for teacher appraisal. Chapter 2 skims through some past and present research into what constitutes effective primary teaching and the consequences of this in attempting to develop any model for self-evaluation. The underlying rationale and principles of the model are given in Chapter 3, with some pointers as to the

\* Throughout the document the feminine gender is used *only* for ease of expression. Male colleagues can feel themselves well and truly involved!

advantages of this type of self-evaluation. Details on how to use the current model are set out in Chapter 4, which also suggests how the results might be interpreted. Chapter 5 deals with self-evaluation in the whole context of teacher appraisal and outlines ways in which individual teachers might benefit from involving colleagues and others. (Suggestions for activities to pursue with colleagues are contained in Appendix B.) The final section contains some speculative comments as to what is the likely future for teacher appraisal systems. A synopsis of the research from which the document evolved is the subject of Appendix A.

First, then, I turn to the general and current issues regarding teacher appraisal and explore the needs of all parties concerned in primary education. For as Millman (1981) emphasizes '... the evaluation of teachers is a serious business, for it goes on in the midst of life and concerns the well-being of people. A process like that is not trivial. It is worth our attention and worth doing well'.

# Contents

*Acknowledgements*

*Introduction*

<b>1</b>	<b>The ‘roots’ of appraisal</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>What is ‘effective’ teaching?</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>The development of the model</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Undertaking self-evaluation: the means and the ends</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Self-evaluation – the way forward</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Finale: drawing it all together</b>	<b>31</b>
	<i>References</i>	<b>34</b>
	<i>Selected bibliography and further reading</i>	<b>37</b>
	<i>Appendix A: Stages in formulating the model</i>	<b>41</b>
	<i>Appendix B: Activities to promote thinking regarding effective teaching and appraisal</i>	<b>44</b>
	<i>Appendix C: The model for self-evaluation – assessing the effectiveness of the primary school teacher</i>	<b>51</b>



# 1

## The 'roots' of appraisal

With public opinion of teachers at a relatively low level and political pressures high, morale has understandably fallen significantly over the past few years. A *Times Educational Supplement* (TES)/MORI poll just prior to the general election in 1987, reported two-thirds of all teachers to be concerned about low morale in schools. Despite this, most primary school teachers continue to pursue their escalating tasks with good humour and enthusiasm and thus provide a sound education for the children in their care.

It seems that discussions and negotiations on such a contentious educational issue as teacher appraisal, were considered only after the press had reported the whole matter in highly emotive terms. Salaries equated with performance and dismissal for ineffective teachers were but two of the suggestions which set all the alarm bells ringing in teachers' minds. Primary teachers owe it to the conscientious people they are, to tell the nation just what their job entails and how well they do it. They need the opportunity to set down definitive statements to justify their worth. Teachers need evidence as to where their effectiveness is marred or influenced by variables over which they have little control.

Currently, most teachers feel that they are already stretched to the limits in coping with their ever increasing curricular demands without any other 'unnecessary' impositions. Yet assessment, particularly a supported self-assessment of a primary teacher's role, could well aid teachers in their everyday efforts to secure a better education for children. In turn, it is likely to increase job satisfaction and, more importantly, give evidence to the outside world of the depth and complexity of the primary teaching role. Jackson (1979) sees this as no mean feat when he suggests

Class sessions, like bubbles, tend to be shortlived, and after a teaching session is finished, its residue, like that of a burst bubble, is almost invisible . . . we need to become more aware than we presently are of the fleeting and ephemeral quality of much of the teacher's work (p. 31).

