

DUTIES OF THE TEACHER

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INTRODUCTION

The old saying goes: “Those who can, do; those who can’t, teach.” The list of duties in this paper gives the lie to that view by spelling out just how hard teaching is. It shows that the real truth, while less catchy, is more like this: “Those who *can do these hundred difficult things* can teach well; those who can teach well can change the world in their lifetime; those who can’t, can rarely do something as important.”

Teaching is important because most teachers reach more than a thousand students during their career as a teacher, and many reach more than ten thousand. Teachers change the world through their students in two ways. Great teachers of the past have inspired individuals—and even whole societies—to new and better forms of life, to great inventions, to the saving of lives, cultures, and countries (and to their destruction), and to notable discoveries and spiritual revolutions. There are many cases where specific teachers have been identified as providing the inspiration or the suggestions that led to these results. Famous examples include Socrates, the teacher of Plato; Aristotle, the teacher of Alexander the Great; and Brentano, who was Freud’s teacher. On the grand scale, the teachers who began most of the great religions have their names enshrined in the honor role or the very title of those movements—Buddhism, Confucianism, Christianity, Mohammedanism, Marxism.

But the more common role for teachers is that of empowerment. There are myriads of teachers whose solo or team efforts made great achievements possible that would not otherwise have been possible. They did this by good teaching of basic or advanced knowledge, skills, or values, to those who became inventors and leaders—the teachers of Pasteur and Einstein, of Gandhi and Sister Teresa and Simone de Beauvoir. That situation is very acute today, when there is more to be learnt than ever before; survival of the individual and of the society is more

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than ever dependent on education to cope with technology and contribute to it. But even with respect to the basics, *the mere teaching of literacy is enough to put a student in the top half of the U.S. population when it comes to competition for jobs.*

So, besides teaching minimum competences, which alone are enough to control the quality of life for many, and besides teaching technical or scientific skills which open whole careers to others, there are other key matters to be taught. In every class there are potential leaders, inventors, heroes, authors, and saviors of many others, students whose potentiality cannot possibly manifest itself without—depending on the individual—an understanding of our complex and diverse society, or a repertoire of social skills, or work and study skills, or critical thinking ability, or an understanding of how to analyze ethical problems—whatever ethical premises they bring to bear. Much of these they will never pick up if they do not pick them up in school—or pick up the prerequisites for them.

Moreover, the particular contributions of those students may never flower without something else, something that can only come from the teacher—strong encouragement to believe that such achievements are possible and an appreciation of the first budding of talent or mastery. Empowering is not just a matter of cognitive transfer but of a change in the interests and motivation of students. Teachers usually have a good sense of this—it is one of the great riches of the role—but it is not sufficiently stressed in analytical discussions of teaching and how teaching achievements should be developed, improved, and evaluated.

Thus creating great leaders and contributors, even creating disciples for a great movement, is only the star side of the teacher's role. For almost every student, many of their teachers—at one point or another in the student's education—have in their power the chance of creating or enriching a full and rewarding life, a life of worthwhile doing and giving. The sum of all those effects, produced by the good teachers who rise to that challenge, adds up to most of the trace that teachers leave behind, their footprints in the sands of time. No-one except full-time parents—and many students lack that luxury—has a greater chance to leave a larger mark on the next generation.

The aphorism “Those who can, do, those who can't, teach” is uttered both as a cynical account of how things are, and as a basis for advice about career choice. To the extent that it true as a description of the status quo, and to the extent that it is influential as advice, it symbolizes an attitude to teaching and learning which has brought great countries and empires to their knees—and will again. The stark truth is that unless teachers teach well, the country in which they teach has no future. And unless its citizens have a way to recognize those who teach well—and use it—they have no control over that future.

There have been surprisingly few serious attempts to clarify the long list of expectations from a teacher—or even to spell out why the classroom process of teaching is only part of what a teacher has to do, although the most important part. Yet spelling out those expectations is an essential prerequisite for understanding what it takes to be, to become, and to identify, a good teacher, and hence it is a prerequisite to obtaining for good teachers some of the respect and rewards they deserve. When such a list is developed, we find it to be a formidable inventory of skills, and we come to understand why few people master them all. And we come to understand other things about teaching. For example, we come to see how it is that, even though great teachers are among the most talented professionals in the entire world of work, their talents usually make them outstanding only for some quite limited combination of school, students, and subject matter. The great college teacher would rarely if ever make a great kindergarten teacher—and vice versa.

This list is not just an inventory of remote ideals relevant only to the stars of the profession. It

specifies the areas where most people think a certain minimum competence is required to discharge a teacher's obligations. Roughly speaking these are: (i) subject matter knowledge, (ii) instructional skill, (iii) assessment skill, (iv) professionalism, and typically (v) a small set of other, relatively secondary, 'other duties' to the school or community, such as school committee work, monitoring the lunch room, or addressing community meetings. In each of these domains, the DOTT (Duties of the Teacher) list identifies several elements (sub-areas), for a total of 15 across all areas; many of these have sub-elements under them (a total of 15 more); beyond that are many detailed requirements in the text which move the total distinguishable requirements over the hundred mark².

Performance that is *satisfactory* on most but not all of these is required in order to be at the level of a *competent* teacher³. This is a considerable achievement in most school contexts, but it is one that can be achieved by many people who diligently develop their training, knowledge, natural talents, and experience. Performing *well* on most of these dimensions (and competently on the others) is what it takes to be a more-than-merely-competent teacher—to be what we usually call a *good* teacher. The *outstanding* teacher reaches the highest standards in several categories, and does well on the others. Doing as well as that is a goal towards which we teachers should not only aspire, but towards which we can all make significant progress.

Some people find it inappropriate to attempt to 'reduce' the subtleties of good teaching to a checklist. Of course, one can't do that, any more than one can reduce the subtleties of musical composition to a text on the subject. But that doesn't mean there's something improper about trying to 'reduce' a melody to musical notation, or to 'reduce' the essence of good health to the content of the textbooks used in medical school, i.e., to set it out in language that everyone can read. The process of analysis is not a 'reduction' in an objectionable sense, it is a first step towards understanding something complex. Moreover, the history of protecting civil rights—and here that means the rights of children as well as teachers and parents—absolutely requires spelling out contracts and liabilities, so that neither employers nor employees can place their own variable interpretations on vague generalities. What protection does a teacher who cannot appeal to a DOTT list have against a principal, perhaps a new principal, who simply doesn't like the way that he or she teaches?

Again, what road map should a teacher use in developing a systematic approach to professional development? What blueprint should a teacher college use to decide what to put into the curriculum? How can we tell students thinking about teaching as a career just what it involves? What can we offer the media to explain why teaching isn't what you do if you can't do anything else? The justification for a duties list is that it helps answer these important questions—and many others.

JOB DESCRIPTIONS vs. GENERIC DUTIES vs. JOB-SPECIFIC DUTIES

When teaching positions are advertised, or even when a job description is written, only the *distinguishing features* of the job are mentioned, that is, the features which *distinguish it from the job of other teachers*, e.g., "teaching upper secondary mathematics". That's only the tip of the

² The entirely independent study by ETS which led to the Praxis teacher evaluation package identified 113 tasks.

³ Exactly which ones are necessary and which are to be regarded as merely desirable is partly a matter for negotiation in the light of the supply of qualified personnel and the commitment to quality by the administration, the school board, the community, and the teachers' organization. But, as with functional literacy, it's also partly a matter of objective necessity about the meaning of the terms. No one can negotiate away the necessity to be able to do most of these things to meet the basic semantic requirements for applying the term "competent (or good) teacher".

iceberg, although it's the most important part. The list provided here—the DOTT list—describes the whole of the iceberg, the generic duties of teaching, but at a more general level than the job description. Most of these duties are not stated explicitly in the usual process of enrolling, training, and hiring teachers, but are simply implicit in the social context of teaching. These are the duties common to all teaching jobs: they define the profession of teaching, and *distinguish it from the work of other professions*. For example, the teacher has the task of maintenance of order in the classroom, whether teaching in a particular inner-city school, or in a strict military school. That's part of the generic duties of the teacher, and it doesn't show up in a job description—it's presupposed. It does show up in the DOTT list (as part of the group of instructional skills).

So the DOTT list is much more *comprehensive* than the job description, and the job description is more *specific* than the DOTT list. But even the job description is still not very specific about *exactly* what will count as satisfactory maintenance of order (or for that matter exactly what will count as satisfactory teaching of mathematics). Deciding on that is part of what we'll call the *site-level interpretation of the duties*. This interpretation is usually done by an on-site evaluator—often a principal or a department chair. In the (usual) absence of the DOTT, and in the absence of highly effective training, this is a largely judgmental process of applying to the particular case what the evaluator *thinks* are the general duties of a teacher, plus what s/he *thinks* is the proper interpretation of the job description, plus whatever s/he *thinks* are the site-specific “other duties”.

