

CHILEAN TEACHERS' VIEWS ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
AN INTERVIEW STUDY

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To my mom, the teacher,
and my dad, the scholar,
I hope this work reflects the best in me that comes from you.

And for Pedro,
Who pushed me into this adventure and always believed in me.

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Chapter I: Introduction and Conceptual Framework

Chile is a relatively small developing country with a population of around eighteen million and an annual GDP per capita of 14,528.3 USD (UNdata, 2017). Geographically isolated, Chile was the poor territory of the Spanish Empire kept mostly for strategic reasons. It started its push for independence in 1810, establishing it in 1818 and becoming one of the most politically stable countries in the region. During the twentieth century Chile's economy and society suffered major changes. Like most countries in Latin America, Chile went through a phase from the thirties until the fifties where it established high tariff barriers in an attempt to develop the local industry. The effort failed, leaving Chile with a weak economy that slowly started to heal in the subsequent year. Despite its geographic isolation, Chile was strongly affected by the Cold War. In 1970, far-left socialist president Salvador Allende was elected, and after one successful year, the economy crumbled under a series of reforms that led to a 600% inflation and a series of strikes that steered Congress to ask the military to intervene. The military coup of 1973 resulted in an oppressive seventeen-year military regime that ended in 1989 with a non-violent transition to democracy. Pinochet's regime strengthened Chile's economy, but left deep scars in its society that have yet to heal. In spite of the political turmoil that affected the country during the seventies and eighties, Chile is currently seen as one of the most politically and economically stable countries in Latin America.

Chilean schools have long been at the bottom in PISA evaluations, showing the severe deficiencies of our national education. Many studies have pointed to Teacher Education Programs' insufficiencies in preparing future teachers as one of the causes. Vásquez (2005) established that teachers have the generalized opinion that Teacher Education has had little impact in their work. Ávalos (2010) arrived to the conclusion that, despite new teachers' illusions and enthusiasm, after

a short time they admit that they are not prepared enough to face the complexities of school teaching. Moreover, classroom teachers are constantly balancing multiple, and sometimes conflicting, goals and pressures from different sources (internal, external, administrative, students, etc.). In this sense, the educational system is "noisy." Teachers are surrounded by multiple conflicting messages about what is most important (Kennedy, 2016a).

The underdevelopment of most initial training programs makes it important to identify successful Professional Development Programs (PDPs) in order to fill the gaps. While Chile should also improve the former, the effects would take many years to impact students' learning after the new group of teachers replaced a substantial portion of current school teachers. Focusing on PDPs may have more tangible effects in the short run.

According to Ingersoll (2003), 40 to 50% of teachers with between one and five years of experience leave the profession in the US. This makes beginning teachers a group of special interest for Professional Development research, because maybe pertinent Professional Development could reverse this situation. Moreover, novice teachers are at a stage in their career when they are forming their early understandings of professionalism in teaching.

During the last fifteen years, multiple studies have sought to measure the effectiveness of various PDP. In an extensive literature review, Kennedy (2016a) states that many popular kinds of PDP are not effective and that effectiveness depends on multiple variables. Currently, different variables that influence the effectiveness of Professional Development programs are being discussed, including post-program monitoring; teachers' motivation, collaborative work versus individual, and their voluntary or compulsory nature (Kennedy, 2016a). On the other hand, scholars like Eisner propose that the center for continuous teacher Professional Development

should be the schools in which teachers work, and not isolated programs that teachers attend once a year (Eisner, 2001).

In this context, important questions remain; what do teachers themselves have to say about their own Professional Development? How do participants understand their professional needs? How do their concerns align with the current Professional Development literature?

Chilean Schools and Teachers

Chile's school system is largely based on reforms that took place in 1981 that consisted in two main points: the decentralization of public schools and a voucher system where a per-student payment funded both public and private schools. These publicly funded private schools were called particular subsidized to distinguish them from particular private schools that were much more expensive (Hsieh & Urquiola, 2006). This reform meant that parents could choose where to send their children and that schools needed to increase enrollment in order to increase their income basis (Paredes, Volante, Zubizarreta & Opazo 2013). In 1993, after Chile's return to democracy, with the purpose of increasing school revenues, a new law was passed that permitted schools to charge families a limited amount of tuition (Arenas, 2004). Nonetheless, in 2015 the copay law was eliminated, forbidding schools to charge anything if they received State funds (Chile, Ministerio de Educación, 2015).

School structure in Chile is usually similar across schools, independent of the type of school. At the head of the administrative structure is the school's principal, who usually fulfills an administrative role. In every school, though, it is possible to find the role of an academic coordinator, who generally performs the role of instructional leader, reviewing teachers' lesson plans, tests, and observing their classes. Under the academic coordinator, in schools that are big enough to have departments, typically resides the department chair and then the teachers.

Regarding the Chilean teaching profession, between 2008 and 2011, a series of laws were promulgated which created a new regulatory framework that did not address teachers directly but included a wide range of regulations concerning their jobs (Cornejo et al., 2015, Biscarra, Giaconi & Assaél, 2015). In an attempt to ensure quality education for all, the new regulatory framework deepened teacher evaluation mechanisms through means such as self-evaluation, recommendation reports by third parties, evaluator peer interviews, and the creation of a portfolio that gave evidence of growth in their pedagogic practices. The four instruments were reviewed by a Municipal Commission of Evaluation who used the “Framework of Good Teaching” as a reference. For teachers who did well, the evaluation was accompanied by monetary compensation and the option to enter the Network of the Best Teachers. However, after three failed evaluations teachers who were deemed failing could be dismissed (Fardella & Sisto, 2015; Biscarra, Giaconi & Assaél, 2015).

