A five-state study conducted by the University of Iowa has shown that teachers indicated that their chief requirement of an inservice program was to improve their teaching skills. They felt the need to update teaching techniques, be evaluated on the basis of performance rather than length of service, and be able to demonstrate productive performance. The document discusses the organizational strategies required in the establishment of a successful inservice program. In large school districts a formalized system involving standing committees and a governing charter may be required. Smaller districts may obtain better results from the use of a task force of short-term duration whose members are appointed on the basis of their special knowledge and commitment and which has administrative support including secretarial assistance, supplies, and equipment. Whichever method is used, the committee or task force would be responsible for research into the goals, activities, and content needed by the teachers; the establishment of goals in behavioral terms; the development of a program calendar; and the establishment of policy considerations and evaluation procedures. The detailed budget requirements of such a program are considered and a sample budget is included. (BBM)
PLANNING AND DEVELOPING INSERVICE EDUCATION

by

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1970
AN IOWA AREA XI, TITLE V, ESEA
INSERVICE PROJECT
FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS
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IOWA AREA XI, TITLE V, ESEA INSERVICE PROJECT
FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS
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PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH:  
THE INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAM

Introduction

Few people in the field of professional education—if they give it thoughtful 
consideration—will not admit that inservice education is a most important activity.  
But it must be generally conceded that in actual practice, inservice education is not 
accorded the importance it deserves. There are probably a number of reasons for the 
fact that the continued on-the-job growth of teachers and administrators is held in 
low repute. Perhaps such activity, so much a part of the routine thinking of those of 
us engaged in education, is merely too much taken for granted. Unquestionably, such 
activity is not planned well, nor is it generally designed to truly meet the real needs 
of professional personnel.

A recent five-state study conducted by the Iowa Center for Research in School 
Administration, The University of Iowa, disclosed that regardless of length of ex-
perience, grade level, subject concern, whether male or female—regardless of any 
particular variable involved—teachers overwhelmingly indicated that their chief 
desire from inservice education programs was to improve their teaching skills. 1 And 
yet, the same study, as well as others,2 pointed out that teachers felt that too frequent-
ly, the purposes that such programs are designed to serve are not well-conceived nor 
appropriately pursued.

The Bases of the Need

The important reasons that inservice education programs, effectively planned 
and carried out, must be given more emphasis than ever before are not so difficult 
to enumerate. Unquestionably, we must begin more to recognize that preservice 
training is not enough to appropriately prepare the teacher for many aspects of his 
role that can only be internalized after he has accepted a teaching post. Preservice is, 
at best, a kind of introduction to the tasks; it is analogous in medicine to the young 
physician who is ready to intern because, in spite of vast improvements in practicum 
experiences, true practice must await placement in a real position. Everything prior 
to that is not authentic enough in and of itself to make each teacher more com-
pletely aware of his needs as well as his strengths.

1W. G. Monahan and John Tarr, Inservice Education in the Upper Midwest (Minneapolis: 
Upper Midwest Regional Education Laboratory. [forthcoming])
2See, for example: Dorothy Westby-Gibson, INSERVICE EDUCATION: PERSPEC-
TIVES FOR EDUCATORS (Berkeley: Fa. Western Regional Education Laboratory, 1967); 
A. C. Nicolai, "A Survey and Evaluation of Inservice Education Programs in Selected Schools 
of Nebraska," unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Nebraska, 1966; National Society for 
The Study of Education, Inservice Education for Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators, 
In addition, the simple fact of objective environmental conditions today demands more attention to this aspect of the professional's growth; in other words, the social and educational changes which are taking place at an increasingly accelerated rate render much that we know obsolete much quicker than before. Moreover, there is considerable evidence that people do, in fact, want to change and the effective coordination of instructional programs requires such changes if a program is to continue to be relevant to the needs (which are also rapidly changing) of boys and girls.

In a sense, the inservice program is the best available mechanism for that revitalization which is so much demanded by the nature of the teaching role itself.

There are other reasons, of course. Most of them simply have to do with the impelling fact that there is so much more to know, such great need for updating techniques of teaching, more pressure for evaluation processes based on performance skills rather than time-spent-in-grade, increasing public pressure to scrutinize what we are doing, and demands that we be more able to demonstrate some levels of productive performance.

**Some of the Mistakes We Have Made**

In the face of these reasons for upgrading the inservice program, we must be careful not to continue to make the same mistakes that have characterized this aspect of school management in the past. This is in reference to such things as an apparent failure to relate the program to the genuine needs of the teaching staff. And along with that, a failure to be careful to select the most appropriate kinds of inservice activities for implementing plans, much less the consistent analysis of program needs in making those plans in the first place. Finally, there is impressive evidence that we have not given enough attention to competent, effective, and adequate staff and equipment resources.