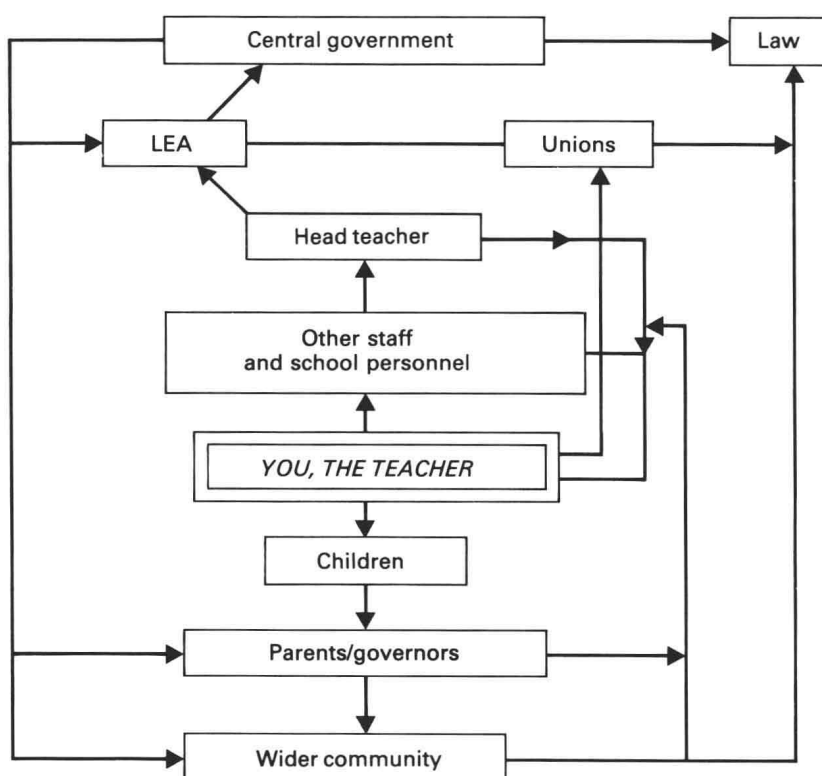
In clarifying expectations and detailing workload, one might reasonably expect heightened morale.

### The notion of accountability

Whatever the school or classroom situation, and however it appears, teachers are constantly observed and monitored by various people, colleagues, head teachers, advisers, parents, children – just as they themselves constantly monitor and observe. Teachers have long respected their role in the hierarchy of accountability, exemplified in Figure 1.1. The relationships between the teachers and the other parties to whom they are responsible for the education they provide the children in their care are clear. Whatever system of appraisal is adopted it must satisfy all parties – the government, the new

governing bodies, the public, the unions, individual teachers and, most importantly, the children. Whichever schools they find themselves in, children must have similar and equal opportunities to learn at their own pace, in a pleasant and enjoyable environment and be given every possible opportunity for development of their individual talents and potential.

**Figure 1.1: The web of accountability**



Parents, in all good faith, hand their children over to us and most have high expectations that their children's education will be superior to their own. Governors are elected who, in pursuance of their duties, must safeguard for the community at large the quality of education within their particular institution. It would be equally true to say that teachers owe it to their teaching and non-teaching colleagues to perform in such a way that the reputation of the school is enhanced: otherwise the poor performance of some is reflected in the reputation of many. Additionally, we all have a duty to the local education authority (LEA) and its elected representatives to provide the highest quality education to justify the financial outlay on salaries, buildings and resources. The LEA is in its turn accountable to the electorate and ultimately to the government. After all, when one considers that public expenditure on education amounts to as much as one-fifth of the gross domestic product, this is a reflection of the value attached to a system, the evaluation of which is a relatively difficult issue due to its pragmatic and temporal nature. It goes without saying that this is a heavy burden of responsibility for teachers and one for

which it seems they are rarely given credit or acknowledgement despite a majority who work conscientiously and unstintingly at their duties.

Simplistically, of course, accountability reverts ultimately to the individual teacher as a member of society and a tax and ratepayer – as good a reason as any to evaluate what one does! In other words, we owe it to ourselves to be effective in the role of primary teacher.

Perhaps a brief synopsis of the historical and social reasons for the accountability structure is needed in order to give teachers a greater understanding and a whole perspective on the current situation. The main features are now explored.

## Accountability in the early days of state education

From the inception of state education and the creation of an Education Department in 1856, political and public demands for accountability have been manifested in such schemes as the 'payment by result' system which attempted to assess teacher's performance in terms of pupil examination results in the three Rs and school attendance. The Cross Commission of 1886, recognized the need for modification and relaxation of this odious situation but stressed the need for greater facilities for the training of teachers in requisite skills. However, it was not until the publication of the Elementary Code in 1904 (the wording of which, incidentally, documents high ideals for teaching and learning at that time which still prevail today) that there was any explicit statement of objectives by which a teacher could be assessed. By this time, education was in the hands of local authorities though monitored by H.M. Inspectorate whose activities are well documented in school log books and whose visits were anticipated by teachers of the time with dread.

From the early part of this century, the traditions of the education service began to reflect the democratic nature of our society and various government legislatures have led, according to Green (1981)

to such diversity of devolved and delegated power, responsibility and training, that accountability in any formal . . . sense cannot exist. Rigidly defined roles and strict hierarchy with rules and regulations detailing procedures are needed for simple, tight accountability (p. 43).