The on-site evaluators should be well trained in evaluating all the dimensions of performance referred to in the DOTT and the job description, and should be regularly retested. Otherwise, there is certain to be considerable difference between their interpretations at different sites, which means inequity. Furthermore, the particular biases of individual evaluators towards particular teachers, whom they usually know well, will have more play when thorough training is lacking. And there may also be a ‘baseline bias’ to the evaluators’ ratings—they may all be too near the bottom end (or the top end) of a reasonable interpretation of the DOTT.⁴

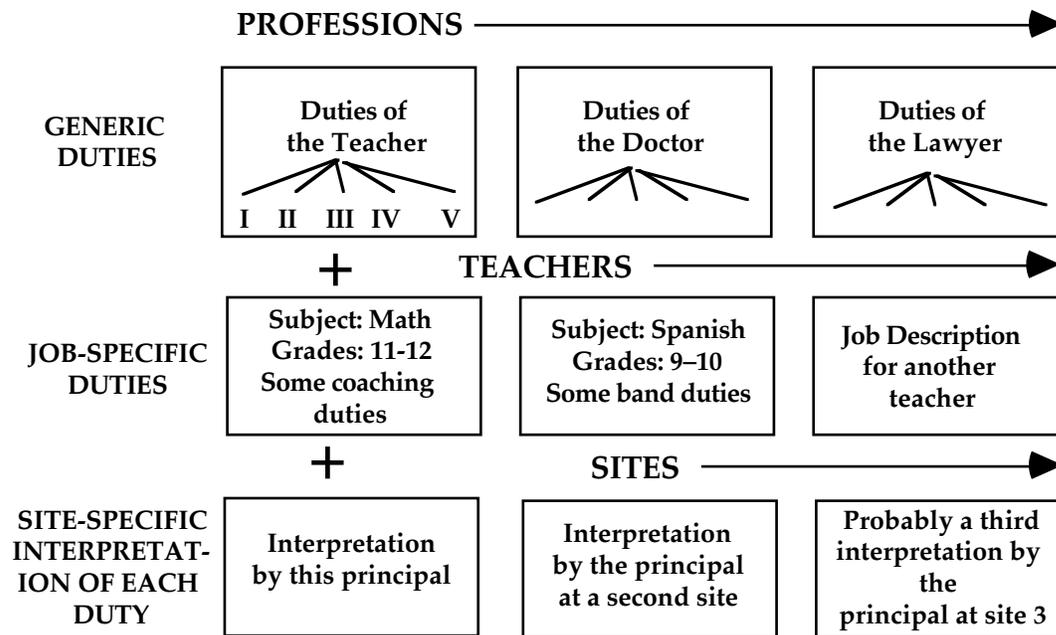
Just as the DOTT refers generically to teaching some subject matter—and the job description spells out what that is to be—the DOTT also refers to “other duties” which will vary from state to state and site to site. These include such obligations as school bus duties, attendance at church services in a religious school—or they may be state-required duties (a much longer list is given at the relevant point in the checklist below). Schools should try to spell out such duties in writing—and the justification for them—as early as when sending materials to interested inquirers and certainly when interviewing candidates. Specific interpretation of what these amount to in practice eventually depends on the site evaluator, but it can be made much clearer than is commonly the case. Spelling these out avoids misunderstanding and injustice just as spelling out the generic duties of the teacher does.

Thus the job-specific duties include: (i) satisfactory performance in the specialty teaching area and/or grade level of the job, as defined in the job description (e.g., lower elementary); (ii) the specific, practical-level, interpretation of the generic duties, as made (or as it should have been made) by the on-site evaluator(s); and (iii) the other site-specific duties, as mentioned in the

⁴ Administrator pressure often causes teachers to use a baseline bias towards overgrading their students, due to the administration not wanting to face the complaints from parents when too many D and F grades are given out. In a recent Virginia case, an algebra teacher was fired because she refused to increase the grades for students who were in fact doing badly in algebra. The rationalization used by the administration was that the students were being discouraged by this ‘negative reinforcement’, and that no-one would take algebra if it were allowed to continue. Contrast this with Jaime Escalante’s tough grading approach in his calculus classes. Reality *is* tough, and if secondary school students are insulated from that, they are being educated for a dream world rather than the real world.

previous paragraph. Their relationship to other levels of duties is shown in Figure 1.

[Insert Figure 1 about here.]



There are limits to what a school can put into a job description or into the Other Duties category, or build into their ground-level interpretations. Professional integrity and ethical considerations must be respected. For example, any policy involving 40 preparations a week, a ‘no bad grades for the mayor’s children’ grading policy, or requiring that most class time be spent on getting the few slowest students through the state minimum competency exam, is unacceptable. On the upside, some districts take pride in their commitment to certain across-the-curriculum duties such as teaching about a particular ethnic tradition, and—where appropriate for the district—these can properly be added to the list under Other Duties.

A school’s distinctive ‘philosophy’ has a place there, if consistent with professional and ethical standards, particularly in a private school. For example, a military school’s strong disciplinary stance—if students’ rights are not violated—can be part of the teacher/student/parent contract, as can a non-directive approach or a religious theme. But in a public school, any school ‘philosophy’ that involves a commitment to a single controversial approach raises serious ethical and policy questions, e.g., a policy that students who are not native English speakers must be taught by bilingual teachers in separate classrooms, or that fast learners (or slow learners) should never be taught in separate classrooms. In general, any such commitment will need the agreement of all those involved, not just of a school board. Of particular importance in the evaluation of teaching is the commitment of a school to one

stereotype of good teaching, for example, to an “all positive reinforcement” approach. That is an arbitrary and narrow approach, and there is no practical need or clear advantage to adopting a single approach.

HOW THIS LIST WAS DEVELOPED

The DOTT list was developed from an early draft by the author, revised in the light of the few efforts in the (mostly fugitive) literature subsequently uncovered, and with the help of some graduate seminars in educational personnel evaluation. It was then widely circulated and revised repeatedly in the light of comments from several thousand experienced teachers, administrators, parents, and lawyers—and students—in Australia and the USA⁵. Versions were then published so as to reach a wider audience⁶, and repeatedly revised again in the light of later work (especially the Praxis project at ETS), comments from readers, and most recently, the TEMP project staff. There will still be disagreements about the list, and comments from readers are very welcome; they will be treated most seriously. One potential source of disagreement is discussed under the next heading in an effort to avoid a common misunderstanding.

THE NATURE OF DUTIES

Duties lists are not obtained by simply doing what are conventionally referred to as ‘job analyses’. Such analyses are usually based on a time sampling of what teachers *actually* do, or a survey which asks about what they *believe* they do, or what they or someone else (e.g., an administrator) *thinks is important* amongst the things they do. None of that gets you to what they are *should be doing*—i.e., can reasonably be required to do. So it is completely inappropriate to use job analyses *as* duty statements; nevertheless job analyses substantially *overlap* duties statements, since there isn’t a total gap between what people do and what they should be doing. Hence, some job analyses—notably, the one done by ETS for the Praxis project—have been carefully studied for items that might have been overlooked here.

Two reasons why empirical surveys cannot form an ultimate basis for evaluating teachers (which is just one of several functions of the DOTT list) are: (i) a survey will uncover many activities that teachers have no obligation to do but do from habit or local custom or because they are so ordered—for reasons that may be bad; and (ii) it is sure to miss or downplay many things that teachers are obliged to do when the occasion arises, but almost never have to do, such as helping young children in the event of a flood. Even surveys that ask about the importance of various tasks, and not just about their frequency, run into a third problem: (iii) they cannot distinguish what is seen as best practice from what is in fact required.

The DOTT list, on the other hand, is a *normative* list, a list of what teachers can *legitimately* be held responsible for knowing and doing, something that is not related in any simple way to what they in fact know and do⁷. The nearest thing to developing a list of duties is developing a

⁵ There were no apparent differences between the two countries.

⁶ The first version of this list appeared in Scriven, M. (1988) "Duty-Based Teacher Evaluation," *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education* 1(4), 319-334. A revised version is in Scriven, M. (1988), "Evaluating Teachers as Professionals: the Duties-based Approach," in *Teacher Evaluation: Six prescriptions for success* (pp. 110-142, eds. S. J. Stanley and W. J. Popham (ASCD, 1988); the latter is available through ERIC's document reproduction service as EDUCATION 299 683.

⁷ For example, the list is not titled "The Responsibilities of the Teacher", although that seems somewhat less moralistic, because that language suggests a school can define nearly anything it likes as part of the "The Responsibilities of the Teacher", whereas an ethical

code of professional ethics, or a system of normative ethics governing something like psychological testing or avoiding sexual harassment in the workplace. Developing codes of normative ethics requires a methodology substantially different from the methodology of empirical or judgmental job analyses. (There is also some analogy with drafting legislation, and with defining terms in current use, or rules of grammar.)

Nevertheless, the five main *headings* for the categories of duties in the DOTT are not too different from what might come from a job analysis⁸. But the similarity with a job analysis is superficial. As the sub-headings emerge, and then the third and fourth level headings—and the sub-text is added to that—a great deal of interpretation, conceptualization, justification, and classification is required, requiring us to go far beyond the descriptive process. Nor is the process here like developing a set of theorems in geometry or the results from a survey. Normative analysis is its own special kind of task. Some of the process, including explanations, justifications, and elaborations, is referred to in Notes attached to some of the detailed descriptions. Notes are also used to explain why some common inclusions in such lists are not present in this one.

The language here is tailored to the duties of the elementary and secondary teacher, but relatively small changes convert it to apply to college teachers, adult educators, and those outside the standard educational system⁹. In a research university, there is of course a further dimension of duties relating to the production of research.

USES FOR THE LIST

Taking the previous discussion of uses of the list a little further, and summarizing them, the list can be used in eight somewhat different ways.

- (i) For personal or political reasons, it can be used—as mentioned in the opening paragraph—as support for the claim that teaching is both demanding and diverse.
- (ii) Two further uses that are coupled to each other are: for the person considering entry to the profession; and
- (iii) for someone recruiting entrants or applicants. In both cases we need to convey a fairly detailed idea of what teaching involves, not rely on the impressions gathered from prior observation of practitioners.
- (iv) An important use is in designing the curriculum for teacher training institutions—study of this list will show some notable gaps in the usual curriculum.
- (v) The list is a useful guide for a teacher planning a self-development program with or without the assistance of helpers.
- (vi) The list can also be used by colleagues, mentors, or supervisors as a basis for monitoring the progress of teachers who are interested in professional development.

element enters into the notion of duties. That ethical requirement imposes the further requirement of legitimacy, by contrast with the preference of the employer.

⁸ We described them informally above and use that language in the profile below, although in the detailed list that comes later we use the slightly more exact language: Knowledge of Subject Matter, Instructional Competence, Assessment Competence, Professionalism, and Other Duties. Although it's somewhat unusual to give Assessment full equality with the other competencies, the need to do so can be demonstrated, in part by using needs assessment methodology.

⁹ The post-secondary version will be found in an appendix in *A Consumer Guide*, referenced below.

- (vii) It can also be used for summative purposes (i.e., to assist personnel decisions¹⁰) e.g., by principals, personnel officers, superintendents, or school boards; and
- (viii) in a court of law or arbitration hearing where a personnel decision is appealed, by judges or juries.