Law 20.903, which creates the Teacher Professional Development System (TPDS), was promulgated in April of 2016 (Chile, Ministerio de Educación, 2016). One of the TPDS law’s greatest merits is that it treats teaching as a complex profession and addresses its key issues: teacher preparation and induction, teaching conditions, and career development. Regarding teacher preparation, the law establishes that, from 2017 onwards, only accredited universities and education programs will be allowed to have teacher education programs; only students that score in the highest thirty percent in the university entry test can be admitted; and universities must assess students at the beginning of their program, using the results to help candidates overcome their weaknesses.

Law 20.903 also establishes a new process of induction that, in 2022, will be required for all beginning teachers who work in schools that receive state funds. For ten months (a complete

school year), beginning teachers will be accompanied and supported by mentors for between four and six hours a week. Schools that have been evaluated as high performing by the Education Quality Agency will be allowed to design and manage their own induction process. Otherwise, induction will be carried out by the Improvement, Experimentation and Pedagogical Research Center (known as CPEIP in Spanish).

Regarding wages, the law establishes that teachers' salaries will range from 1,368 USD to 3,983 USD monthly, depending on their years of experience and their stage in the newly established career ladder. On average, teachers' remunerations will increase thirty percent from today's level and, depending on the stage they reach, it can even double. To understand Chile's socioeconomic context, a typical and emergent middle-class household income in Chile ranges from 1,234 to 2,094 USD, while low middle-class household income ranges from 766 to 1,234 USD (AIM, 2015).

Regarding time distribution, the new law establishes that teachers must have at least a 35% allotment of non-instructional time, and that non-instructional time needs to be respected as an essential part of the teaching process. The rest of the time is intended as teaching hours.

The new law outlines that all teachers have the right to free and relevant Professional Development and that it is their responsibility to advance in their careers. Programs for Professional Development will be offered either directly or indirectly by the CPEIP. There is one option for duty diversification for teachers considered advanced professionals or experts, which involves mentoring new teachers in their induction process.

One of congress's concerns was the quality of the current teaching body given the weakness of past and current teacher preparation. Trying to match performance and knowledge with recognition, they created a teacher evaluation system that uses two instruments: An

Evaluation of Specific and Pedagogical Knowledge of the discipline and level that the teacher teaches, and a Portfolio. The Portfolio will show proof of professional practice through documented evidence of in-class performance; considering relationships with students and learning process; collaborative practices; leadership actions and cooperation; work with peers and students' guardians; and creation of content, learning material, academic activities, and research.

Teachers in the initial and early stages whose results do not allow them to advance in the professional ladder in two consecutive processes will be let go and will not be hired by any of the schools that receive State support.

The stages are progressive; teachers cannot move backwards once they reach a certain level unless they are let go. Nonetheless, they still need to provide the portfolio every four or eight years, depending on their results.

Conceptual Framework

Defining Teacher Professional Development. There is not a single, overarching definition of teacher Professional Development. Thus, we find in the literature different definitions that range from the opportunity “to learn new strategies for teaching to rigorous standards” (Harwell, 2003, 2) to just “professional learning” (Hirsh, 2009, 3). Even if both definitions accurately describe what people refer to when talking about teacher Professional Development, these definitions are still too simplistic to encompass the complexity that the process of Professional Development entails.

To find a better definition of Professional Development, it is useful to turn to sociology research. Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006) conceptualized Professional Development (from here on referred to as PD) as the “formal courses and programs in professional education and to the formal and informal development of professional skill that occurs in the workplace” (p. 384). They

also analyzed the different views that there are around the development of those professional abilities, and what they imply.

According to these authors, the development of professional abilities in the workplace can be understood as the “accumulation of knowledge and skills, promoted by practical experience” (p. 383); the “skillful know-how that is progressively acquired by passing through developmental stages, such as novice, competent, and expert” (p. 383), or as a combination of the embodied understanding of practice and skill progression that can take different shapes. The definition of PD that will be used throughout this paper will be this definition because it acknowledges that practices are both understood and enacted, and that practice and skills are not only intertwined; but that they also presuppose each other (Dall’Alba & Sandberg, 2006).

Defining PD in its complexity forces us to look at the different factors that influence the development of understanding of practice and skills. Thus, the main elements that affect teacher professional learning are school context, teacher motivation, feedback opportunities and formal PD opportunities in the shape of Professional Development Programs (PDPs).

Context: School structure. In countries such as Finland, Professional Development is considered a school-wide effort, taking a systematic and theoretically grounded form (Sahlberg, 2011). One way of doing this is through mentorship programs for beginning teachers (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Hargreaves and Fullan (2012, p. 4) argue for a supportive school structure for Professional Development on the grounds of social capital theory, stating that “high social capital does generate increased human capital, (...) you would become a better teacher just by joining the staff of a different and better school”.

A supportive school system gives its teachers the time they need to fulfill their duties, improve their practices and skills, and recognizes them when they do an outstanding job. For

example, every year in Ontario, Premier's Awards for Teaching Excellence are given to recognize outstanding teachers (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011). The use of research by teachers to improve their own practice and the school as a whole is promoted and celebrated, incentivizing teacher participation.