Though the desirability for this type of process is questionable, some definition of 'good' teaching undoubtedly needs conceptualizing before assessment of teachers' performance is practicable. Little research into the constituents of effective teaching occurred in this country between the wars or immediately after the Second World War, although there was a plethora of such studies in the United States which influenced thinking in Britain. Similarly, the post-war period saw an influx of scientific management procedures and skills from the USA of which accountability in the hierarchy was of vital interest.

## The 1950s, 1960s and early 1970s

Psychometric testing methods, already widely employed during the 1950s and 1960s in commercial and industrial assessment procedures, were at this time imported into the field of education, vocational selection and evaluation. The thinking behind this strategy was that little in-service assessment of a teacher's performance was necessary if the person concerned had been adequately vetted before and during training. The inadequacies of such methods were, however, recognized relatively swiftly. This period rapidly developed into a 'boom' time for education, with money being virtually no object

and investment in schools and education being on a scale never before or since envisaged. The failure, however, of such vast expenditure to produce any real concrete evidence of improved educational standards and the sudden oil crisis of 1972 with its resultant economic slump, brought a new cry for accountability of the nation's schools and personnel. In addition, the Plowden Report of 1967 had created the requirement for a rethinking of educational needs and objectives and highlighted the desire for quality, efficiency and effectiveness in all areas of primary education, including its resourcing and staffing.

The ideals of the Plowden Report were never totally fulfilled as, by the mid 1970s, primary school rolls were falling, a factor which in itself created yet a new call for educational accountability. This was compounded yet further by the William Tyndale School 'scandal' (Auld, 1976) which drew public and government attention to the need for evaluation of the roles and functions of primary teachers.

### **Moving towards the present day**

James Callaghan's Ruskin Speech of 1976 and the Green Paper of 1977 both focused sharply upon the work of teachers and schools. Since that time education has increasingly been subjected to a scrutiny on a scale never before undertaken. The publication of HMI Reports on individual schools and general educational issues and the advent of assertive and prescriptive curriculum documents, has served to focus political and public attention on educational processes and products. The requirement on schools to produce an individual brochure for parents and others stating aims and objectives has also highlighted public, and in particular parents', awareness.

The emergence of more formal schemes for teacher appraisal can undoubtedly be traced, however, to the development, particularly in secondary schools, of school self-evaluation and curriculum review. Although basically aimed at appraisal of the institution, it was an inevitable development that individuals within schools would equally become the focus (see the documents produced by the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) in 1977 and by Oxfordshire in 1979). Further political endorsement of this came in March, 1983, with the publication of the White Paper 'Teaching Quality', in which the government advocated the formal assessment of teacher performance. The then Secretary of State for Education stressed the need for formal appraisal of teachers in his speech at Sheffield in 1984, saying

I believe that every LEA should have accurate information about each of its teachers, vital for career development and that information should involve an assessment of performance based on classroom visiting and appraisal of pupils' work and the teacher's contribution to the life of the school. I welcome the willingness of LEAs and teachers to grapple seriously with these difficult problems.

Hot on its heels followed a number of documents the most recent of which, 'Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal' (GB. DES, 1985) concludes that teacher appraisal seems 'to bring about some improvement both in teacher's understanding of what is expected of them and in how others see their performance in the classroom and more widely' (p. 43). The core curriculum and national testing of children's competence in the basic skills highlight even further the need for teachers to be aware of their own classroom skills and their effectiveness in promoting children's learning.

This succession of government publications, culminating in the 1986 and 1987 Education Acts and their many implications, have attempted implicitly and explicitly to pursue the question of accountability by increasing the participation of governors and parents in school organization and administration. It is evident that, while constituting something of

a threat at present, appraisal at both local and national level is imminent and primary teachers must prepare themselves for the inevitable.

In this climate it makes sense to consider by what means appraisal can occur, who should be involved and what will be the effects of such appraisal, rather than considering whether appraisal should take place. For as Sockett (1982) suggests 'If . . . the profession was able to articulate what it regarded as the positive standards of good teaching, it would itself be providing a measure of accountability' (p. 18).