The list has a special importance in connection with these last two uses because an argument has been put forward in the literature that *only* a duties list can be used as a basis for personnel evaluation decisions. This view rejects the use of all 'style' criteria—e.g., high frequency of question-asking, pre-announced lesson objectives, use of eye contact—in any evaluative checklist and from a judge's consideration¹¹. (According to an extension of this view, the same conclusion applies to most types of evaluation for professional development.) To the extent this view is correct, the DOTT list is not just the basis for *one* model of teacher evaluation—the so-called Duties-Based Teacher Evaluation model (DBTE)—but the only legitimate basis for teacher evaluation, until a better one emerges. The key implication of the DBTE approach is that *teachers can teach however they like, as long as it's ethical and effective in imparting valuable learning, within applicable curriculum and resource constraints*.

On this view, teachers can never legitimately be evaluated on the similarity of their teaching style to what happens statistically to be the most successful approach identified in the research literature—or the one most favored by the principal, or by some visiting guru or evaluator. To do that is like evaluating professional golfers by comparing their swing to that of past masters instead of counting the strokes it takes them to get around the course. In fact it's worse, for every teacher who has been on the job for a decade or two can remember several changes in the supposedly best teaching style. One does not evaluate anything worthwhile against style except stylishness. Nor is the alternative a massive effort to use outcome-based evaluation with state assessment results as the dependent variable, as in Tennessee. The DOTT accords a substantial place to outcome evidence, but it can be filled very well without the massive apparatus that is required to run a full-scale outcome-based approach. And an outcomes-*only* approach is not defensible, since the teacher has other duties besides imparting learning.

Consistent with the DBTE view, the most distinctive feature of the DOTT list, by comparison with any others in the literature, is the avoidance of *all* references to style criteria. This list also avoids another common error in checklists used for teacher evaluation: it does not require that teachers *use* multiple media or multiple approaches, it only requires that they *be able to use* (some of) them, so that they can use them when they think it appropriate (mainly when other approaches are not working well). It is simply an error to require that a variety be *used*—only the most effective should be used—and of course classroom visits become a circus when that requirement is on the list.

DOES THE LIST FAVOR TEACHERS—OR EMPLOYERS?

Teachers sometimes think the DOTT list is biased against them when they begin reading it, because quite early on there's a suggestion that some kinds of checking teacher competency on subject matter knowledge may occasionally be legitimate. They usually come around when they realize that the DOTT list grants them ownership over their way of teaching, and

¹⁰ Evaluation done to assist personnel decisions is called summative evaluation; evaluation done to assist professional development is called formative evaluation.

¹¹ The argument for this position will be found in, for example, Scriven, M. "Can Research-Based Teacher Evaluation be Saved?", in *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, Fall, 1990; reprinted in *Research-Based Teacher Evaluation*, (Kluwer, 1990).

recognizes much of their work that never gets credit in other approaches to teacher evaluation. School administrators sometimes think it's biased against them, because it denies their right to evaluate by reference to the style criteria which they commonly use today. Sometimes they come around as they begin to realize that it provides a much more easily defended basis for evaluation, and a much more professional role for the teacher that increases the teacher's responsibility for results.

In fact, it represents a tough 'render unto Caesar' position. On the one hand, it says to administrators: Don't micro-manage teachers unless (i) there's a persistent and demonstrable failure to perform a duty; (ii) there's an emergency (e.g., violence in the classroom); or (iii) there's an overall failure to communicate valuable learning. (The third possibility requires that you have gone through a serious process of evaluation with an appeal procedure.) Otherwise, you can only make *suggestions* about how to do things, and *you cannot fault teachers for ignoring those suggestions*. That is as true for probationers as it is for tenured teachers. The helping role is not to be confused with the evaluating role, and if you cannot arrange for different people to do each, you must explicitly separate the roles to the extent possible. If you do not, you are certainly acting unethically and the risk is increasing that you will lose in court.

In short, it is not possible to establish incompetence or competence or excellence by looking at the *way* a teacher performs (non-duty) procedures in the classroom, even if it's not the way you think is best or researchers think works best on the average—since that's a matter of style, and a vast range of styles works well for particular teachers in particular contexts. Teachers have no more obligation to do things the way that on the average works best than a researcher on the government payroll has an obligation to do things the way that on average works best. There is a major domain of professional responsibility that administrators must recognize if they want teachers to do the best they can for their students and take responsibility for their own development.

On the other hand, the DBTE approach (which centers on using the DOTT list) says to teachers: Don't forget that you do have certain duties, e.g., maintaining a classroom environment in which all students can learn, getting through the required curriculum, knowing the subject matter, using valid tests and scoring procedures, etc. You are accountable for what your students did and achieved, although of course only *within* the (considerable) range over which you have control. While that range varies greatly depending on the students and the school context—so what can reasonably be expected of a teacher varies considerably—it is a sign of irresponsibility to argue that the many factors which *limit* that range *eliminate* your responsibility for the rest of it.

You didn't sign on to do things the way the principal likes to see them done, when that's just a matter of style. But you did sign on to do a good job as a teacher, so it's up to you to be sure that you are successful—and preferably improving. You can do this by using serious self-evaluation and, for objectivity, subjecting yourself to evaluation by others chosen or accepted by you (this is one of the elements in Professionalism on the DOTT). This obligation to self-assessment—to check on your own success—applies whether you use the approved style or a highly unusual style, whether you are a teacher or a psychotherapist or an entrepreneur. While you do have right to do things in the way that you judge best, the only basis for your right to the job is success. Accountability obliges you to be able to demonstrate that success to third parties¹²—not merely to your own satisfaction—just as accountability requires the principal to make sure—and be able to demonstrate to her or his superiors that s/he is a competent

¹² The representatives of the parents whose students are in your charge, and of those who pay you—the taxpayers or school fee payers.

evaluator of teaching—and hence that you are in fact successful. In the workplace, there is no ‘presumption of success until proven unsuccessful’ for teachers (or administrators) any more than for doctors, because others—in our case students—are at risk.

The requirement for serious self-evaluation is a heavy one, and not always recognized as part of every professional job. It is not likely to be accepted by teachers if they are treated as workers who are constantly being told how to do things, rather than as professionals who are responsible for getting certain things done in the way they judge best. There’s good sense behind the view that if administrators want to micro-manage teachers, then it is they and not the teachers who fail, if failure occurs. Treating teachers as professionals is a two-way business; the administrator has to relinquish control over something if she or he wants someone to take responsibility for running it. That’s the ‘render unto Caesar’ part.

In the end, the key question about the list is not whether it favors teachers or employers, but whether it favors children (more generally, students).

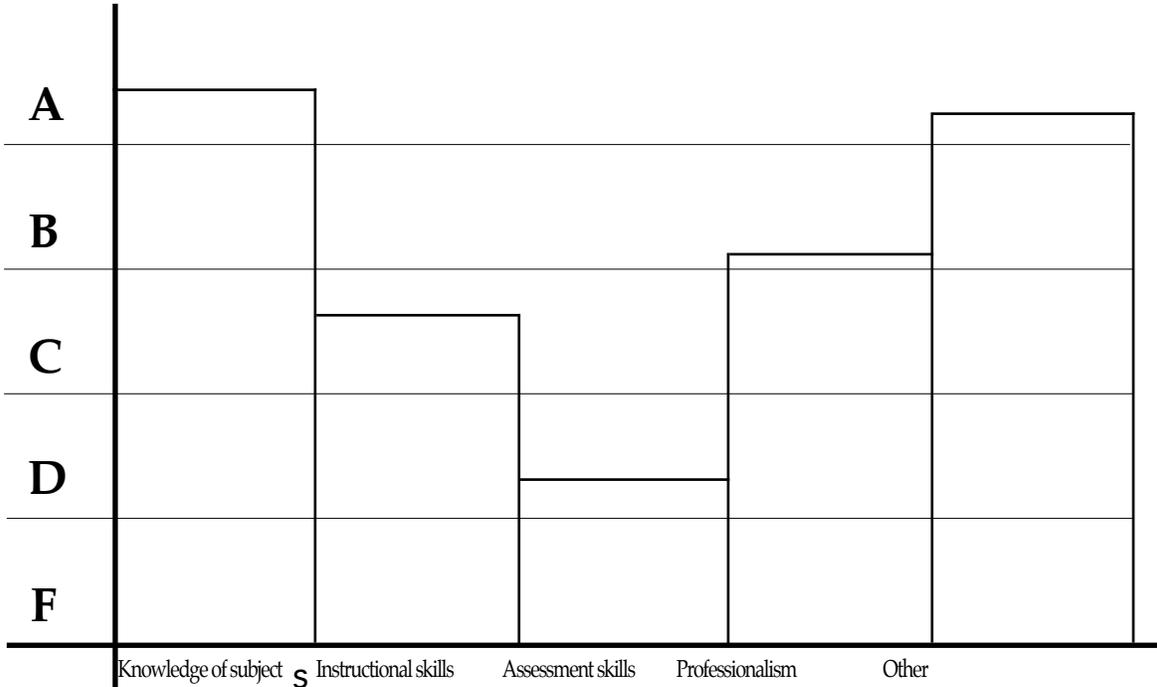
GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF TEACHER PERFORMANCE

For many of the eight uses mentioned above it is helpful to generate an expandable *profile* from the DOTT list. This is done by setting up a bar chart which can be unpacked at several levels of detail. The ‘first level’ or overall chart shows the five main domains of duties for teachers as the columns, with three or four horizontal lines separating the usual levels of performance (e.g., Unacceptable, Needs Improvement, Satisfactory, Good, Excellent). By plotting the performance of a particular teacher, the *general* areas of strength and weakness are easily seen. We’d normally just use A, B, C, D, F as shorthand for the levels of teacher performance, but to make matters clearer in this sample, the full translations have been added in the middle of the relevant regions.

Figure 2 shows how the profile for one teacher might look:

TEACHING PROFILE

Teacher: Term:
 School: C. W. Forrester High School



A: EXCELLENT B: GOOD C: SATISFACTORY D: NEEDS IMPROVEMENT F: UNACCEPTABLE

FURTHER COMMENTS BY EVALUATOR, IF ANY:

SIGNED:..... NAME IN CAPS:.....