In Finland, teachers teach about sixty percent less time than US teachers do, which means that they have time to do a more thorough and professional job while having a reasonable family life (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011). Another way supportive schools give time to their teachers is through hybrid positions, assigning them fewer classes to teach so that they can take on other challenges (Remijan, 2014).

Teachers' Motivation and Incentives. What motivates teachers? What are the incentives that drive their work and their desire to improve and reflect on their practice and skills? In order to grasp how Professional Development works and its effectiveness, it is important to seek the answers to these questions.

One of the past decades' prevalent trends among policy makers has been to regard earning power as the motor that drives teachers to do a better job (Dee & Wyckoff, 2015). Consequently, public policies such as payment for performance or value-added models have been put into place. However, these policies have not yielded the expected results and student achievement has not significantly improved. In light of research on teacher motivation, the previous results do not come as a surprise; teachers do seek wages that are comparable to that of other professionals with the same level of credentials. Nonetheless, after reaching that tipping point, money does not seem to make a large difference in teacher motivation (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011; Springer et al., 2010, Remijan, 2014).

Motivation has been shown to be one of the biggest predictors of work outcomes throughout different professions (Humphrey, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007), and teaching is no exception. Related elements that seem to have an influence in teacher motivation include work diversification and an established sense of autonomy.

Work Diversification and Professional Growth. “Teaching is a flat profession” (Danielson, 2007, p 14). A “flat profession” means that responsibilities and tasks do not change with the acquisition of experience and shown capability. Often, the only way teachers can extend their influence is by leaving the classroom to become administrators. For teachers who love the classroom but still want different professional challenges, the administrator path is not for them; consequently, they can become frustrated and demotivated if there are not alternative routes available.

One way to overcome the “flatness” issue is through hybrid positions. Remijan (2014) advocates for this path by arguing that it directly tackles the lack of work variety. Hybrid teachers take outside-of-the-classroom responsibilities while teaching fewer classes. These types of positions allow teachers to diversify professionally while they continue teaching, improving their motivation and outcomes (Remijan, 2014).

Finland has taken particular measures to create space for its teachers to diversify professionally. Given that teachers are highly educated (all teachers need to hold at least a master’s degree), they can assume roles that are usually taken by outside consultants in other countries. This allows teachers to assume diverse responsibilities without leaving the classroom (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011; Remijan, 2014).

Another path to promote professional growth and eliciting teacher motivation is one that has been applied in Ontario. Seeking to build the capacity of their teaching force, Ontario

educational leaders and policy makers have instituted an induction program and an annual evaluation system. In the latter, teachers themselves complete an Annual Learning Plan for Professional Development, allowing principals and teachers to work together in identifying instructional strategies and teachers' needs (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011).

Established Sense of Autonomy. Throughout this paper, autonomy will be understood as the possibility of holding high levels of control over matters that are directly related to someone's everyday tasks (Ingersoll, 2006). Following this definition, it is possible to say that exercising autonomy in one's job is considered crucial for motivation and positive work outcomes, and is therefore fundamental to professional learning. One of the ways that teachers experience growth is by having autonomy in the decision-making process to complete a determined goal (Humphrey, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). In teaching, the overall goal is student achievement, and the decision-making process would involve tasks that range from lesson planning to assessing through implementing different instructional strategies. Autonomy is reflected in the ability of teachers to design their own curriculum and apply their professional judgment in different circumstances.

Citing Finland's case once again, the importance of teacher autonomy can be clearly viewed in their school system. Because teachers are considered respected professionals, neither they nor their students are externally assessed. Additionally, teachers develop their own assessments to gauge student learning based on their judgment. (Darling-Hammond, & Rothman, 2011; Sahlberg, 2011)

Feedback opportunities: teacher evaluation. Teacher evaluation can take different forms according to the principles that support its goals. Currently there are three main approaches to evaluation: administrative review, ones that tie student performance to teacher accountability or

payment and ones that consider evaluation as part of a wider system designed for teacher Professional Development.

The main teacher evaluation designs that tie student performance to teacher accountability or payment are Value-Added Models (VAMs). VAMs measure changes in student scores over a period of time while accounting for external factors that have been found to affect student achievement. They were originally created for large-scale studies with the purpose of finding in-school factors that played a major role in student attainment; a purpose for which they have proven very useful. However, during recent years, VAMs have been used for individual teacher evaluation, linking students' test scores to teachers performance. The problem is that valid interpretations of these models require aggregate-level data instead of individual data, which is one of the main reasons why they are highly unreliable for measuring teacher effectiveness (Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel & Rothstein, 2012).

Approaches that consider evaluation as part of a wider system designed for teacher feedback aim to build an organic system that includes “recruitment and preparation and continuing through evaluation and career development” (Darling-Hammond, 2014, p 8). Teacher Performance Appraisal (TPA) and Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) are two examples of teacher evaluations that are part of a wider system.

Diverse education stakeholders developed TPA in Ontario, which gives meaningful reviews to teachers in order to promote their professional learning and growth. Teachers are appraised every five years by their principal based on a set of competencies that reflect the Ontario College of Teaching (OCT) standards of practice. Every year experienced teachers complete their own Annual Learning Plan, designing their strategy for professional growth, while newer teachers are helped by their mentors (Pervin & Campbell, 2011).