### **Accountability and the role of the primary school teacher**

As has been indicated, it is quite difficult to define exactly what we are accountable for: the 'products' of primary teaching can only play a little part in its evaluation as the younger the children, the more dilemmas in trying to produce formal outcomes of their learning. Any test, such as those integral within the national curriculum at ages seven and eleven, can demonstrate only a relatively insignificant part of any learning. Yet, as clearly indicated above, we as teachers must be accountable for aspects of our work which interest the various parties already identified.

In truth, many teachers actually welcome the opportunity to promote their work to others: much time and energy has been devoted by them all, whether initially Certificate of Education trained, graduates or post-graduates. There is an eagerness on the part of an increasing number of teachers to pursue their initial qualification into further professional study, yet primary teachers do not always market their skills to best effect. Probably the main reason for this is the subjective nature of the work they do. Much of primary teaching needs to be 'appropriate' to particular and often individual children. Yet what is appropriate to one child does not hold good for others. As HMI assert in 'Primary Schools: Some Aspects of Good Practice' (GB. DES, 1987)

The high quality of teaching was the strongest feature common to all the examples in this publication. As might be expected there were variations in the teaching styles reflecting the needs of the situation and the personality of individual teachers (p. 33).

There has to be some means of defining and justifying the skills which lead to and stem from this high quality teaching and ultimate learning. Being accountable for what one actually does automatically follows.

So what is it that primary teachers actually *do* in order to facilitate children's learning? What should they assess themselves against? If teachers can define what they feel the job of primary teaching is all about, then others can equally evaluate their relative skills. Yet how does one assess one's impact on children in these formative years of education? Teaching is a very positive job, yet who can assess the character building elements of teaching? Why does one teacher seem better able to promote and sustain learning than another? It would be a very brave soul indeed who tried to answer all these imponderable questions!

Watching primary teachers 'in action' one is rapidly made aware of all the many skills and talents they do use. Listing them is less easy! In 1972, Duthie reported on a remit he had been given by the Scottish Education Authority to make 'an objective analysis . . . of the educational activities on which primary teachers spend their time' (p. 87). He and his team found themselves 'overwhelmed by the complexity of the situation' and reported little agreement as to what they had really seen! Fifteen or so years later, one feels he might have found the situation even more impossible!

There is obviously a need to explore past and present attempts at identifying the concept of 'effectiveness' in relation to teaching primary children in an attempt to consider the content of the present model. The next chapter explores the notion of teacher effectiveness and the contribution research findings have made to the present model.

# 2

## What is 'effective teaching'?

The epitomy of effective teaching would appear to be the occasions during which what the teacher teaches is what the child learns – and we all know the impossibility of that even if we recognize its merits! But how may we go as far as possible in attempting to achieve this goal?

It is clear that any attempt to produce criteria by which teachers may be assessed is fraught with difficulties. Yet without such written evidence of their role it is impossible to impress on others, particularly parents, governors and the wider community, that is those not directly involved in teaching themselves, the complexities of the primary classroom and interactions with children across the three to eleven age range. Arguably, what happens in classrooms catering for primary age children has often to be viewed in an holistic way rather than as a set of analysable individual components. For example, the child will be using overlapping skills with handwriting when painting and reading. Yet any model of teaching assumes at least some individual elements. Cognitive aspects of learning withstand evaluation, to a certain extent, but much of primary teaching is in the affective domain and defies formal assessment.

Barrow (1984) is rightly concerned that many good things that teachers attempt to do with and for their children are not capable of measurement or descriptive evaluation except 'by arbitrarily reducing "quality" to a set of more or less directly observable behaviours that as likely as not have no bearing on the question' (pp. 253 and 268). He also argues that the freedom of teachers would be improperly limited if they had to see their job in terms of fulfilling behavioural objectives decided by others (p. 176). What it seems is needed is a written indication of a 'vision' of teaching that is above anecdote but which encourages teachers to view their role eclectically and, as importantly, methodically. It must also concentrate on significant features of teaching rather than on the finest details.

If assessment procedures are to be worthwhile to everyone concerned, and not just another burden on limited time and resources, it is vital that we, the primary section of the teaching profession, decide for ourselves just what does indicate areas of 'effective teaching'. Of one thing we can be certain, if we do not do it ourselves we shall soon have methods imposed upon us which may not be to our liking.

Because of the enormous complexities of primary classroom life, and the obvious difficulty for an external evaluator to observe and understand all aspects, any model of effective teaching must be capable of use as a self-evaluation document – at least in the first instance. To be called a true 'model', it must also have an underlying rationale based on current and previous research findings. A brief synopsis of this research will reveal its usefulness in terms of the present model.