TEACHER SIGNS TO SIGNIFY RECEIPT AND DISCUSSION OF ABOVE:.....

FURTHER COMMENTS BY TEACHER, IF ANY:

Further comments may be attached: if done, indicate with a check here:

Duties of the Teacher: Fig. 2

You can see that this particular teacher shows up on the profile as falling into the Needs Improvement region in the domain of Assessment Skill. Exactly what is the problem? To answer that question, we might just explain what skills are unacceptably weak in a text box below the graph, or we could expand the domain of Assessment Skill by using a second bar

chart to show how well that teacher is doing on the four sub-dimensions¹³ of Assessment Competence (spelled out in the DOTT list below). That ‘sub-profile’ chart would be attached to the first one, and would of course have the title Assessment Skill, instead of Overall Performance.

The expanded profile provides a more detailed indication of where improvement is needed. It might, for example, show that the teacher does well on three of these sub-dimensions but badly on quality of test construction. If more detail was felt to be useful, some text could be attached, or *that* dimension could be unpacked in a further chart. The areas for remediation or professional development are thus easily made as clear as necessary.

To get a specific rating on a scale, with most of the duties, requires an evaluator to apply the generic standards to a particular case. (The evaluator may be the teacher in person, when the DOTT list is being used for self-assessment). Thus *judgmental standards of quality* come in at the site level, in the process of applying the DOTT list. Keeping them reasonably similar from site to site requires specific training of the site evaluators, usually the principals. It can also be assisted by spelling out the standards as much as possible, in a personnel handbook for the district; this process could be improved by the use of an accompanying video. The graph thus represents the result of applying both the generic and the job-specific standards by means of these site-specific judgments.

Besides site-specific judgments that are made in the course of applying the standards, there are also judgments to be made about what the generic standards are to be. In the usual system of government schools in the U.S., this means that district- or state-level judgments have to be made prior to the adoption of a generic duties list by any district or state. This might be done by acceptance or modification of the DOTT list or of the Praxis list, or of some other source. For example, the district might decide that they will require all teachers in the district to be bilingual in Spanish by a certain date; or they might think that the DOTT list requires more knowledge of testing than they judge to be necessary, and delete one or two sentences. In the case of an autonomous private school, the corresponding process would require the governing board to make a decision about setting standards at the generic level. In the private school case, this would be a site-specific judgment, but it does not replace the need for the site-specific application/interpretation judgments that the headmaster or headmistress will have to make in each particular case of evaluating a teacher.

STANDARDS AND LEVELS

So far, we’ve been talking about quality standards in teacher evaluation at the job-specific and the generic levels. There is a higher level in the organization to which standards apply—the *system level*. This is the most general level—the system standards control *the way a system of teacher evaluation is set up and run*: they will include such matters as whether there is an appeal process, whether the cost of the system is feasible, etc. They have been addressed in some detail in the well-known reference work, *The Personnel Evaluation Standards* (Sage, 1988). The four main dimensions of those standards are Accuracy, Feasibility, Propriety, and Utility. They are as applicable to the evaluation of administrators or coaches or janitors as to teachers, so they are profession-independent, in fact vocation-independent. These supervene on the first diagram above the level of the generic standards, and might be thought of as *system standards*.

¹³ These are sometimes called elements—see *Teacher Evaluation Glossary* by Wheeler, Haertel and Scriven, published by CREATE in 1992.

To recapitulate, then. At the ‘ground level’ (or ‘coal face’) in the evaluation of teaching there are the *judgmental* standards—the interpretations or translations of the higher standards. At the next level up are the *site-specific* standards (teach mathematics, supervise the lunch room); then there are the *generic* standards, which define the profession itself (communicate, maintain order, test, etc.); and at the top level there are the *system* standards. The standards at each level have to be met independently—having clear generic standards does not ensure that the system in which they are embedded meets system standards, nor does it ensure that the site-specific standards will be defensible; and none of the above ensure the quality of the *judgmental* standards, i.e., the standards as interpreted by the site administrators at the ground level.

Generally, the standards at a given level are implementations (more specific applications or instantiations) of standards at a higher level; always, the higher level ones control the lower ones. Under challenge, therefore, it is not only necessary to be able to show that any given standard is consistent with standards at the next level up but it is generally desirable to show that it is an implementation of a higher level standard (e.g., teaching mathematics is an implementation of teaching). The higher level standards naturally include some that refer to matters that go beyond those considered at the next more specific level: the system standards, for example, are somewhat further-reaching than the generic standards, since they refer to such matters as appeal procedures (which are not one of the duties of the teacher).

So far, we have been talking about the relation between standards *by level of generality*. Now we come to the specification of standards at a given level, *by level of quality*. At the generic level of the DOTT list there is a range of language to express the several *quality* standards (sometimes referred to as “performance standards”). In the following list, the term we’ll normally use is distinguished by initial capitals. The levels of acceptable performance are: (i) Satisfactory, the level of minimum competence, often referred to as “Acceptable” or less often as “Adequate”; (ii) Good (often called “Superior”); and (iii) Excellent (sometimes referred to as “Outstanding” or “Master level”).

Reference to the first acceptable quality level—Satisfactory—is usually indicated in the DOTT by the use of phrasing like “The teacher *must* be able to...”, by contrast with the second level, Good, where the phrasing refers to what the teacher *should* be able to do. (The difference between these two levels is also a matter of how many exceptions are allowed within a category.) Reference to the third level, Excellent, is intended when comments are introduced by language like “It is desirable (preferable, ideal) if...”, and of course excellence is manifested by higher achievement levels on more dimensions and sub-dimensions, with fewer weak spots and few or no extremely weak spots. Where no specific distinguishing language is used, the levels are to be taken as a sequence of points on a continuum that are to be specified in the process of setting job-specific standards. That process is one of the key places where interpretation comes in at the generic level. Of course, interpretation *always* comes in at the ground level.

The details of setting the levels of quality need to be implemented at a fairly local level—usually at the district level, for two reasons. First, the interpretation at the ground level needs to be closely supervised, and state capitals are too far away for that; second, there is at least one other local standard that has to be fitted into the ones described. This is the minimum *employable* standard. It must be, to some extent, a matter of local preferences and the supply of applicants. If it is necessary to appoint people who do not yet meet minimum *professional* standards, as indicated by the duties list, a process of professional development is then urgent and the initial appointment should always be probationary.

WEIGHTING THE DUTIES The five domains of duty listed here are often thought to have

different degrees of importance. Some teachers, for example, think it's clear that the last category ("Other Duties to the School and Community" which covers committee work, parent communications, some supervision of student activities outside the classroom, community service where expected, etc.) is not as important as Instructional Competence. However, it's clear that most schools can't run unless this last category of duties is performed, and they do not run well if it is performed badly. So it seems a little misleading to treat it as any less important than the other categories of performance about which one can say no more than that they, too, are really essential. The best solution is to distinguish between *the necessity* and *the importance* of domains, and to treat all five domains as necessary. It turns out that for most purposes one does not have to get into differential weighting.

Now, it is highly desirable to avoid differential weighting, if possible, since the validity of such weights is hard to establish, and even if it can be satisfactorily settled, there remains the problem of setting an acceptable minimum overall score. It is easier and more directly relevant to accept the need for teachers to achieve a minimum level of performance in *each* category in order to be judged Satisfactory, as is suggested here. (And similarly for Good and Excellent.) One may wish to amplify this requirement by requiring satisfactory levels of performance on specific items in the sub-levels. Then one may wish to make a similar determination for higher achievement levels: for example, in order to be classified as exhibiting Outstanding performance, one might say that a Good (rather than Satisfactory) level has to be achieved on three (or four) of the five dimensions. And one should decide whether this higher level *must* be met on any specific dimensions, or just on any three (or four) of the five. Thus, the DOTT is an instrument which a district or school can fine-tune to suit their own sense of what is appropriate for different teaching performance levels, without deciding on relative importance; this is part of *the interpretation or judgmental process at the generic level* rather than at the ground level. (In the first diagram in this paper, it is assumed that this has already occurred, and hence what is there described as generic duties has been tailored to the local needs by these judgmental decisions.)

For special teaching awards, for promotions, or for merit pay increases when these are limited in number, one does need a ranking of candidates, and one might think it is necessary to decide on a comparative weighting of the dimensions against each other in order to achieve this. But in fact candidates can often be ranked quite clearly according to the number of Good and Excellent ratings they achieve. If weighting *is* required to settle ties, the best bet is to weight all five dimensions as equally important. One thus avoids the complaints by advocates of whichever ones are down-graded, and as mentioned it is very hard to give technically sound arguments for differential weighting.

It is, however, not a matter of equal *difficulty* to achieve an acceptable level of performance in each of these categories. The difficulty varies with the person and the school, of course, but we have ample evidence that many people, even well-educated adults with strong motivation, are simply incapable of ever achieving a satisfactory level of *instructional effectiveness* in a particular school context. This should be no more surprising than the obvious fact that other well-educated adults, no matter how hard they try, cannot achieve an adequate grasp of vector calculus or spoken Japanese. And it has no more bearing on someone's value as a person than those other limitations imply. Rewards and jobs are, for good reason, not best given for effort or virtue alone, only for achievement.

DETERMINING PERFORMANCE In determining performance, the general principle that one should, wherever possible, use multiple methods and multiple sources should be kept in mind. It is for the most part obvious what kind of evidence—and from what sources—is

required to establish a teacher's level of achievement. It may be worth noting that we recommend the use of four relatively understressed sources of data, in addition to the usual ones: (i) a teacher's own portfolio (constructed according to some guidelines); (ii) clear evidence of subject-matter competence/excellence (even at the kindergarten and early primary level); (iii) student ratings of instruction; and (iv) a *random* sample of student papers or project work, along with the associated tests, grades, and comments provided to the students as feedback¹⁴.