PAR is “a program of structured mentorship, observation and rigorous, standards-based evaluation of teachers by teachers” (Sanford, 2012, p 1). In this approach, expert teachers evaluate one another and mentors evaluate novices. One of the strengths of PAR is that principals and expert teachers share responsibility for teacher evaluation and support giving all evaluated teachers better and more timely feedback (Munger, 2012). Through the program, teachers are rigorously evaluated and strongly supported in their Professional Development, with special focus on veterans that are failing and novice teachers that need guidance. Personnel decisions are made conjunctly by administrators and a panel of expert teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2012).

Formal opportunities: Professional Development programs. As noted in the PD definition section, Professional Development includes both formal and informal learning opportunities in the work place. Professional Development Programs (PDPS) are formal opportunities for teachers to advance their understanding of practice and skills. They can differ in three main aspects: content and pedagogy, length, and implementation process.

Content and Pedagogy. A useful framework to analyze the content covered by Professional Development Programs is the one proposed by Mary Kennedy (2016a, 2016b) to understand the practice of teaching. According to Kennedy, there are five challenges that all teachers must continuously face: 1) portray the curriculum (defining the content of the class and how it will be presented), 2) enlist student participation (assuring the active engagement of students in the class), 3) expose student thinking (to know when and where to backtrack in the lesson and when to continue), 4) contain student behavior (creating a favorable environment for learning), and 5) accommodate personal needs (organizing the previous challenges to personal needs and style in order to stay in the profession for the long-run and not suffer from burnout) (Kennedy, 2016b).

Teachers often need to simultaneously address all these challenges, which can be difficult because, most of the time, they compete with each other. This framework is useful for analyzing Professional Development programs because they usually try to help teachers deal with one, several, or all of these challenges.

Regarding PDPS pedagogy, this study uses Kennedy's (2016a) framework, where she found that programs usually follow one of the following four designs to facilitate the enactment of new pedagogies: prescription, strategies, insight or body of knowledge. The first and oldest approach, prescription, provides teachers with a universal solution for one of the challenges teachers face. It tells them exactly how and when to perform it. Another way that PDPs present their content is through strategies, which define the goals they are supposed to achieve, giving teachers a rationale for the practices the program presents. The logic behind a pedagogy of strategies is that, if teachers understand goals, they should be able to decide on their own when to implement each strategy. The third form is insight, which "arise(s) from self-generated "aha!" moments" (p. 11). These kinds of programs aim to foster new insights in teachers by forcing them to reexamine common situations, and through provocative questions help them see those events in a different light. The goal of an insight-based pedagogy is to change teachers' interpretation of classroom situations and how they respond to them. Finally, some PDPs present teachers a body of knowledge—much like a university class—giving them the freedom to apply the new knowledge as and when they wish.

Length. Intuitively one would think that time spent in PDPs correlates positively with student achievement; nevertheless, Kennedy (2016a) showed that intensity alone did not predict effectiveness. When combined with prescriptive methods, intensity did not seem to make a positive

influence. On the other hand, in programs based on strategies or insight, program length seemed to have positive repercussions in student achievement.

Other authors have proposed that time does make a difference. Wei, Darling-Hammond and Adamson (2010), found that programs that offered five to fourteen hours of direct contact with teachers did not have an effect on student achievement, and that the ones that included from thirty to one-hundred hours of total contact hours, spread out over a period of six to twelve months, showed a significant effect on student achievement gains. Desimone (2009) explained that although research has not found an exact “tipping point”, there is strong support for PDPs that include at least twenty hours of contact time lasting a whole semester, or in an intensive summer accompanied with during-the-semester follow-ups.

Implementation Process. Different approaches to implementation are crucial for understanding the success or failure of a Professional Development program, and the shape educational reform will take and how involved teachers are in the process.

Two main approaches to implementation in education include the fidelity model and the mutual adaptation. The fidelity model assumes teachers will do what the program proposes if designers give them specific and detailed steps to guide them. Mutual adaptation assumes that there will and *should* be local variability when teachers implement a determined program in their classrooms (McLaughlin, 1976). Under mutual adaptation, designers should incorporate local changes to their original plans in order to strengthen them and improve the chances of scaling programs up (Siskin, 2016).

Summary

Given Chile’s weak teacher preparation programs, in-service teacher Professional Development is both relevant and necessary for improving the country’s overall quality of

education. In this study, Professional Development will be understood as a combination of the embodied understanding of teaching practices and skill progression that can take different shapes (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006). This study identifies different features that can either facilitate or hinder teacher Professional Development: 1) working environment or school structure; 2) motivations and incentives, including work diversification, professional growth, and teacher autonomy; 3) feedback in the form of teacher evaluation; and 4) formal opportunities of Professional Development in the form of PDPs, including their content, pedagogy, length and implementation process.

An emergent framework became important when analyzing the study results: the theory of the Instructional Core. Composed by the relationships between the teacher, students and the content, the Instructional Core “determines the nature of instructional practice” (City, Elmore, Fiarman and Teitel, 2009, p. 23). In other words, these relationships define the learning process.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Professional Development can be defined in two ways, as teacher training or as long-life learning. The former being more technical while the latter is more holistic. Researchers that consider Professional Development mostly as training tend to focus on teachers as individuals, both in their performance and their students' outcomes. On the other hand, PD seen as a life-long learning development process usually describes the structural conditions of teachers' work, focusing on teachers as professionals. Both approaches are research-based and focus on different components and influences on PD. In this way, they are related and can inform each other. Some scholars have understood these approaches as complementary, and it is possible to see influences of both traditions in their work.