## Research into effective teaching

In Britain, prior to the publication of the Plowden Report (1967), the question of effective teaching had not occupied a major place in research other than in areas related to teacher training. The implied notion was that teachers, in their initial training, 'absorbed' effectiveness skills and retained them indefinitely! Conversely in the USA research on teacher effectiveness has been conducted for nearly 70 years. This existing wave of research at all levels of schooling was escalated during the 1970s with the advancing need for accountability. The idea of 'minimum competencies', according to Nuttall (1982), has become a very important notion in the USA with no fewer than 38 states having them 'enshrined in law' (p. 15). It would appear helpful to look first at the American literature before turning to British studies.

## Research in the USA – the early days

According to Dunkin and Biddle (1974), more than 10,000 publications on teacher effectiveness have been identified prior to 1963. Even by American standards, this must represent an awful lot of thinking on the subject. The accumulated literature is so overwhelming that even bibliographies (for example, Domas and Tiedeman, 1950, Morsh and Wilder, 1954, Barr, 1961, and Powell and Beard, 1984) have become unmanageable. Suffice it to say that the history of research into teacher effectiveness reflects a gradual evolution of perceptions of 'effectiveness'. The main bulk of earlier studies considered effective teaching to be related to such things as teachers' personality traits and the particular characteristics possessed by the teacher. The use of rating scales (teachers and pupils), personality measurement, checklists, field notes, questionnaires, theoretically based observations and interviews was a natural consequence of this thinking. American research was also fond of correlational techniques where one factor of teacher effectiveness, that is a measure of personality, was assessed against, for example, pupil attainment on a test. Readers will no doubt balk at this suggestion particularly at present!

The emphasis on predictive and productive features has been criticized by many writers, for example Kyriacou and Newson (1982). They feel strongly that these early studies did little to advance knowledge of teacher effectiveness, mainly because they dealt insufficiently with the process and context of teaching and learning. Schmid (1961) sees the lack of success resting on the fact that

Teaching is a complex activity carried on in a complex environment – the school. It is directed by complex organisms – human beings. The recipients of the teaching activity are complex individuals, students, whose characteristics are undergoing continuous and complex change . . . It is difficult to define teaching effectiveness because the elements in effective teaching apparently are not only legion but also are intricately interwoven (p. 23).

Each of these earlier studies, dating from just after the First World War until the late 1960s, is characterized by the researchers' enormous difficulties, particularly in elementary schools, in identifying any real objective measures of teacher effectiveness. Many checklists were devised and refined but the studies have all failed to reach a finite consensus as to what constitutes good, effective teaching.

Many writers have been most critical in their reviews of these earlier studies. However, their usefulness cannot be disputed in terms of the fact that clearly research had to begin somewhere. A lot of ground was covered in identifying measures and methods which were *not* useful in assessing teacher effectiveness! What these studies did was to clarify and highlight the need for systematic observation of specific teacher and pupil behaviours and interactions in the context of the classroom and the school.



## Research in the USA – 1960 onwards

This multiplicity of studies, only hinted at above, has gradually moved from research into relatively limited domains of teacher effectiveness to the study of teaching and learning situations. Gage (1963) and Smith (1960) both feel strongly that looking at effective learning is examining a totally different phenomena from effective teaching. They maintain that conceptually the two are independent. Thyne (1963), however, feels that to teach effectively teachers must have insight into the nature of learning and how to make learning take place (pp. 14–15). This point was taken up by Denham and Lieberman in 1980. They go further by suggesting that teachers 'must know the cognitive skills and level of performance of individual students' (p. 24).

Evertson and Brophy (1974) studied teachers of second and third grade elementary pupils. They found that the most highly effective teachers, with all socio-economic levels of children, were those who

- 1 were organizationally sound;
- 2 were extremely flexible;
- 3 were constantly assessing their own and the children's learning;
- 4 were geared to problem solving techniques for themselves and their pupils;
- 5 had high expectations;
- 6 took 'personal responsibility for the learning of their students' (p. 39).

Similar theories were developed by Gagne as early as 1970. He concluded that the most effective teachers were those who gave close attention to individual differences and needs of learners. Flanders (1970) developed an interaction analysis system in an attempt to discover which situations made for effective teaching and learning and pioneered many studies in this area. However, the value of his system lay in its pioneering qualities rather than in any results achieved: it was quickly recognized that classroom interactions are too complex for any one method of study.