So, we must confront four major conditions in developing the most effective kinds of ongoing professional growth programs for teachers as well as administrators:

† The nature of the purposes that the program must serve.
† The appropriate organizational structure for program development.
† Activities that are appropriate for the purposes and which are well-planned.
† The competence and skills of resource people, staff, planners, and participants.
† The concern for some measure of evaluation which makes it more comfortable for us to be able to say something about the program's success or failure.

Let's briefly examine each of these major conditions which can promote effective inservice education.
Purposes and Objectives

Someone has said that “good planning takes planning.” In a sense, that merely means that much thought needs to be put into the strategies whereby the planning process itself is put into motion. Obviously, there is no simple planning strategy which will overcome in one “fell swoop” all of the problems listed above. Before any plan can be developed for inaugurating effective changes, one must have some valid information regarding what the situation is now. It is the task of those who initiate the planning process — those whose responsibility it is to determine the structure of the planning procedures — to have some notion of what they want to happen. This can be as abstract as stating that one wants a more effective inservice education program for district X, or it can be as specific as saying that one wants every teacher in the system to have a reasonably clear idea of the distinction between cognitive and affective behavioral objectives for instruction.

In any case, those who initiate planning must have some valid bases for the decisions they will make.

The Appropriate Organizational Structure

There are probably a number of organizational strategies from which to begin the effective planning for an excellent inservice program model. It is likely that all such strategies could conceivably be categorized into two particular formats: one would involve the initiation of a relatively formalized organizational system with an appointed director or coordinator, the use of standing committee(s), a specifiable set of bylaws incorporated into a governing charter, and relatively explicit statements of the functions, responsibilities, membership qualifications, etc., of such committees. If a school district is quite large, this formalistic procedure is probably an appropriate mechanism to pursue inservice program coordination. Cedar Rapids, Iowa, has chosen this particular route.3

Smaller districts might desire to pursue a less formalized format but one which nevertheless makes use of a group of professionals from within the district to develop and initiate planning and programming. In this booklet, this particular format will be referred to by use of the term “Inservice Task Force.” Each of these two categories of organizational strategy will be briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

The Coordinating Council

The general strategy for a Coordinating Council would conceive of such a body as being primarily responsible for overseeing the work of a number of standing committees. Logically, such standing committees would be focused on (and formed in terms of) particular content areas: language arts, social studies, science and mathe-
matics, etc. But, in addition, other committees can be established—and probably should be—which are concerned with teaching methodology, emerging technology in instruction, and extra- or co-curricular areas.

If smaller districts prefer this pattern of standing committees, some of the content or substantive considerations can be collapsed into a smaller number of committees such as: elementary instruction; secondary instruction; special methodology; innovations; and technology. The Coordinating Council would then be composed of the elected chairmen of the various standing committees and should include, in addition, those central office personnel who are intimately associated with instruction (curriculum directors, coordinators, pupil personnel administrators) as ex officio members.