Below I describe research in Professional Development organized by the topics defined in the conceptual framework. These topics include: 1) school structures, 2) teachers' motivation and incentives, including work diversification and their sense of autonomy, 3) teacher feedback, and 4) formal opportunities for Professional Development in the form of PDPs, which includes their content, pedagogy, length and implementation.

Defining Teacher Professional Development

The concepts of "professionalism" and Professional Development are borrowed from the field of sociology, which understands Professional Development from the perspective of life-long learning. In this respect, Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006) critiqued the two main views on PD: Professional Development understood as a process of knowledge accumulation and skills, and as a developmental stage model, in which professionals start as novices and evolve to experts. After describing those views, they proposed a mixed approach to PD, which can be understood as the

combination of embodied understanding of practice and skill progression (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006).

In an effort to develop a comprehensive set of policies and practices for PD based on research results, Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009) published a status report on teacher development in the US and abroad, the first phase of a three-phase study. Stephanie Hirsh, who wrote the preface, followed a structural view of teacher Professional Development. She pointed the need for educators and administrators to learn how to address common problems in a continuous, collaborative and on-the-job way from other professions.

The second phase of the study, conducted by Ruth Chung Wei, Linda Darling-Hammond, and Frank Adamson of Stanford University and published in 2010, took a more practical approach to Professional Development. The study compared data from the U.S. Schools and Staffing Surveys of the academic years of 2003-2004 and 2007-2008 in order to establish benchmarks to assess Professional Development programs. Interestingly, the final report of the three-phase study considered PD in a more holistic way, both as training and teachers' structural work conditions. Using case studies from Colorado, Missouri, New Jersey and Vermont the authors analyzed examples of policy frameworks that supported high levels of teacher Professional Development. The study identified at least five key elements for building professional learning across the state: a common vision of Professional Development that articulates both policy and practice; effective monitoring on PD to ensure quality; established mentoring and induction processes that meet state requirements; organizations that can ensure ongoing PD; and stability of resources (Jaquith, Mindich, Chung Wei & Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Ávalos (2011), reviewed articles about Professional Development over a ten-year span in the journal *Teaching and Teacher Education*. In her article, she understood teacher

professional learning as a complex process that requires teachers, both individually and as a group, to be involved cognitively and emotionally. This way of understanding Professional Development is another example of a more holistic approach. Ávalos organized the articles around five themes: professional learning, mediations, conditions and factors, effectiveness of PD and specific areas and issues. With this, she created a framework to understand both the process of PD and its research.

The following papers fall into the tradition that understands Professional Development as training. In 2003, Sandra Harwell wrote a paper describing the need for effective teacher Professional Development, focusing in the characteristics of high quality programs that would allow teachers to attain and practice new skills through their careers. This highlights the constant struggle for researchers in the field: trying to answer practical questions on PD through research (Harwell, 2003).

Based on empirical research, Desimone (2011) established a set of core features (content focus, active learning, coherence, duration, and collective participation) that could be found in effective Professional Development programs. The author argued that these core features could be used as a conceptual framework to evaluate whether programs were actually enhancing student achievement by increasing teacher knowledge and instruction.

Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss and Shapley (2007) conducted a study funded by the Institute of Education Sciences of the U.S. Department of Education that analyzed the findings from over 1,300 studies that addressed the effects of Professional Development on student achievement. The main finding of this study was that teachers who received intense PD tended to make a bigger contribution to improving student learning than those who did not.

In 2016, Kennedy published a review of research on PDPs that effectively linked them with student achievement. After a thorough selection process, the author identified twenty-eight studies that met certain standards such as following teachers over time and effectively measuring student achievement gains. Kennedy found that what usually made the biggest difference in a program's effectiveness was not the content or main ideas teachers were supposed to learn; but rather the pedagogies that were used by the program to facilitate enactment (Kennedy, 2016a).

Stewart published an article in 2014 where he advocated for professional learning communities as a model of Professional Development, arguing that they were more effective than traditional programs since they embodied seven principles that promoted deep learning: equality, choice, voice, reflection, praxis, and reciprocity (Stewart, 2014).

As these studies suggest, defining PD in its complexity requires us to look at the different factors that influence the development of understanding of practice and skills. Thus, some main elements that affect teacher professional learning include school context, teachers' motivation, feedback opportunities and formal PD opportunities in the shape of Professional Development Programs (PDPS).

Context: School Structure

Because PD often involves learning on the job, the structure wherein teachers' work is embedded shapes their Professional Development. In this section, all the works reviewed, except one, use the definition of PD as life-long learning.

Remijan (2014) is the only article in this section that sees Professional Development as training. In his informed commentary he argues that supportive school structures promote the implementation of hybrid positions so that teachers can take on other challenges. I will return to this point under work diversification.

Ingersoll and Strong (2011), reviewed fifteen empirical studies on the effects of induction programs for beginning teachers. They found that induction programs in general, and specially mentoring programs had positive effects on beginning teachers. Going deeper into this matter, Ingersoll and Smith (2004) found that not all induction programs were as effective. Successful programs provided both a mentor from their same field to the beginning teacher, and opportunities for collaborative planning. For this study, the authors used data from the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and its supplement, the Teacher Follow-up Survey (IFS).

Sahlberg (2011) tried to identify how Finland has developed such a strong teaching profession. Describing Professional Development as a structural endeavor, the author concludes that one of the keys to Finland's success is that it has developed high standards among its teachers. Specifically, through a working environment that fosters professional learning communities and good teaching (Sahlberg, 2011).