It should also be remembered, as stressed above, that the duties as described in DOTT are often not specific enough to avoid the necessity for judgment by some of the evaluators (at what we have called the ground level). At that level, we need to develop further written materials and train whoever will be doing the evaluating by using supervision of their evaluation procedures and/or videotapes. The National Board effort and the Praxis project are undertaking that, at a cost of millions; it is far beyond CREATE's resources. The key question about their undertakings are whether they are based on a sound generic set of standards. The following list is put forward as a candidate for that status.

OUTLINE OF DUTIES OF THE TEACHER

1. KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER

- A. *In the fields of special competence*
- B. *In across-the-curriculum subjects*

2. INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCE

- A. *Communication skills*
- B. *Management skills*
 - i. *Management of process*
 - ii. *Management of progress*
 - iii. *Management of emergencies*
- C. *Course construction and improvement skills*
 - i. *Course planning*
 - ii. *Selection and creation of materials*
 - iii. *Use of available resources (a. Local; b. Media; c. Specialists)*
 - iv. *Evaluation of course, teaching, materials, and curriculum*

3. ASSESSMENT COMPETENCE

- A. *Knowledge about student assessment*
- B. *Test construction/administration skills*
- C. *Grading/ranking/scoring practices*
 - i. *Process*
 - ii. *Output*
- D. *Recording and reporting student achievement*
 - i. *Knowledge about reporting achievement*

¹⁴ More details are provided in the the publications of the TEMP project, and a forthcoming volume *Teacher Evaluation: A Consumer's Guide* (Corwin, 1993)

ii. Reporting process (To: a. Students; b. Administrators; c. Parents; d. Others)

4. PROFESSIONALISM

- A. Professional ethics*
- B. Professional attitude*
- C. Professional development*
- D. Service to the profession*
 - i. Knowledge about the profession*
 - ii. Helping beginners and peers*
 - iii. Work for professional organizations*
 - iv. Research on teaching*
- E. Knowledge of duties*
- F. Knowledge of the school and its context*

5. OTHER DUTIES TO THE SCHOOL & COMMUNITY

1. KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER

A. In fields of special competence

Knowledge about the topics covered in the curriculum must be current, correct, and comprehensive, to the degree appropriate to the grade level. It must be at least enough to ensure that appropriate materials for covering an appropriate curriculum can be: (i) selected or prepared; (ii) explained; (iii) such that student understanding of them can be appropriately assessed; and (iv) such that most student questions can be answered correctly. When questions cannot be answered, as must certainly be expected with respect to specialized high school projects, it must be known where answers can be found by the teacher, typically in time for the next class. This requirement of 'resource awareness' should include more than knowledge of reference works and libraries—it should extend to local experts, art galleries, etc., and perhaps to online resources.

NOTE 1: Suggested educational backgrounds for good subject matter competence are: for high school teachers—two years of successful college study of each subject taught (not including 'methods' courses); for elementary teachers—one year of such study. A degree with a major in the (substantive, not methods) subject should be required where teaching of college preparatory courses is involved.

NOTE 2. Requiring some kind of evidence of continuing competence in subject matter at regular intervals (perhaps every four or five years) is a reasonable expectation by the employer, since: (i) even for recent graduates, completion of an accredited training program—or licensing on some other basis—is often not a reliable indicator of appropriate subject matter competence; (ii) for mid-career teachers, some knowledge and skills are likely to have evaporated or become outdated; (iii) other knowledge often needs to be added to that covered in college when teachers went through—it may represent a large part of the curriculum (e.g. in earth science, social studies, and general biology) and sometimes represents most of it (e.g. computer studies); (iv) updating is a crucial dimension of continuing professional development as well as accountability; and (v) the 'paper trail' from such tests provide an objective record of progress. This requirement of testing continuing competence may mean taking (or giving) teacher competency tests in subject matter areas, or using other measures

such as recent college course grades in subject matter areas. The society suffers severely because most doctors and lawyers do not take any such tests, and we should not impose the same costs on our children.

B. In across-the-curriculum subjects

These subjects are often taken to include some or all of: communication skills (reading, literate and legible writing, listening, speaking), study skills (including note-taking, perseverance, and the discipline to do unsupervised homework), personal/ social and vocational skills (including time-management, and self-assessment), basic computer skills, internet and database search skills, ecological literacy, and critical thinking. While only a minimum level of competence in these is normally required for teaching them, even that can reasonably be taken to include a college level of literacy in writing, speaking, listening, and editing (including the 'proof-reading' ability to recognize—and correct—nearly all spelling, punctuation and grammatical errors of the kind that students are likely to make). A good teacher will normally add a modest competence in the use of computers in the classroom and in the school; a commitment to making students better and keener learners and not just more learned; and a concern to help them develop inquiry and survival skills, not just memorization.

NOTE. Some of these areas have been added to the obligations of teachers quite recently. With or without adequate pre- or in-service training, they—and other duties in the list below and above—often become part of the explicit obligations of the teacher through the process of social change, sometimes without serious explicit negotiation. This is a normal part of the obligation of professionals to keep up with changes in their field. To some extent that obligation covers the mastery of new areas, but negotiation as to the speed of—and the support provided for—the effort is normally appropriate when the additions are substantial. Of course, it is and should be recognized as a path to excellence in career development if teachers take a special interest in one or more of these areas and develop their knowledge and performance levels well above the middle levels of competency that are expected of a good teacher.

2. INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCE

A. Communication skills

The teacher must be able to communicate valuable learning to students of the age and ability range that will be encountered in the place of employment. Valuable learning includes: information, explanations, evaluations, justifications, expectations, directions, skills, approaches, and attitudes. Success in communication requires effectiveness in presentation (at least the use of appropriate vocabulary, examples, clearly audible speech, clearly legible chalk-board or overhead writing), sensitivity to the level of listener comprehension (confirmed by appropriate questioning, observing, and testing), and skill in the creation, maintenance and rekindling of attention with fresh examples and illustrations. Even good teachers must often renew their efforts to make the material fresh and interesting to all parties. Excellent teachers are notable for their ability to be inspiring or exciting as well as being impressively effective communicators. (Being inspiring and exciting is not a matter of putting on a show, but a matter of the long-term, perhaps entirely private, effects on the student—possibly manifested as a change in attitude to reading or mathematics or biology, or school, or a vocation.) The task of teaching requires communication *for retention*—not just being understood but being remembered—an achievement aided by overlearning and individualization, and by the creation of memorable materials and examples.

Communication skills are also required with respect to peers and parents, supervisors, and sometimes community groups. Imagination and creativity can illuminate the presentation process and should be valued, as should the ability to make students enjoy learning, but none of these is a substitute for success with straightforward communication of essential learning, and any teacher evaluation system should be careful to avoid scoring for the show rather than the outcomes.

NOTE 1: Knowledge of the needs, talents, and learning styles of special groups that may be encountered is important, including the hearing- and sight-impaired, physically disabled, emotionally handicapped, local ethnic groups, males/females, non-native speakers, fast and slow learners. While acquiring skill in a second language to improve communication cannot be generally required, even where it would be extremely useful, it is one sign of high professional commitment and a step on the road to excellence.

NOTE 2. Some general knowledge of psychological development may be useful to the extent that is directly and obviously assists with the duties of communication and the choice or construction of appropriate materials. However, since individual students develop at very different rates, and are at very different points in their development at a given age, developmental approaches involve a substantial risk of stereotyping. In any case, knowledge of developmental psychology is no substitute for directly obtained knowledge of what the particular students in one's class can and could do.

NOTE 3. Raising the students' motivational level is properly taken to be part of being a successful communicator—but only within limits. Certainly, providing motivation cannot be treated by the teacher as simply the obligation of the student, parent, and/or counselor; but nor can its absence be treated as simply the fault of the teacher. The question is whether s/he has appropriate motivational skills and has used them appropriately. Inspiring students to break through to whole new levels of performance is a mark of a great teacher which is only an inspiration to—rather than a requirement on—all teachers. But there are certainly some students in some contexts where the failure to motivate is no more the teachers' fault than a heat wave, just as there are some teachers who think that speaking to the students about material the teacher knows (or, these days, just setting problems, and offering help with solving them) discharges their responsibility.

NOTE 4. The bridge between knowing a field and being able to teach it is now often said to involve what is called 'pedagogical content knowledge'; roughly, knowing how to represent the field for learners. It's both more and less than standard academic knowledge about the field. We are a long way from being able to give details about this yet, so it goes into the category of a field where the teacher engaged in professional development will be keeping an eye in the field: it should not form part of the requirements imposed by a supervisor, let alone an evaluator.

NOTE 5. In communicating learning, individual feedback is often as important as general remarks, and the way it is done involves considerable skill. It may be done in writing (perhaps as comments on assignments) or by means of verbal comments, and the latter may be in private or in a group. Negative and positive reinforcement are both defensible, at times, but there are unfair and unkind ways of communicating with individuals that should be avoided.

B. Management skills

(i) Management of process

Teachers must have the ability to control classroom behavior so that learning is readily possible—and can be assisted—for all students at all times, while preserving principles of

justice and avoiding excessively repressive conditions. If this cannot be done, the fault may lie with the administration, or the community, or the students—or a combination—not with the teacher; but that has to be proved, e.g., by the failure of other teachers, known to be excellent and experienced—it cannot be assumed. Justice requires making clear what the rules, requirements, and penalties are in any areas where penalties may be incurred—and enforcing the rules and penalties consistently. It is a mark of a good teacher that s/he is able—in many classrooms—to extend discipline to the maintenance of courtesy as well as the prevention of overt disobedience. Classroom control abilities should include the abilities: (a) to cope with two or three markedly different ability levels in the same room; (b) to manage two or three different instructional units simultaneously; and (c) to use a range of class modes including: seatwork and homework; one-on-one, whole-class and small-group discussions; questioning, question-answering, and question-stimulating; project work; and listening. Question-management includes: (a) the ability to encourage and deal with student inquiries in such a way as to encourage the inquirer to further exploration, as well as (b) the ability to cut students off when appropriate, and (c) the ability to ask questions in such a way as to maintain the involvement of the whole class during and after the first student's response. The ability to tutor effectively outside the classroom should also be in the teacher's repertoire. The teacher must also know when to call for assistance—and must do so when appropriate. When assistance in the form of volunteers or paraprofessionals is available for extended periods, management of these resources must be effective, efficient, and fair. A key to understanding the importance of classroom control is the recognition that its absence leads to disruption in the rest of the school, either through noise impact or through the grapevine or student transfer to other classes; and it leads to severe penalties for the 'innocent bystanders', the students who are willing but unable to learn because disruption is occurring in or near their classroom. Thus disciplinary control is rightly considered a minimum necessary condition for teacher competence. But a quiet classroom is not necessarily a learning classroom, and evaluation systems that reward quietness as such are seriously flawed—quietness is only a means to an end. Appropriate discipline must also be maintained outside the classroom when the teacher is in charge of non-classroom school activity, for example hall duty, lunchroom or playground supervision, on an excursion, or in recreational activities.