The following skeletal schema might be useful in characterizing the main elements of the Coordinating Council and committee model:

```
Coordinating Council

| Committee, Secondary Staff Development |
| Committee, Elementary Staff Development |
| Committee, Methodology and Technological Innovation |
| Committee, |
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Some Advantages and Disadvantages

The coordinating council notion has both advantages and disadvantages. In general, this organizational scheme is most applicable and effective when districts are large—say, over 10,000 pupils in average daily attendance. In such cases, its value lies in the fact that a complex organization will naturally require more formalistic communication systems and more systematic programming to deal with the increasing diversity of values, personnel, programs, and sociocultural orientations of various sectors of the community. In other words, the larger and more heterogeneous a district is, the more it will require specific coordination of program logically through the establishment of a particular professional role in the central office for this purpose.

The Inservice Task Force

If a district is not especially large and is therefore not confronted by all of the complexities that great size imposes, then a more effective organizational strategy may be the use of the Inservice Task Force.

The Task Force is, essentially, a problem-solving kind of mechanism. It is characterized by a number of unique features:

*It is of short-term duration.* Task Forces are initiated in response to particular problems and they should direct their efforts toward the solution of such problems. When the problem is dealt
with — either solved or consensus is that it can’t be solved under existing conditions — the Task Force dissolves. (In other words, task forces are useful for many kinds of problems — not just inservice.)

— It is formulated on the basis of expertise. Persons appointed to task forces are named primarily because they have something to offer in dealing with the problem. Persons are not named because of seniority, status, familiarity, friendship, and so forth; they are named only because they bring to the problem initiative, knowledge, commitment, or skills that are appropriate to the group.

— It is provided with what it needs. Task forces require two major kinds of commitment on the part of administration: (1) released time from regular duties so members can bring all of their energy to bear on the problem; (2) the resources and equipment necessary to pursue their objective. This may include secretarial assistance as well as supplies and equipment.

It should be apparent that the idea of a task force is applicable to any kind of persistent problem confronting schools and therefore useful far beyond the development and execution of a good staff development program. But it is particularly appropriate to the Inservice Program because teachers themselves do most of the planning and the programming.

There is one other important factor to consider, however, in appointing the task force: its size should be limited to not more than seven members. Beyond that number, a group becomes unwieldy and its effectiveness can easily become minimal rather than maximal.

Although membership on the Task Force should be determined with aspects of representation in mind — that is, someone from elementary, junior high, and secondary should be members, etc. — the main criterion should still be expertise and competence. Persons who are willing to work seriously and give as much objective consideration as possible to the needs and desires of teachers in the system are always preferable regardless of their particular area of specialty or subject-matter orientation. Administrators should use their own best judgment in making such appointments, but having named the membership and charged the Task Force with the management and development of an effective inservice program, administrators must observe the following:

† BE COMMITTED TO GIVE SERIOUS CONSIDERATION TO THE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF A TASK FORCE.

† BE WILLING TO PROVIDE RESOURCES — SPACE, CLERICAL HELP, EQUIPMENT, TIME; WHATEVER IS REASONABLY REQUIRED.

† BE WILLING TO PROVIDE WHATEVER INFORMATION IS REQUIRED AND IS AVAILABLE TO THE ADMINISTRATOR — PEOPLE MUST KNOW WHAT THEY ARE ABOUT.
Primary Responsibilities of the Task Force

Assuming that one decides to go with what has here been called a “Task Force”, what are its responsibilities? Basically, the Task Force will be charged with:

Research: gathering information as to what kind of inservice goals, activities, and content are needed and wanted by the staff.

Goal-Setting: it is vital that the Task Force develop a statement of goals in behavioral terms.

A Calendar: plan for the kinds of time commitments that an effective program will require – how many days, when, where to meet.

Activities: determine specifically the kinds of activities that will characterize the program at any given time – preschool, special days, evenings, Saturdays (?), and so forth.

Policies: discuss and perhaps make recommendations as to whether participation in certain well-defined kinds of inservice activities will advance one on the salary schedule; for example, summer school work for professional improvement, travel, or special curriculum materials preparation, and so forth.

Evaluation Procedures: The Task Force must also come to grips with the need to develop some measures for evaluating the programs it develops.

Each of these various responsibilities deserves some additional brief comment.

Research

Research has almost become a threatening word to many practicing school people. Perhaps that is because in education we have come to feel that unless research employs sophisticated “designs” and complex statistical analyses, it somehow doesn’t qualify as “research.” Nothing could be further from reality. The essential idea of research wherever it occurs, is still concerned with inquiry and conclusion. Data gathering may indeed involve systems of esoteric sampling techniques employing complex mathematical formulas, but data gathering also means finding answers to difficult questions; it means having accurate information upon which to plan. It is in this respect that effective inservice program planning must truly begin with some significant inquiries in order that meaningful planning can begin. What kinds of questions need answers? The most important information will be concerned with the needs that teachers themselves perceive. In a recent five-state study of inservice education, all teachers regardless of level, age, years of experience, or location – big district and small – were agreed to an impressive degree that their primary desire was for improvement of teaching skill.⁴

⁴ Monahan and Tarr, op. cit.
In addition to that kind of information, the Task Force must also examine the extent of its resources and the district's ability to fund certain activities once both the need has been determined and the kinds of activities outlined which seem best fitted to those needs. This too involves information retrieval. As the group gets more involved in its task, other kinds of "research" will be apparent.