Hargreaves and Fullan co-authored a book in 2012 that developed the idea of fostering professional capital in education. In order to do that, they argue that teaching professionally is a collective effort, and that it is possible to create school cultures that foster "collective professional responsibility" (p XV).

Darling-Hammond and Rothman (2011) edited a report on teacher leader effectiveness across three exemplary educational locations: Finland, Ontario, and Singapore. The authors chose these locations because they have developed successful mechanisms to improve the profession on all levels; from teacher education recruitment to Professional Development for teachers and school leaders.

In an attempt to answer questions around school reform, Richard Elmore (2000) authored a paper that tries to unravel the complexities that surround large scale instructional improvement attempts. The author suggests that school context varies from classroom to classroom because both teachers and students change. When designing solutions for school problems, they need to be flexible enough to be applied in different contexts with relative success.

In 2010, The Achievement Gap Initiative (AGI) published a report that showcased fifteen exceptional public schools from different states and attempted to understand their success. One of the main findings of the report was that leadership teams—who had earned the respect of the teaching body—that focused on improving instruction were a key aspect in school improvement (Ferguson, Hackman, Hanna & Ballantine, 2010).

Teachers' Motivation and Incentives

Motivation precedes and is sustained through both learning and behavior change; in order to foster Professional Development, it is important to understand what motivates teachers and what does not. Technical literature in teacher motivation does not fit into the distinctions I am making between Professional Development understood as either training or life-long learning. Instead of forcing the situation and connections that may not be relevant, I will discuss the main findings on motivation in a general fashion.

Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007), looked at 259 studies that included 219,625 participants to meta analyze a hypothesis that integrated motivational, social and work context characteristics. The main finding was that one of the largest factors that explained workers' attitudes and behaviors was motivation. Tye and O'Brien (2002) conducted a study on teacher attrition among Chapman University School of Education graduates. In order to explain some of the factors that motivated teachers, they quoted a practicing school teacher who alluded to the

“pleasures of the job. . . [such as] flexibility, challenge, creativity, working with and for people” (p 31).

Literature that focuses more specifically on the relationship between pay and teacher motivation is quite robust in its findings that the connection is either weak or non-existent. Darling-Hammond and Rothman (2011), whose comparison of school systems was already introduced, found that teacher motivation and salary were not strictly related. Along the same lines, Remijan’s informed commentary explains how pay incentives can become counterproductive. Because money incentives need to be very high in order to serve as extrinsic motivation, if payment is not high enough, salary increases can actually cause dissatisfaction (Remijan, 2014). Lastly, Springer et al. (2010) conducted a three-year study in the Metro-Nashville Public Schools based on a controlled experiment to explore the effects of money incentives in student achievement gains. Their findings were opposite than what they had expected as they could not establish a relationship between monetary incentives for teachers and student achievement.

General literature on teacher motivation does not seem to regard Professional Development neither as training nor life-long learning. Nonetheless, when we look at research that focuses on specific aspects of teacher motivation—such as work diversification, professional growth and autonomy—those distinctions appear clearly.

Work Diversification and Professional Growth. Danielson’s article serves as an example of the training tradition that sees Professional Development as a way to improve teacher performance and student outcomes. In a reflection on teacher leadership, Danielson (2007) describes the characteristics teacher leaders have and the roles they can fulfill, both formally or informally. The need to provide an encouraging environment for these teachers is supported by the fact that

teachers usually do not have much space to grow professionally while staying in the classroom. This can lead to dissatisfaction, in turn affecting their performance.

Following the same understanding of Professional Development, Remijan (2014), in his aforementioned commentary, advocates for the creation of hybrid positions for teachers by arguing that it directly tackles the lack of work variety in the profession. The main reason in creating these new positions would be to improve teachers' motivation and outcomes.

In their comparison between the educational systems of Finland, Ontario and Singapore, Darling-Hammond and Rothman (2011) understand Professional Development as systemic, life-long learning. They highlight how Finland gives its teachers the space to diversify professionally and assume roles and responsibilities that, in the United States are handled by educational consultants and specialists.

Established Sense of Autonomy. When looking through the literature on teacher autonomy, all of the authors reviewed in this section approach Professional Development as a life-long learning endeavor.

In his book *Who Controls Teachers' Work?*, Ingersoll describes his findings on the work of teaching from a series of studies he did during a period of ten years that ranged from in-depth field studies to advanced statistical analysis of large-scale surveys. One of his central foci of analysis is Autonomy, which is defined as having control over everyday tasks and matters related to them (Ingersoll, 2006).

Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) found that having autonomy in the decision-making process was one of the ways that employees reported high levels of experienced meaning. Along the same lines, Darling-Hammond and Rothman (2011) and Sahlberg (2011), refer to the lack of standardized tests as an example of the autonomy that teachers enjoy in Finland.

Pearson and Moomaw (2005) conducted a study that tried to understand the relationship between teacher autonomy (both curricular and general) and on-the-job stress, work satisfaction, empowerment, and professionalism. They found that more curriculum autonomy led to less on-the-job stress, but that there was little association between curriculum autonomy and job satisfaction. However, when general autonomy increased, so did empowerment and professionalism; a high degree of empowerment and professionalism was associated with greater job satisfaction. More job satisfaction, perceived empowerment and professionalism led to less on-the-job stress.

Feedback Opportunities: Teacher Evaluation

Teacher evaluation research is expansive, and its approaches to Professional Development are varied even when analyzing the same evaluation systems. In this area, it is possible to find research that considers PD as training, life-long learning and mixed approaches.