(ii) Management of progress

Beyond discipline is the need to cover the required or designed curriculum content with the appropriate level of student understanding. This is *management of learning progress*—achievement management—rather than *management of classroom process*, usually referred to as discipline. In progress management the requirement of *efficiency* in presentation becomes important, something which goes beyond the *effectiveness* mentioned under communication skills, or the maintenance of the *prerequisites for progress* that is covered by discipline. Progress management is time-management in the classroom. It has a micro- and a macro- level. At the micro-level, which focuses on individual students, it is desirable and arguably essential to have the ability to ensure high time-on-task (engaged time). The macro level skill, which is concerned with getting the whole class moved through the syllabus, is also facilitated by, but different from, high time-on-task; the latter is one way to *get more* done, but the former—the essential duty—*gets done what has to be done*. Time-on-task is aimed at efficiency in the use of the minutes in the class hour; overall achievement requires efficient management of the progress of learning through the complete set of class hours, and it includes topic selection, time-on-topic allocation, and test and assignment spacing. For some teachers, getting through the curriculum—with an appropriate level of learning—may be best facilitated in conjunction with relatively low time-on-task; only the former is a duty. Managing progress as well as

discipline for several groups working on different materials and at different rates is often seen as the most difficult aspect of contemporary teaching; it was, however, the standard situation in the one-room schoolhouse, and there is some evidence that graduates from such schools were as well educated as those from large schools.

NOTE: The ability to engender motivation to learn is at least as desirable for progress as the ability to achieve high time-on-task, and for some teachers it is stylistically incompatible with high time-on-task pressure. Moreover, the value and durability of what is learnt is more important than teaching with maximum efficiency; hence, even if what has just been said appears to point in another direction, the teacher must not be overly constrained by planning, and must look for and work with 'targets of opportunity' which may come from external news items or unexpected student reactions. Use of this strategy often provides large gains in learning and motivation. Management of progress also involves out-of-class tasks for the teacher and/or the student, such as counseling, setting the appropriate amount of homework at the appropriate time, and correcting/returning it with appropriate speed.

(iii) Management of emergencies

Teachers have moral as well as legal responsibility for preventing disasters that they can prevent by using reasonable care, and for coping with them to the extent reasonably possible if they do occur. Reasonable care often involves some advance planning and practice. Whether or not administrators discharge their responsibilities to arrange fire drills, for example, teachers should train students in getting out and clear of the building. More generally they should know what to do in the event of any of the following that is a significant possibility in their area: (a) fire; (b) flood, (c) tornado/typhoon/hurricane; (d) earthquake; (e) volcanic eruption; (f) blizzard; (g) civil disorder (fights, riots, bombs, tear gas, mob, or strikers entering the classroom); (h) violence in the classroom, including the use of guns and knives; (i) trauma, notably fractures, snakebite (or spider or scorpion bite), stab or gunshot wounds, burns, electrocution, choking, gas- or chemical poisoning and seizures; (j) other medical emergencies, such as severe bleeding and shock. (Six of the first eight have occurred within the last decade in a number of metropolitan school districts around the globe.) Certain classes, such as lab and workshop classes, involve further well-known risks and require appropriate knowledge of treatment and preventive procedures. Field trips or overnight stays introduce increased risk of additional hazards such as shark bite, jellyfish stings, toxic plant effects, and drowning. Being in charge of these entails the duty of mastering aquatic life-saving and CPR (cardiopulmonary resuscitation) techniques, treatment of fractures and hypothermia, and the identification of poisonous plants, snakes, spiders, etc. (The non-existence of training in a basic set of these coping skills in the usual preservice and inservice curricula is a serious deficiency.)

C. Course construction and improvement skills

(i) Course planning

The teacher should be able to develop course plans from a knowledge of: (a) the subject; (b) local curriculum and assessment regulations; (c) student ability/achievement levels in the classes taught; (d) student and societal needs; and (e) available resources. This usually requires knowledge about the needs and abilities of special groups, but always requires knowledge of the achievement level of the students; getting this will often require the use of testing (see below). In some communities, the teacher may have to develop a complete course curriculum, but this would be exceptional below the college level, and should not be expected there in most countries. However, it should be expected that sub-areas of almost any curriculum will often require the development of new or revised coverage by the teacher.

Course plans may include a list of instructional objectives and activities—and this may be required of probationers—but an experienced teacher may simply list topics for coverage during the current term (a course outline). These may be supplemented with notes on project, lab, shop, library, homework, test and field trip or internships, and a time-line, at an appropriate level of difficulty for each class or sub-group. The point reached on a given day must be indicated in the course plan, so as to facilitate the task of a competent substitute teacher and the need for inspection by a supervisor. Versions of these plans may be provided to the class, if this is helpful rather than inhibitive of note-taking practice, inquiry skill development, and creative opportunism in the choice of topics. Course design should be aimed at maximizing the potential of each student, within the framework of overall student load and the resources available; hence, for mixed-ability classes, it will normally include classwork and homework assignments at more than one level. High priorities in instructional design should normally be given to developing skills in investigation, critical and creative thinking and autonomous position-taking in each subject. The teacher's skills should include the ability to determine and deal with the hidden curriculum—of the subject materials and of the school (e.g., implicit value assumptions)—as well as the given curriculum, and to help students understand the relation of their education and achievements to society and to their own futures. It is essential that the teacher be able to make or deal with changes in the curriculum due to external decisions, local conditions, and the march of events and knowledge.

NOTE 1. No requirement is included here for detailed lesson plans (behavioral objectives, activities in ten-minute segments, etc.). Although these can be useful devices, especially for beginning teachers, many experienced teachers regard them as not merely unnecessary but as anathema. If required universally, they would cost a system good teachers, and if not *enforced* universally, they are unusable for reward or retribution. They should be seen as part of preservice education and of some remediation, but not as indicators of merit in a teacher. They are simply a component in one style which can work well, but not of all good styles. Detailed lesson plans of this kind are not required by substitutes, who frequently ignore them even when they are provided; but substitutes must at least be provided with a list of topics, marked to indicate which have been covered.

NOTE 2. No requirement to maintain displays of student work is included, since doing so is simply a style as well as a burden.

NOTE 3. The testing mandated by the school or state is often unsatisfactory in providing the teacher with information about each student's level of academic performance, particularly on across-the-curriculum subjects like literacy. Lesson plans make little sense if based on ignorance about student abilities/achievements. So teachers often need to do their own testing in order to be in a position to teach properly. The evidence now suggests that half the high school (and adult) population is functionally illiterate to a significant degree. Teachers must know just how many of their students are in this situation, in order to design coursework and avoid 'teaching past the problem'.

(ii) Selection and creation of materials

(Applies to the extent that the teacher is allowed or required to select, modify, and supplement materials.) Teaching materials which are selected or created to fit into the instructional plan should be current, correct, comprehensive, and well-designed or well-selected from available options. The writing and diagrams in handouts must be readable, and writing on the board, flipchart, or overhead transparencies must be easily readable from the back of the classroom. Materials should, where possible, provide or include references, applications and enrichment suggestions as well as basic instructional assistance (unless this is covered in the text or other

materials); where possible they should incorporate a variety of instructional and doctrinal approaches, for the benefit of students who respond better to an approach other than the teacher's normal approach; alternative viewpoints should be presented fairly, so that students can seriously consider the range of views; and there should be materials to supplement presentations by visitors, trips, relevant current events, etc. (The requisite knowledge under this heading includes any special procedures for designing lessons or materials for groups with special educational needs.)

(iii) Use of available resources

(a) Local

Appropriate use of school and local material, places, and people resources, e.g., library, craft workshops, colleagues, nature preserves, mines, factories, farms, packing sheds, field trips, museums, laboratories. This will frequently involve care with checking out, handling, inventorying, returning, and maintaining school materials. (Note that this use is different from the use of local resources listed under Knowledge of Subject Matter; here we are enriching the curriculum, not the teacher's or an individual student's knowledge.)

(b) Media

The teacher should be able to use those audio-visual and computer technologies for which there are desirable resources available in the relevant teaching area; these might or might not include projectors, computers, and software.

(c) Specialists

The preceding efforts should be supplemented when appropriate by obtaining assistance from specialist personnel e.g. curriculum specialists, audio-visual and methods specialists, librarians, computerists, school psychologists.

NOTE: There is no absolute need to use media, specialists, or any external resources in order to do good teaching—that is, one cannot conclude from non-use to incompetence in the teacher. But there will be occasions when failure to use them is culpable, if they are available. Moreover, since they may become available even if not now available, and might significantly improve teaching this particular subject to these particular students—at a cost which is manageable and significantly less than the benefits—the professional should be able to or should be learning to use them.

(iv) Evaluation of courses, materials, teaching and curriculum

The teacher (in and out of class) has to be able to employ discussion, individual interviews, observations, questionnaires and testing, to systematically gather and record data for later analysis that will produce: (a) needs and ability assessments with respect to content, level, approach and pacing; (b) information about the success of curriculum options and materials; and (c) of instruction. (These goals do not require individual test results, which are covered in the next section.) The construction of valid rating forms for feedback by students on curriculum, teaching, and materials/activities should be well understood. Systematic and objective evaluations of available materials and approaches, at least sometimes involving other judges, should be used as the basis for selection and improvement of courses. Note that student or at least class testing is normally required for several purposes: for management of progress, for planning a course, and for evaluating it, as here—as well as for the task of assessment, a service to the student and parents/advisers rather than the teacher, as covered in the next section.