The particular research methods employed may range broadly. The Task Force may want some kind of questionnaire. The best rule to follow in this and in other kinds of information needs is to be parsimonious; that is, use the simplest procedure which does the most for you. In this kind of situation, one is not at all concerned about controlling variables and being cautious of statistical error; one is interested in 'finding things out' and the best way is to ask questions in the most efficient way.

If the information needs could be categorized at all, three kinds of information should become available:

1. What kinds of inservice needs do our teachers perceive?
2. What are the financial and other resource limits under which a program must be designed?
3. What kind of experts would be useful and what kinds of materials will be required?

The Calendar

The Task Force should be established with the idea that it will consider not only the immediate inservice needs in the district but also develop some long-range planning as well with enough flexibility that program changes can be made from time to time without totally upsetting the long-range plan. The calendar should also give consideration in the differing orientations of teachers. Primary teachers may be deeply concerned about reading diagnosis and math skills but junior high school teachers may be vitally concerned about classroom behavior and secondary teachers about grading and reporting. There is always some duplication in teachers' inservice needs; a program takes these things into consideration and uses them to form the bases for program content and activities.

The Activities

Too frequently, we have come to think of typical inservice activities typically; i.e., we listen (but not for long) to a lecture or an inspirational address. That is all right so long as it doesn't constitute the essence of the whole inservice program! Sometimes it does. Inservice activities are always more successful when they involve people. The use of brainstorming can be informative as well as fun; buzz sessions are productive; demonstrations, films, group discussion, "case conferences" involving role-playing — these kinds of activities and many others can be the difference between a dull (no matter how substantive and significant the content) and an exciting session, equally informative.
Policies

Like almost every other aspect of the school program, policies on inservice education may become necessary. It is a part of the responsibility of the Task Force to deal with existing policy as it relates to inservice education and to recommend changes when they are appropriate. Teachers frequently are exhorted to participate more in policy formulation. They are frequently heard to say that administrators jealously guard that prerogative and don't want teachers doing such things. To some extent that is probably true but generally it is a matter of what kinds of policy are being discussed. In a real sense, this issue is like a man made of much straw, for teachers have always affected policy. Regarding inservice education, policy becomes important with reference to such questions as whether or not certain kinds of inservice activities should result in salary advancement. Some schools do provide for this but their number is obviously small; most districts just don't have that much financial flexibility. But there are other polices which might be examined as well; shall teachers be expected — as part of their contractual obligation — to attend inservice sessions? Sometimes those who need it the most are the least enthusiastic about it.

As the Task Force goes about its work, it will occasionally confront problems for which policy is lacking. Under such circumstances, policy recommendations are appropriate. Whether they are ultimately adopted is another matter — but in most cases, they are likely to be.

Policies, Goals, and Evaluation

Policies, however necessary, should be rather broad and should not be confused with statements of goals and objectives for the inservice program. This is an easy error to make. A policy statement regarding inservice education is most useful when it merely states a philosophical position of the system to the effect that this aspect of professional behavior is important, necessary, and teachers are expected, as part of their contractual obligations, to help in developing programs as well as pursuing them.

Goals for the program, on the other hand, provide the operational framework within which successful programs can be developed. One of the important first jobs for the Task Force is the establishing of viable goals and objectives.

It is appropriate to talk briefly about evaluation after mentioning goals because evaluation is, in effect, a process of assessing how closely one comes to achieving his goals. If the goals and objectives are operationally, stated, the evaluation procedures are much easier. Yet, as important as evaluation is, very few school systems have developed effective evaluation procedures for inservice education. In his study of Iowa schools, Tarr points out that

...evaluation should be an integral part of every inservice education program. Without it, mistakes may be repeated, morale slip,
In his study, Tarr found that most inservice activities were not evaluated; and when they were, the evaluations were highly subjective, based on "...teachers’ comments and administrators’ judgment." When one examines another of Tarr’s findings, however, this situation is understandable. He states:

Contrary to recommendations for successful inservice education programs, most (84 per cent) of the school districts had not committed to writing the objectives of their inservice education program. There was a complete absence of objectives written in behavioral terms. In other words, the desired terminal behavior of teachers engaged in inservice education activities was not specified.

Since the stating of goals and objectives is clearly crucial to all aspects of a successful inservice education program, the next section of this booklet examines this aspect of the development of a program in more detail.

Summary

At this point, we can summarize by pointing out that there are two broad views of organizing for the development of a successful, ongoing inservice education program. First, if districts are quite large and complex, there is a procedure whereby a special coordinator is appointed who works with a coordinating council and a series of unique standing committees. If a district is smaller, the use of an organizational vehicle which has been called the “Task Force” is more appropriate.

Task Forces, or Coordinating Councils, have several important things to consider such as research, goal-setting, a calendar, activities, policy consideration, and evaluation.

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6 Ibid., p. 131.
7 Ibid., p. 128.
II

ESTABLISHING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES
FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

It almost seems like a belaboring of the obvious to suggest that the most im-
portant single aspect of developing any kind of a program is to give serious attention
to those things which one would expect the program or activity to accomplish. Yet,
in practice, this is all too frequently left either to chance (“Well, we ASSUME it will
achieve what we want it to!”), or the anticipated outcomes are so fuzzy and dimly
devised that one has difficulty determining with any degree of comfort whether they
were achieved or not.

This is actually a very simple problem and it differs little if at all from the