For example, Sanford (2012) wrote a reflection on the implementation evaluation system known as Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) in Columbus, Ohio. Sanford describes the model as standards-based and in terms of mentorship, highlighting its training aspects. Along the same lines, Faubert (2009) published a paper that reviewed the academic and policy literature of school evaluation in OECD countries. He analyzed the impacts of different evaluation systems on school performance, student achievement and teacher incentives. Van den Bergh, Ros and Beijaard (2014) also approached PD as training. They conducted a study to better understand how to improve teacher feedback during active learning through a Professional Development Program with sixteen elementary school teachers, measuring different aspects of feedback impact.

On the other hand, it is possible to find teacher evaluation research that approaches Professional Development in a systemic way. Darling-Hammond (2014) published a reflection on

different methods of teacher evaluation, highlighting approaches that consider evaluation as part of a wider system designed for teacher feedback and career development. Pervin and Campbell (2011) wrote an article on the Ontario's teacher development system included in the previously mentioned edited volume by Darling-Hammond and Rothman. In that article, they highlighted the Ontario's teacher evaluation system called Teacher Performance Appraisal (TPA) and how it gave meaningful feedback to teachers in order to promote professional growth. Darling-Hammond (2012) published a report that gave guidelines to create an integrated approach between teacher evaluation and career development. Kumrow and Dahlen (2002) examined different features of peer review, highlighting the importance of teachers and unions' involvement and preparation in order for this type of program to succeed.

As mentioned, in teacher evaluation literature it is possible to find works that consider Professional Development both as training and life-long learning. Munger (2012) published a study as part of a large qualitative research project which studied PAR programs across different school districts and states which tried to recognize best practices and challenges within various programs. The author concluded that one of the biggest strengths of PAR was that expert teachers and administrators shared responsibility for teacher evaluation; therefore, teachers could count on better and more immediate feedback. This is an example of a mixed approach to teacher development; it focuses on best practices—which relate more to the training approach—but builds on teacher professionalism when it changes teachers' roles in schools.

As seen in the previous example, Goldstein (2007) approached Professional Development in a holistic fashion. Based on data from a longitudinal case study of an urban school district, she explained the key practical components of PAR evaluation while highlighting the positive effects on the professionalization of teaching. Because it describes more practical components, it can be

associated with a training model; but the article also developed the idea of long-term professionalism.

Value-Added Models (VAMs), briefly described in the previous chapter, are another approach to teacher evaluation. Isenberg and Hock (2011) published a report that describes Value-Added Models used as part of teacher evaluation in the District of Columbia Public Schools. They explain how VAMs provide a statistical method to identify how much of student achievement is attributable to specific teachers, explaining that the method isolates other factors that impact student achievement. On the other hand, Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel and Rothstein (2012) wrote an article that points to the statistical and methodological flaws of using VAMs for individual teacher assessment. They explain how this approach is highly unreliable for effective teacher evaluation. While useful for large-scale studies (for which they were designed), using VAMs for measuring individual teacher effectiveness (individual data) would be a methodological error because VAMs require aggregate-level data to be able to predict accurately.

Formal Opportunities: Professional Development Programs

In 2002, Guskey described a model to understand how teacher change occurred by presenting the different Professional Development phases teachers must go through in order to change their attitudes and practices in the classroom. The author explains how teachers expect practical and concrete ideas from a PDPS; programs that do not comply with these expectations have little chance of promoting change (Guskey, 2002). This illustrates Professional Development viewed as training.

Conversely, Little (1993) approached Professional Development Programs as a life-long learning endeavor. Critiquing the idea of PD as coaching, Little advocated for collaborative and

discussion-based programs that aimed to create school-system changes and professionalize the work of teachers.

Content and Pedagogy. Just as the literature in teacher autonomy Professional Development was understood solely as life-long learning; research on the content and pedagogy of Professional Development programs understands PD mainly as training.

Mary Kennedy (2016b) proposed a way of understanding the practice of teaching based on five challenges that teachers face in order to help teacher candidates (and teachers going through Professional Development programs) analyze them and find suitable solutions. Because it focused on teacher performance, this way of understanding Professional Development is better seen under the training view.

Regarding PDPS pedagogy, in Kennedy's aforementioned review study, she created a frame of reference for Professional Development Programs based on their designs to facilitate the enactment of what they presented to teachers, including prescription, strategies, insight or body of knowledge (Kennedy, 2016a). These pedagogies focused mainly on teacher performance, aiming to change teachers' practices to improve student achievement.

Guskey's study, which presented a model for teacher change, focused on the need for constant feedback when designing a PDPS. The author advocated for programs that used constant feedback as part of their pedagogy, providing teachers with direct evidence of student learning (Guskey, 2002).

Length. As in the previous section, for studies that analyze the impact of length in PDPs effectiveness, Professional Development is understood mainly as training.

Kennedy (2016a), in her review on PDPs effectiveness, showed that intensity by itself did not predict effectiveness; however, when combined with effective pedagogies, it could make a

difference. Alternatively, Desimone published an article in 2009 with ideas for improving inquiry in Professional Development Programs where she mentioned the necessity of including at least twenty contact hours with teachers—ideally spread over time—in order for programs to be effective (Desimone, 2009). Following the same idea, Wei, Darling-Hammond and Adamson (2010), in their study that searched for benchmarks for PDPs, found that programs needed to have over thirty hours of contact hours with teachers spread over six to twelve months in order to have a significant effect on student achievement.