3. ASSESSMENT COMPETENCE

A. Knowledge about student assessment

(The terms “assessment” and “testing” are here construed in the widest sense, to involve any systematic and objective process that leads to either *evaluative classification* (e.g., identification of learning disability) and *determination of the merit of student work*. Assessment may involve the use of structured and recorded observation, conversation, project or portfolio analysis, as well as paper and pencil, computerized, or verbal testing or questioning. Teachers should understand that assessment is essential in order to: (i) determine the learning needs of each student; (ii) determine the success of particular materials, course plans, and teaching methods; (iii) assist students and their advisers and counselors—as well as administrators and employers—to make necessary decisions, including educational, career, and employment decisions; (iv) assist in resource allocations by the school; and (v) support personnel decisions by teachers and administrators. Testing is also (vi) a strong and not improper motivator for many students if presented in an appropriate way. Hence it is extremely inappropriate for the teacher to treat testing as if it is some bureaucratic imposition on the process of teaching—it is an essential part of professional teaching. It has independent status in this list because of its importance, the need to recognize its importance, its complexity, and the special methods required to assess its competent use.

The teacher must be familiar with the costs and benefits of testing in general (to teachers, students, and others) and be able to evaluate particular types and examples of tests for quality, utility, and cost in particular. This includes an understanding of the relative merits and appropriate uses of multiple-choice, short- and long-answer essays, structured observation, interview, embedded, and project tests. The teacher should be knowledgeable about various modes of testing, such as: verbal vs. written, short vs. long tests, intervals between testing, unannounced vs. pre-announced testing, anonymous vs. signed tests, supervised vs. takehome tests, open vs. closed book (and/or closed notes) tests; and tests administered and scored with or without the teacher knowing which student authored which work. The teacher should understand the difference between: testing for summative, formative and diagnostic purposes; testing for ranking, grouping, and grading; norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests—and it is desirable for teachers to understand the use of matrix-sampling and item analysis. If multiple-choice tests are extensively used, it must be understood how to construct them so as to measure and hence encourage higher-order cognitive skills. The teacher should understand: the difference between global (holistic) and analytic scoring and the advantages/drawbacks of each; the design, use and value of scoring keys (“rubrics”); the value of giving students two grades, the second grade being for improvement (not for effort); the errors involved in (i) the ‘A for effort’ approach, (ii) the award of an ‘F for non-participation’, (iii) the ‘no higher than C grades because this is the class for slow learners and we must maintain comparability’ approach, and (iv) the ‘let’s fire Adele Jones, she flunks 30% of her students, and that’s very discouraging to them’ approach. The teacher should also know how to address the problems to which these fallacious approaches are overreactions. He or she should, ideally, also know typical sizes of test-retest and interjudge marking differences; the magnitude of test-anxiety effects on student scores (up as well as down), the effect of teacher expectations, and of reading difficulty; the value of students doing some peer-grading and explaining of grades to peers, and of external testing; the differences between the information obtainable from observed practice and from testing, and the value of information from standardized testing as well as its limitations. All teachers must be able to identify serious learning disabilities and psychological disorders at the point where referral is required.

NOTE. One of the problems with norm-referenced standardized tests is that they do not yield a rating on competence, for example on functional literacy. Hence many states and schools, like the nation as a whole, were startled by the discovery that half the population—in school or out—is functionally illiterate (to some significant degree). But this is something competent teachers would not have found surprising, because they would know that most state assessment instruments are not informing teachers or schools about competence, and would have arranged a test of functional literacy to inform themselves about the literacy of each student in their classes.

B. Test construction/administration skills

The teacher must use their knowledge of assessment to create or select, and properly administer, suitable tests of such types as are useful for the several purposes already mentioned, whether or not external authorities also do so. Tests should normally match the content or skills covered in the teaching (including assigned out-of-class work), *and* in the required curriculum, at the appropriate difficulty level. In special circumstances, tests may be designed to match post-school situations rather than course content. Tests should not be confined to factual knowledge since there are important skills and attitudes related to every curriculum as well as important cross-curriculum skills and attitudes that should be taught. Test questions should normally: be unambiguous; not be overcued; have one and only one correct answer when only one answer is allowed as correct; indicate the marks for or relative importance of each question to the extent possible; relate to useful continuing and future competencies as far as possible; constitute challenging and interesting tasks wherever possible; allow the student to display creativity, understanding and the capacity to synthesize and evaluate—where possible and appropriate; be specific enough to provide evidence to guide instructional activities, counseling, and modification of class materials where that is possible. Administration of tests should follow standard practice or the guidelines provided when the tests are externally required or designed; and follow all relevant ethical and professional practices.

C. Grading/ranking/scoring practices

(i) Process

To the extent possible, 'marking' (the term used here to cover all grading, ranking, classifying, scoring, or reporting on performance verbally or in narrative form) must be done so as to avoid bias, especially on essay-type questions, e.g., by: using numbers to identify the papers; marking question by question, rather than paper by paper; changing the order in which papers are marked from question to question; re-marking early questions to pick up any drift of standards; using and improving a scoring key; getting some externality into the process from time to time (e.g., by bartering marking effort with other teachers). (The reasons for each of these procedures should be understood.) Assessment must be treated as part of the teaching/-learning process; hence graded papers should be returned with explanations of the grade and the chance to appeal, even for final examinations.

(ii) Output

The marks that are awarded—or the narrative report card—must pass the usual tests for consistency (equal grades for equal quality/quantity of work); appropriateness (e.g., no Bs or As (or gold stars or highly laudatory comments)—for work that is merely satisfactory for students at that level, no Fs for work that is around the satisfactory level); clarity (e.g., avoidance of long verbal descriptions as substitutes for grades—although they are often helpful as supplements); and helpfulness (e.g., by using standards that relate to the needs of

the students and by evaluating parts or aspects of work as well as the whole performance when the work is to be returned to the student).

D. Recording and reporting student achievement.

(i) Knowledge about recording and reporting achievement

The teacher should understand the range of alternative ways in which achievement can be recorded and reported, and their advantages and disadvantages for different audiences and different age and motivation groups. Examples include: by group or by individual; in person, in writing, by phone, with and without parents present, with and without notification to parents; with and without other students having access to all marks, etc.; reporting in terms of grading, scoring, and ranking; by components (e.g. behavioral objectives), by dimensions (e.g. originality, level of effort), or globally (holistically); with small or with large numbers of components/dimensions; cumulatively or currently; by using neutral descriptions, evaluative narratives, or evaluative labels (e.g., grades); for the record or off the record. The teacher may need to assist recipients—e.g., students and parents—with interpretation of some of these approaches; doing so is part of knowing how to report achievement.

(ii) Recording and reporting practice

(a) Reporting to the student

The teacher must inform each student as to the quality of their in-class performance (where appropriate), as well as to the quality of their performance on each test or assignment. This may be done in class or, if more appropriate, in writing or in personal discussion. The assessment must be unambiguous and accurate, and helpful about directions for improvement wherever possible; a record of it should usually be kept, and in some cases it should be signed off as read and understood by the student. The report may or may not include saying how their performance compares to the range of peer responses; there should be clear reasons for the choice. Feedback to the class on test results will often need to include giving the correct answers, explaining the grading/marking standards (and the individual grades when necessary) giving comments on common errors, perhaps distributing examples of (possibly hypothetical) good and bad answers with appropriate comments, perhaps having the students redo some of the questions; and discussing issues of the significance of the results in external contexts (e.g., for team participation, college or job entry).

(b) Reporting to the administration

In the typical school context, the teacher must record assessment results so as to be able to provide the administration with information about student performance on a regular and timely basis as required, and to provide an audit trail if challenged for discharge of duties; this includes the identification of problem behavior, deficient effort, and deficient achievement. It should also include suggested explanations of deficiencies, where these are within the teacher's competence. These records, while in the teacher's hands, must be secure from inappropriate access by others.

(c) Reporting to parents, other teachers, and appropriate authorities.

The teacher communicates information about the progress of individual students to those with a right or need to know, and only to them. This may include other teachers, if their knowing will assist and will not harm the student, and prospective employers or advanced educational authorities.

4. PROFESSIONALISM

A. Professional ethics

Knowledge about—and performance in accordance with—the ethical standards appropriate to the profession. Examples include: respecting confidentially of student and personnel records; avoiding favoritism or harassment (sexual or otherwise) of particular students—as well as avoiding the appearance of favoritism or harassment; not presenting oneself as representing the school’s viewpoint unless specifically empowered to do so; ensuring that cheating does not occur and is punished and reported when it does; avoiding all versions of ‘teaching to the test’ and other test invalidation such as requesting that less able students stay home on test days, or ‘aligning’ the curriculum to match a particular test; assisting with activities such as the development and enforcement of professional ethical standards. Includes understanding that the obligation to follow orders and regulations must be given substantial weight by the teacher, regardless of agreement with them, although ‘following orders’ does not constitute an excuse for unprofessional or unethical conduct.

NOTE. It is often said that there is a ‘duty to respect the views of other teachers’ (and administrators). If this is shorthand for respecting the right of others to *express* their views, it is correct; but it is often interpreted as implying an obligation to treat the views themselves with respect. Since some of those views are clearly racist or sexist or otherwise unprofessional, they deserve no respect, and the only example that is set by ‘treating them with respect’ is one of moral irresponsibility.

B. Professional attitude

The teacher must set a high value on the well-being of each student and students in general, and on successful, sustained, and valuable learning by each and all of them—and by the teacher; must be able to react to valid criticism constructively rather than defensively; should solicit evaluation of various aspects of job performance from time to time, including student evaluations where possible; should integrate these into an overall evaluation of his or her own overall performance and role in the school and community context (especially as that role changes, perhaps in the direction of greater management responsibility); must be helpful to parents, peers, community, and administration with respect to legitimate requests and cooperative projects; must be helpful to teacher aides; must deal with peers in a courteous fashion as far as possible; should try to provide an appropriate role-model for peers and trainees as well as students; must not only avoid prejudices related to race, religion, age, gender, (legal) political affiliation, etc. but take positive steps to counteract such prejudices where feasible; must be punctual and otherwise conscientious in performance of duties including attendance at scheduled meetings; must treat—and encourage others to treat—school property with care (as well as reporting facility or support deficiencies); should be compassionate as well as just and business-like in dealing with students; should minimize any penalties for students arising from collective or personal disputes amongst the staff; should be flexible in dealing with the inevitable changes in school organization and policies, curriculum content, and pedagogy that will occur during their career.