application of the same principles which govern the development of statements of
objectives for typical instructional components. In effect, what one wants is to
BE ABLE to state the objectives in “be able” terms; i.e., when a particular inservice
activity is completed, those who participated in it should “be able” to do something
as a result. Perhaps this is an oversimplification, but “being able” is a good example
of what the experts mean when they talk about behavioral objectives. But what is
frequently more likely to result when a group of teachers and administrators decide
to work on statements of objectives are not “be able” kinds of things but rather,
“appreciate” and “understand” kinds of things. For example, “To understand the
use of the Cassette tape recorder” is an operationally different kind of statement
than that which holds that “One shall be able to demonstrate the use of the Cassette
tape recorder.”

It would probably be more appropriate and logical to assert that “appreciating”
and “understanding” and “knowing how” and “developing a feeling for,” etc., are
goals rather than objectives. Goals are generally stated in terms of larger, and there-
fore more abstract, outcomes than objectives; the latter are somewhat specific. Still
even more abstract than the goals are philosophical and value-oriented kinds of long-
term aspirations that we may have for a program. The following paradigm may be
useful in making these distinctions somewhat clearer:

VALUED ASPIRATION:
To educate every child to the fullest of which he is capable.
Goal: To increase the amount of individual attention for each child.
Goal: To improve the teaching of reading in primary grades.
Goal: To improve the self-concept of each child.
Objective #1:
To be able to use appropriately, reading diagnostic tests.
Objective #2:
To be able to apply appropriate techniques on the basis of diagnostic test
interpretation.
This paradigm, although admittedly cursory, does illustrate the fact that a particular objective may apply to more than one goal. In this case, the ability to use and interpret diagnostic tests not only fulfills the goal of improving instruction in reading but it also applies to the individualization of instruction as well, and, clearly, these kinds of behaviors are congruent with the VALUE of educating each child to his full potential.

Moreover, it is a small step from stating such objectives in behavioral terminology and moving to the design of appropriate inservice ACTIVITIES which will act as the means for achieving such objectives. In this case again, a demonstration of using and interpreting diagnostic devices is a most appropriate example of an inservice ACTIVITY which moves a professional staff toward the objective.

When classroom teachers develop instructional objectives stated behaviorally for their own classes, they frequently want to go still further beyond the "be able" kinds of behaviors; they may, for example, feel the need to establish CRITERIA, or levels of expectation with reference to the "be ableness" of their students. In such cases, the criterion becomes highly important in evaluating the performance of the student. For example, a teacher might obviously not only want pupils to "be able" to spell words from some appropriate listing but with A PARTICULAR DEGREE OF ACCURACY. In such a case, to merely state that a student should be able to spell words from a particular list correctly is not explicit enough. One wants to know HOW MANY of the words? All of them? Most of them? Seventy-five per cent of them? The criterion is sometimes quite important. Moreover, it is sometimes equally important to stipulate the CONDITIONS upon which satisfactory performance is acceptable. This latter problem is illustrated in delightful fashion by Harris and Bessant when they point out that an objective was stated as follows: To be able to prepare a nutritious meal in Homemaking II. They suggest that since the CONDITION is not stated, a student could satisfy the objective with preparation of a TV dinner!

Mager also emphasizes the importance of stating certain conditions when one wants to define terminal behaviors explicitly enough to communicate the intent of whatever educational activity is being pursued. He points out that such statements of conditional objectives employ particular kinds of verbal limitations, and lists as some examples the following:

- Given a problem of the following class.
- Given a list of.
- Given any reference of the learner's choice.
- Without the aid of references.
- Without the aid of slide rule.

Given a matrix of intercorrelations. . .
Given a properly functioning. . .

Statements of program objectives should be primarily concerned with three basic concerns:
1. What will the learner be doing?
2. Under what conditions will he be doing it?
3. What level of performance is acceptable?

Applying these kinds of questions to objective statements provides clarity and validity — but much more important, they can provide the basis upon which evaluation can be accomplished.

A Word of Caution

As important as the establishment of goals and objectives is for an effective in-service education program, the Task Force must guard against getting “hung up” on this aspect of the planning. It is easy for us to get to some point at which we begin to “spin our wheels,” and when this happens, enthusiasm and motivation tend to suffer. The Task Force should early confront the problem of goals definition but not give excessive attention to the actual statements of objectives until such time as a program and activities are relatively well defined. The objectives stated in behavioral terminology can be dealt with later —- somewhat close to the time when the actual inservice activity is to take place.

It is for this reason — the importance of goal-stating — that the Task Force must develop some research strategies. What does this school system need in the way of viable inservice training is similar to asking what kinds of skills, content, information, etc., do the teachers themselves perceive they need. At some point, these two questions will likely become confluent avenues; that is, the answer to one of the questions is likely to be an adequate answer for the other question as well. But this kind of information does not occur by osmosis; someone needs to develop some kinds of techniques for asking about needs as perceived by the teachers. Such a process does not need to be highly complex or even very sophisticated. But it does need to be a reliable indicator of what people perceive they want and need. The simplest and most parsimonious way to approach this problem is to develop a series of questions that seem pertinent; then each Task Force member takes it upon himself to interview a number of teachers and administrators (and perhaps, even students). This kind of information is not only essential to the development of program content, it is equally valuable in the early formulation of goals.

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Summary

Like any other ongoing and integral aspect of a school program, the in-service education component requires a guiding statement of values, goals, and objectives. In this section, a very brief review of some aspects of this part of the planning problem have been discussed. In addition to the material that was quoted herein from other sources, the following references will also be useful in dealing with instructional and in-service program objectives.