McKenna (1981) views evaluation of teacher effectiveness as being based very soundly on materialistic principles. He names 12 which include in-service training (INSET) opportunities, time and number of students, marking conditions, resources, and community characteristics (p. 23). He adds, however,

evaluation must embrace what teaching and teachers do to make the years spent in schooling . . . as full-living, wholesome, democratic and fulfilling as can be conceived, to a substantial degree independent of cognitive learning outcomes (p. 24).

Doyle (1983) identified 19 'important instructor characteristics' (p. 36) which appear to include all those previously mentioned with variations on the original theme! What is clear is that no one writer is clear about what actually constitutes an effective teacher!

Many of the above writers are sceptical about whether teacher effectiveness can ever be successfully defined and, in consequence, evaluated. Others, including Ryans (1972) and Millman (1981), believe that teacher effectiveness *can* be defined and evaluated given certain prevailing conditions.

Despite the apparent contradiction between these groups of writers, there are points which emerge over which they all seem to agree, namely :

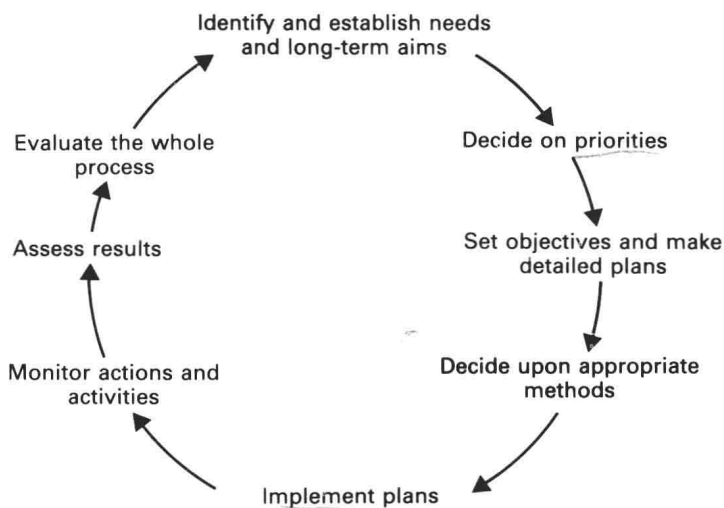
- 1 Evaluation must be linked to improved performance.
- 2 The effective teacher cannot be judged by correlation with pupil achievement.
- 3 A teacher's duties and responsibilities must be clearly defined in school and on an individual job description basis and, as some writers suggest, on a teaching profession level, like medicine and law (e.g. Iwaniki, 1981).
- 4 Teachers must play a part in any evaluation (perhaps through staff appraisal interview situations) but preferably within a whole school evaluation built into the process of assessing individuals.



- 5 Assessment must be part of an on-going process because of its cyclical nature explained by Figure 2.1.
- 6 Self-evaluation probably holds the key to the future assessment of teachers.
- 7 Self-evaluation requires that teachers possess a high degree of confidence in their abilities and, therefore, flexibility. The influence for this is likely to come from initial training, in-service training and, most importantly, their own self-image. This, of course, is influenced by the government's and public's value judgements of teachers.

McNeil (1981) summarizes this last aspect in suggesting that parents and the public want 'the establishment of authority, an authority of values, standards and guiding purpose', while teachers 'want to feel their worth as teachers is unconditional' (p. 279). We can only wholeheartedly agree with this opinion.

**Figure 2.1: Cyclical nature of evaluation**



## Research in Great Britain

Much of what has been said about American research, content and methods, has been reflected in British studies only from a later period. Among the first major British studies was that conducted by Morrison and McIntyre in 1969. They found that all classroom observation of teacher effectiveness suffered from being unable to take in all the variables of the situation at any one time. It, therefore, did not do justice to the complexity of either tasks or relationships. They saw the greatest difficulties in assessment as undoubtedly lying in 'the areas of social attitudes, moral development, social maturity and personality traits' (p. 20). Morrison and McIntyre even hinted at self-evaluation, saying

improved motivation also depends on teachers being willing to examine their own techniques and principles of instruction in the light of information already available and being prepared to modify their behaviour (p. 150).

The Weaver Report (1970) saw monitoring of standards and enhancement of professionalism as attainable through the formation of a teaching council for all teachers.