NOTE 1. Being noticeably ‘under the influence’ of drugs such as alcohol while on duty is evidence of serious misconduct since it adversely affects the capacity to discharge primary duties. It may also affect respect for the individual teacher and the staff in general, with consequent long-term costs in student learning, school morale, and support from the community. But being ‘under the influence’ in a bar on Saturday night is part of the right to enjoy oneself in one’s own way, as long as it doesn’t interfere with the rights of others. A small rural community may find this distasteful, and behavior like this may have bad effects on community support; but such communities may put certain political views in the same

category. Teachers cannot be expected to give up common rights because someone does not like to see them exercised. (On the other hand, such behavior is of some relevance to evaluation for a leadership position or for community relations work.)

NOTE 2. Leadership skills or achievements, often included as indicators of merit for teachers, are inappropriate entries in a list of duties. They make a good basis for selecting future administrators, and their presence makes life easier for administrators—perhaps the reasons why they get mentioned—but they are entirely unnecessary for good teaching. The same applies to ‘good at working in groups’ unless it is a duty of the position that team-*teaching* be done. Some committee work is an almost universal obligation, but members should be rated on their contributions to the *work*, not on an assumed ideal process perhaps involving co-workers liking each other. Disagreement is often a more important contribution to the work than what is seen as ‘being good as working in groups’. ‘Works *effectively* with others in discharging professional duties’ is a more reasonable requirement, since such co-operation is usually part of the job.

NOTE 3. Counseling (a.k.a. ‘pastoral care’) skills would be appropriate for some jobs and not for others. The job description should be clear on this point, and the qualifications appropriately specified. Beyond this, the teacher’s obligation is only to be able to recognize serious psychological problems, and to refer the student for professional psychological help. It is unprofessional—and dangerous to students—to meddle with problems requiring the skills of a professional psychologist.

NOTE 4. There is a legal ‘duty of care’ meaning the duty to take care of students who are in the teacher’s charge (especially when they are too young to manage without help). Beyond this, it is arguable that a teacher should ‘care about them’ to the extent of watching for, and trying to avoid causing severe stress—and trying to ameliorate it when it does occur. But there is no duty to care for them as if they were the teacher’s own children, or even as if the teacher liked them all. (This is an area where well-meaning administrators often require more than is appropriate.) It is crucial to professional service that ‘distancing’ be possible, or else the stress load becomes intolerable for many teachers whom the profession and community can ill afford to lose; and for some, objectivity is impaired. The custodial commitment declines with the age of the student, so that at the college level, it is less important that teachers should have some special level of concern for each student’s welfare, including their self-esteem. (Concern for student self-esteem never entails that it is appropriate—let alone necessary—to require a pure positive reinforcement strategy in elementary school.) While caring for individual students is not a duty, on the other hand, such caring cannot be regarded as unprofessional, as long as it does not compromise fairness to all students.

NOTE 5. Teachers cannot be required to display enthusiasm for their subject matter, and hence cannot be scored positively for having it. Exhibiting enthusiasm is a matter of style, and many good teachers eschew it. Continued interest in the subject matter, like continued interest in teaching, is causally important, but all that can be required is performance of the duty to be up to date, not signs of enthusiasm or interest. Enthusiasm can only be legitimated, not required.

NOTE 6. Teachers are within their rights to have and express a negative attitude towards teaching as a profession and to make frequent specific criticisms of its condition and management. But teachers who exhibit a pattern of unremitting and unconstructive denigration of teaching or of the school (district, state) where they teach, particularly if expressed in circumstances where it can have a serious effect on the morale of others (notably beginning teachers), are increasing stress in the workplace, are likely to be affecting

recruitment to and retention in a vital and hard pressed profession, and are thus acting against the best interests of the profession. They should work at improving matters or resign; otherwise, they should be penalized for unprofessional conduct.

C. Professional development

Teachers should use their awareness of their own areas of strength and weakness (arising from the systematic self-evaluation mentioned above, using this list or another) as a basis for a continuous process of professional development. The process might focus on items such as: work towards an advanced degree that will provably improve their teaching or value to the profession/institution; improvement in time- and stress-management; systematic improvement of class materials and plans; active attendance at conferences and conventions (evidence of participation or benefits is easy to provide); active participation in electronic forums (again, mere downloading would demonstrate activity); a sequence of experiments with variations of method and/or materials so as to find a path to significant improvement; a systematic reading and study-group effort to keep up with current developments in pedagogy, social thought about education, and educational/text materials in the teacher's area of specialization. It is desirable to set out the results of the preceding efforts in a professional portfolio.

NOTE. Developing full credentials in a second area, while certainly not a duty of a teacher, is very much to their advantage (in avoiding layoff and increasing their range of interests), and to the advantage of their school and students. For this reason, it might be supported by the employer, as a legitimate professional development area, once any weaknesses in the area of main responsibility are remedied. The second teaching area might be a recognized curriculum area (or specialized teaching area), but it also might—with benefit to both parties—be a vocational area (e.g., business experience) or one of the cross-curriculum areas like computers.

D. Service to the profession

(i) Knowledge about the profession

Without some knowledge about the profession (i.e., its nature, role, history, current problems and issues), there can be little effective service to it; without service to it, there is little of the profession about it. Knowledge about the teaching profession should include a sense of the importance of experience and the limitations of research, as well as a sense of the importance of research and the limitations of (any one teacher's) experience.

(ii) Helping beginners & peers

Providing systematic as well as informal assistance to beginners and student teachers is an essential part of the commitment to professionalism. Providing help to peers who request it—sometimes taken to be part of 'collegiality'—is virtuous although not an obligation, particularly if it conflicts with other duties.

(iii) Work for professional organizations

Examples include working on or contributing to a newsletter or journal, organizing a study group, making seminar or annual meeting arrangements, or working for a union or professional subject-matter association. (These activities and those mentioned next would normally be regarded as in the category of 'appropriate and creditable', though none are mandatory).

(iv) Research on teaching

Contributions to the knowledge-base from which the profession draws its skills and expertise are extremely important. Although these contributions are often made by non-practitioners—

for example, many educational researchers—practitioners are in a position to make very valuable contributions. Many will not have the time or the interest required to make a significant contribution to this area, but it is an outstanding way to serve the profession.

E. Knowledge of duties

Includes knowledge of the law and regulations applying to teachers and schools in a district or a state, as well as the expectations or policy at a particular school, for example with respect to grading standards, the division of responsibility in team teaching situations, the policy on teaching of 'across-the-curriculum' subjects, e.g. writing/spelling, computing. See also Other Duties below. Includes understanding the curriculum requirements, and the duties in this list or an equivalent.

F. Knowledge of the school and its context

Includes an understanding of the special characteristics, background, and ideology of the school, its staff and students, and its environment (the community and the natural environment). This task is often—and wrongly—thought not to be a duty or to be a trivial task because the relevant insights will be acquired automatically. But the knowledge referred to here is useful or essential in performing many duties such as: (i) the duties of being a responsible citizen of the community, a duty rightly expected by the community of its teachers; (ii) the needs assessment used in planning lessons and curricula (e.g., knowing about jobs and scholarships available, languages spoken, family educational level); (iii) having an inventory of those resources (e.g., parks, libraries, museums, colleges, factories, cultural centers, businesses and industries, local experts and the school's own resources) likely to be useful in instructional planning. Knowledge of the school also assists with determining what standards of grading to use, whether and how much homework to set (and how to treat those who do not do it) and what standards of dress and conduct—in school and out—to adopt, encourage, oppose, or enforce. Knowing something about the wider context of education in the county, state, and country, and—at least to some extent—in other countries, now and in the past, provides a valuable perspective which reduces the chance of re-inventing the wheel—round or square—along with reducing the tendency to claim that wheels are impossible. Knowledge of context should include a good understanding of how this particular educational institution is managed, how it is influenced—by what and whom, and how quickly or slowly—and in particular how the individual teacher and the teachers' professional or bargaining organizations can or cannot influence its working.

5. OTHER DUTIES TO THE SCHOOL & COMMUNITY

Apart from the above, teachers always have other duties in a school, ranging from committee work and attendance at meetings where policy changes are explained or discussed, to taking attendance, developing and reacting to curriculum changes, supervision of playgrounds or study halls, service at school events or on community-school committees, counseling of various types, and out-of-class activities—the extent to which the teacher expected to do syllabus design and materials selection, to contact parents, to run school projects, clubs and societies, to doing special student reviews, to organizing trips and supervising or coaching sports and other recreational activities. These duties vary greatly from school to school, sometimes between different management regimes in the one school at different times, and as between staff of differing seniority. Skill in performing some of these duties may be very important and by no means trivial or untrainable; for example, skill in enlisting support from parents in the enterprise of motivating and assisting their children. Since a school often cannot

run or cannot run well without teachers performing some of these duties including some that are not of *direct* educational significance, they should not be regarded as minor, dispensable, or an imposition on teachers; they are and always have been part of the job in all schools, perhaps even more so in private schools.

However, the school does not have unlimited license to decide what duties can be allocated to the teacher, any more than a hospital has a free hand in deciding what duties can be allocated to the medical staff. The question of what a professional can properly be asked to do, and what standards can be used in judging the way they are done, depends heavily on ethical and legal considerations and the available alternatives in a particular context. For example, schools may or may not take the position that teachers should be evaluated partly in terms of their extra-curricular contribution to the local community (this is common at the college level and in leading businesses). Doing so is a tangible way of showing that the school cares about the community; but if this is done, much care must be taken in weighting, delimiting, and setting standards for this contribution.