Teacher preparation and certification is a matter which has been controlled by the State Department of Public Instruction through the recommendation of the parent college or university. This, in practice, then controls the quality of teacher competency of a beginner who is entering public school teaching for the first time.

When a person signs a contract to teach in a public school district and starts to fulfill that contract, another party enters into partnership with the Department of Public Instruction and the college or university in which the teacher was prepared. At that point, the individual is no longer a student, but a professional teacher and the local school district has a definite interest at stake in his professional growth.

While public schools must still depend upon higher learning institutions to provide continued development of research, technology, and methodology, the public schools must also provide their own programs to meet their unique in-service needs.

In-service (professional growth) activities within any school system are a kind of umbilical cord which feeds and vitalizes, or revitalizes, the total staff as schools strive to maintain relevant educational programs which meet national, state, local, and individual goals or needs.

With increasing technological advancement and the resultant knowledge accumulation, the emergence of challenging demands for extreme social change, and with increased involvement in education by the federal government, schools must provide continuous evaluation of local educational programs as they concern what we teach, how we teach, and when we teach. Provision must be made for rapid and continuous "re-tooling" of programs and teaching methods as research and practice leads to better understandings concerning how children learn, the changing requirements of what they learn, and the appropriate timing of when they learn.

In-service educational programs within a school system require planning and programming and, very importantly, funding. Such planning should be organized as a team effort on the part of local administrators and teachers communicating with the boards of education and patrons of the community. Such organizational planning has been discussed previously in this booklet. We now turn to that phase of planning which is concerned with the appropriate allocation of resources to insure effective in-service programming.

**Budgeting for Inservice**

It is not likely, nor should it be, that a school board will give blanket approval of a certain percentage of the general fund budget toward in-service activities.
To be truly effective, each activity should be carefully planned and programmed into the budget and evaluated on its merits to the total inservice program. This will require distribution of funds within the budget in a variety of budget code categories. A sample of how one Iowa school district budgets for this important activity is categorically programmed in the budget data at the end of this section.

The rationale behind programmed inservice budgeting is based upon the fact that inservice is a multifaceted function. Budget programming should include some or most of the following considerations.

1. Travel — This would include code categories for members of the board of education, board secretary and treasurer, central administration, instructional staff, and the supportive services staff. Travel allowances are typically allocated for local, state, and national conferences and conventions on a planned basis.

2. Salaries — Most schools contract teachers for days beyond the normal 180 required teaching days. These days are usually used for local workshops for the total staff and are included as a part of a teacher’s regular salary. However, salaries should include provisions for hiring substitute teachers to permit the absence of regular teachers from duty to pursue inservice functions. Some schools budget to permit all teachers the equivalent of one day each for visiting privileges to another teacher’s classroom or another school. At the same time, money is budgeted for teacher replacement by groups of teachers for specific visitations or investigations to other schools according to a local district’s needs.

3. Consultative Services — An amount should be budgeted for the contracting of consultants to meet with teachers or to prepare taped (both video and audio) programs or for telephoned or televised speeches or demonstrations to groups of teachers, or the discussion of a problem by a noted authority.

4. Research and Development — This would include the work on a district-approved basis by individuals, study committees, writing teams, research teams, and investigations. Such work should be planned and funds programmed into the budget. Every school in addition to providing funds for local research should plan for membership with an appropriate center for research and evaluation.

5. Tuition allowances to promote further education at colleges and universities — Many schools today pay a part or all the tuition and books costs or in some instances a stipend amount to a portion of their teachers each year for the purpose of upgrading their education.

6. Professional Study Materials — Some amount should be budgeted each year for professional books, magazines, and special study materials for the professional staff.

7. Special materials and Equipment — An effective inservice budget will also include funds for the purchase of capital outlay equipment and special supply materials to aid the teacher in learning how to make his teaching more interesting and effective.
8. Transportation — Most schools provide some vehicles, gas and oil or other maintenance, and supply items which are utilized in inservice education and should be programmed into their budgets.

9. Fixed Charges — Fixed charges are computed according to total instruction and supportive services, personnel salaries, and budget. Those contract days for teacher inservice could be prorated in determining total fixed amounts charged to inservice budgeting. This includes Iowa Public Employees Retirement System, Social Security, and personnel insurance.

10. Printing and Publication — Research and study are of little lasting value unless the results are placed in writing. In addition to funds for research, some allowance should be considered for printing and publishing the results of this work. Generally it is recommended that 3 to 5 per cent of the general fund budget be allocated to inservice development.

In conclusion, the following summarization would seem relevant:

1. Teachers commence their teaching experience with a minimum of knowledge and competency.
2. While we may look to colleges and universities for continued leadership in developing better, more competent teachers, the local school district must assume an increasing responsibility.
3. Local schools should provide inservice programs which must be well-planned and organized. Experienced administrators will involve their staffs in team planning and participation.
4. Local schools should coordinate their inservice efforts with other schools, higher units, and research and development centers or agencies.
5. Funding is a necessary requirement to a good inservice program and requires careful budgeting.
6. Budgeting for inservice should be programmed to meet the multifaceted needs of the total program.
7. Three to 5 per cent of the total general fund budget should be allocated to inservice and professional growth activities.
## PROGRAMMED INSERVICE BUDGET

**1969-70**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Enrollment</th>
<th>2,550</th>
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<td>Total General Fund Budget</td>
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### Expense, Board of Education

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<tr>
<td>10596</td>
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<tr>
<td>10597</td>
<td>Other</td>
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### Expenses, Administration, General

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<td>11112</td>
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<td>11334</td>
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<td>Professional Books</td>
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<td>11595</td>
<td>Travel, Superintendent</td>
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<td>Travel, Professional Growth</td>
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<td>11598</td>
<td>Travel, Other</td>
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### Instruction, Elementary

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<tr>
<td>20114</td>
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<td>20596</td>
<td>Special Materials – Inservice</td>
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<td>20124</td>
<td>Substitute Teachers</td>
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**Total** $30,560.00

### Instruction, Junior High

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**Total** $15,140.00

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**Total** $14,160.00
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<td>Social Security</td>
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Operation and Maintenance

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Capital Outlay

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<td>Equipment, Instr. (for inservice)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>$600.00</strong></td>
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Total $75,640.00

Per cent of total budget = .0317

($75,640.00 ÷ $2,385,375.00)
IV

SUMMARIZING THE INSERVICE PROGRAM

Increasing size, changes in the “environment” external to an organization, dramatic readjustments in the distribution of power, the continual problem of revitalization whereby knowledge useful in solving today’s problem is likely to be totally obsolete in solving tomorrow’s, and confrontation with the increasingly urgent issue of recognizing the individual’s needs within the organizational context — all of these things and more are necessitating some reconsiderations of the “old ways” of managing organizations.

Schools have not only been unable to escape the implications of these conditions but, contrary, have found themselves the focal point in many. Certainly schools have been increasingly forced, at management levels, to deal with variables in the external environment that would previously have been of little or no concern. In large part this can be explained by the fact that there is currently a real revolution of rising expectations and schools have always been a significant instrument in the battle for the good, or the “better” life. But schools, along with other types of organizations, have also begun to recognize that collaboration is the only acceptable mechanism for the adjudication and resolution of conflicts — old methods of coercion no longer work (though they are perhaps still attempted.)

Equally clear in events of the past decade is the realization that schools must frequently define their aims in terms of the needs of their professional personnel. These needs have been all too often subsumed under demands for better pay, but the more aesthetic needs for a sense of achievement and worthwhileness have also been apparent. The school today like other kinds of organizations confronts the real problem of integrating individual needs and organizational goals.

The implications of these various conditions are too complex to consider in any detail in this summary; they have been discussed thus far merely to set the context for reviewing the “blood lines” of the problem-solving Task Force. One implication is reasonably clear: dependency on existing organizational structures for the solution of pressing problems is not as effective nor as efficient as creating new ones. But the risk in creating the new structure is that, since it is likely born from the old marriage of institution and bureaucracy, it will begin at some point to exist in order to maintain its existence! In other words, the problem is one of longevity since not only organizations but even their subcomponents tend to replace their immediate goals with another — survival. That survival is the goal of organizations is not so far fetched. There is no better example than the March of Dimes; having achieved its objective, it is almost as if the organization said to itself, “Why should we waste all this structure and ritual and personnel and resources; let us find another function.” Someone said it another way: “Old organizations never die, they just change their goals.” (And someone else added, “Or fire their administrators!”)
The Organizational Task Force

The task force is one small response to the pressures within and external to all organized human systems manifested primarily by the “increasing” society: ‘more’ change, ‘more’ discontent, ‘more’ technology, ‘more’ people, ‘more’ money, ‘more’ poverty, ‘more’ knowledge, ‘more’ education, ‘more’ and ‘more’ and ‘more.’ For any organization, this situation means simply ‘more’ problems and more pressing urgency to solve some of them. Yet, this situation demands greater flexibility within organizational structures while the evolving nature of such structures, genetically derived from classical bureaucracy, mitigates against flexibility. The dilemma finds at least partial resolution through the initiation of short-term subsystems, designed for limited and specific purposes, and capable of generating solutions to problems without the development of formalized role and status symbolism. In short, the task force.

Now there is no special reason why the term task force should be used to label this device; it may be called almost anything one cares to call it — problem-solving team; or something highly esoteric and acronymic like “SSS” (Small Synergistic System); or even something right down to the point like “small group.” The point is that it doesn’t really matter if one keeps clearly in mind some important guidelines in the development and utilization of such devices. It is important to reiterate some of the important dimensions of such task forces:

(1) Longevity: Although some task forces will ‘live’ longer than others, the essential factor in their effectiveness is that they are temporary. Established for limited purpose and working within a specific charge, the task force is characterized by intensity of effort rather than by extensiveness of concern.

(2) Size: The task force is small preferably with no more than seven members. It has the right to “call” upon experts but its membership is also limited. This has some obvious value; the literature on small-group theory supports such small-size considerations.

(3) Expertise: Members of task forces are appointed solely on the basis of their expertise and not because of status, seniority, power, or democratic “sampling”; if they are representative of anything, it is their substantive competence and ability to work with a group of their professional colleagues toward the achievement of productive programs.

(4) Time: There must be a commitment on the part of administrators which reflects their concern for inservice planning or any other problem to which a task force devotes its energies. No more apparent reflection of such concern can be demonstrated than willingness to release participants from regular duties. Such released time does not mean that a group is going to meet together incessantly; on the contrary, where released time commitments are made, professional people are more likely to observe that privilege conservatively.

(5) Integrity: One must assume that a task force is for “real.” This means that executives are willing to abide by its recommendations and to implement,
wherever humanly possible, its programs. In the event that conditions mitigate against that kind of action, the executive has a clear responsibility to make the reasons understandable to the task force.

(6) Resources: To be effective, the task force must have appropriate backup systems; this means that it must, at the outset, have information on the limitations under which it must perform (budget, personnel, time, etc.) but more than this, it must have the prerogative of calling upon other experts and ample secretarial and processing resources.

These six things represent an outline of the kinds of conditions that require some consideration in the establishment of a problem-solving or a planning task force. The task force is essentially an administrative vehicle; it is obviously not a panacea but if one insists on it being a temporary mechanism, appoints its membership on the bases of competency and willingness to serve, provides it necessary resources, and observes its integrity, the task force is a powerful device.

The Task Force System

Once a task force has been established, how shall it proceed? Essentially, the task force must begin by engaging in what systems analysts call "information retrieval." In some cases, particularly if a school system is rather large, sub-task forces may be incorporated at "unit" levels — building, grade, skill or content areas, etc. — and these smaller groups are primarily designed for feedback and information retrieval purposes. They are not necessary but may be useful. The following schema describes some of the planning structure of a task force system:

![Diagram of Task Force System](image)

The Planning Charge

The 'charge' to the task force for — in this case — inservice programming involves three major considerations: resources, programming, and evaluation. The following brief description of these elements of the planning charge is only a guide. Each school system may want to devise its own, more elaborate planning function.
With reference to the 'charge' itself, there are two major planning dimensions that should be emphasized; one is structural, the other is substantive. Structural considerations include such things as whether or not to have sub-task forces and how many; where the groups shall meet and when; who shall be involved; what kinds of deadlines are they working against; and so forth. Substantive factors include the nature of devices for information retrieval (questionnaires, interviews, committees, departmental or subject-area surveys, grade-level analyses, etc.). The substantive aspects of the planning charge evolve out of reliable information (data) on the needs of professional personnel.

**Resources**

As with the planning charge itself, there are also two dimensions to the resources issue: physical/fiscal and human. The task force must come to grips with the physical and financial limitations under which a successful effort can be mounted. They require baseline data on the availability of space, equipment, supplies, and outlays; decisions on the most appropriate expenditure of limited funds demand this kind of information. Budgeting for inservice as discussed elsewhere in this booklet makes this much easier. What about consultation fees? paid tuition? book purchases? world cruises? In terms of human resources, staff and consultants become the key factors; and in this case, the task force must ask very familiar questions: who, what, when, and why?

**Programming**

Programming guidelines are either directly apparent or implicit in all three considerations but more specifically, this issue — clearly the key one — is dichotomized into two important considerations: methodological content and subject-matter content. Methodological considerations involve the objective of improving teaching skill. Programming may be by area or level, and it may be operationalized at the building level or throughout the system by grade levels or subject-matter areas. Subject-matter content considerations are more likely to appeal to secondary teachers; its major objective is increasing knowledge of content. Things to consider in seeking information are: attention to evidences of changes in interpretation; scholarly expansions or additions to content which create marked departures from current thinking; or extensions which supplement ideas. In this case, operationalization may depend upon consultants but it is a pregnant opportunity for excellent staff members to perform for their colleagues and enjoy a moment of glory.

**Evaluation**

Evaluation is of two breeds: there is judgmental assessment — whether, overall, a program is good/bad; strong/weak; superficial/intensive. In addition, evaluation may be based on accrual and change measures. The question which guides this process is, what changes in content knowledge or performance skills have resulted? These techniques do not need to be threatening but they need to be related to the overall objectives and allow for easy response.
A Final Word

In a study conducted by the Iowa Center for Research in School Administration under the direction of W. G. Monahan and which included data on inservice education in five upper Midwest states, it was early realized that the important job of providing for a knowledgeable, sensitive, and well-informed instructional staff cannot be left to the caprice of teachers nor to dependence upon admonitions nor appeals to professional integrity; if such a staff is wanted — and it is increasingly vital — then local school districts must have rigorously conceived, well-defined, and systematic programs of inservice education. They do not occur, obviously, by accident or evolution; they come about through the rational administrative behavior of genuinely committed administrators and realistic teachers.

Whether the development of such programs is pursued under the organizational scheme presented in this booklet or not, it is absolutely essential that such programs can only be effective in any case when teachers and administrators plan them together and give primary consideration to those needs that the teaching staff itself feels most intensely.

If any teacher, regardless of age, experience, teaching level, or subject area, feels that he has no real need of inservice education, that is a teacher for which a board of education has no need at all.