Implementation Process. Implementation literature on PDPs understands Professional Development both as training and life-long learning.

McLaughlin (1976) studied the implementation of several classroom organization projects and developed the notion of implementation as mutual adaptation contrasted with fidelity models. The mutual adaptation model assumes that changes on the side of implementers are not only unavoidable, but desirable; while the fidelity model assumes that implementers carry out programs following the intent of the designers. Although the view of teachers is an active and professionalized one, the author considers Professional Development as training in specific practical programs in which teachers will learn and adapt new ideas. Along the same lines, Siskin (2016) presented the results of a three-year, mixed methods study on the local and organizational adaptation that both teachers and programs made based on the implementation process of scaling up International Baccalaureate. Siskin adds an extra step to adaptation: mutual adaptation in action. Mutual adaptation in action suggests that not only the people implementing a certain policy adapt the original reform (which she calls mutual adaptation in situ), but that the designers of the same reform can use those in situ adaptations to redesign either the original policy or one that follows it. In this sense, the on-site experience is used at the design level.

Guskey (2002), whose model of teacher change was already introduced, advocated for a change in teaching practices that would result in a change in beliefs only once teachers saw the results. Moreover, Guskey mentioned how implementation was never uniform because context changed from school to school and from classroom to classroom. The same view was proposed by Coburn and Stein (2006) in a study review about communities of practice in California and New York, where they found that variation not only occurred across school districts or schools; but, also across classrooms within the same school.

Researchers studying implementation have also regarded Professional Development as a system changing endeavor. Elmore (2000)—whose article on understanding large scale instructional improvement was already introduced—highlighted the importance of teachers having time during program implementation to develop a common understanding of why things happened a certain way. Along the same lines, Stein and Wang (1988) also approached PD as a life-long endeavor. They conducted an interview and questionnaire-based study that aimed to find the relationship between successful program implementation and perceptions of self-efficacy. They found that teachers' sense of professionalism was affected by the implementation process

Teachers' Views

Research on teacher perspectives on Professional Development is scarce. Based on data from German secondary schools from 1939, Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke and Baumert (2011) examined teachers' views of both formal and informal learning opportunities during their professional life. Their findings showed that mid-career educators used more PDPs, while informal opportunities such as teacher collaboration was mostly used by beginning teachers. Reading professional literature was mostly done by teachers at the end of their careers. The authors' views on PD were closer to training.

Conclusion

In this study, Professional Development is understood both as training and life-long learning because it gives a more complex and realistic idea of how teachers grow professionally. Some areas of Professional Development are more logically seen from one view or the other. For example, almost all the literature reviewed on Professional Development programs and their characteristics approaches PD as training, while literature on autonomy and supportive school structure tends to view PD as life-long learning. It seems that the closer one is to an actual program, the more practical the theoretical framework needs to be; while aspects of Professional Development that focus on profession-building call for a broader perspective.

The research questions that guide this study are the following:

1. How do Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and school structure?
2. How do Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and motivation, including work diversification, professional growth and autonomy?
3. How do Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and feedback in the form of teacher evaluation?
4. How do Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and Professional Development Programs considering their content, pedagogy, length and implementation process?

Chapter III: Methods

This chapter provides an overview of the site, participants' recruitment process, participants' overview and the context in which they work, the unit of analysis, the interview procedures, the methodology used to analyze the data and possible biases and errors.

Site and Recruitment

This study was conducted through hour-long Skype interviews with novice Chilean history teachers. I graduated from Pontificia Universidad Católica in December of 2013. This program usually graduates a class of around seventy-five students, but only half or less go on to study a terminal teaching degree to become history teachers.

Because I was interested in novice teachers' views on Professional Development, reaching out to my former classmates seemed like a logical option. I expected that they would be more willing to participate in the study if they knew the researcher. It also gave me a cohesive sample which allowed me to reach conclusions for a more defined group. I emailed the whole class asking for school teachers with at least one year of experience to participate in a study examining teachers' views on Professional Development. I received different replies; some told me they had studied journalism after they finished their bachelor's degree while others had followed international politics or cultural career paths. Thankfully, I also received answers from teachers, and ended up setting interviews with the seven that replied. Out of a class of seventy-five graduates around thirty or thirty-five typically follow the teaching career. I had the chance to interview seven of these teachers.

Participants

All of my participants can be described as part of Chile's elite; they all went to K-12 private schools and graduated from the most prestigious university in the country with good grades.

Nonetheless, most of them have a marked public service spirit that can be seen through their interviews and profiles. All the participants are history teachers with between one and three years of experience.

Amelia. Amelia is twenty-six years old and has participated in social work enterprises since she was in high school. She teaches ninth to twelfth grade and is highly interested in psychopedagogical training, hoping it will help her better fulfill her teaching role. Amelia is not sure how long she will teach for because she has many interests. That being said, she sees herself in the classroom from five to ten more years because she enjoys it so much.

Josefina. Josefina is twenty-six years old and has been teaching for one year at a particular subsidized school that serves vulnerable students. Overall she has one-and-a-half years of experience. She teaches sixth to twelfth grade and values practice and common sense as the best tools that teachers have. Josefina sees herself teaching for a maximum five years because she describes herself as “not so passionate about it.” She says she “likes to study more than teaching and think that the salary is horrible”.

Juan. Juan is twenty-five years old and feels strongly that “schools should be more democratic and a place where all its agents build a common project”. He recently left the school where he was teaching; partly because he is finishing a master’s program in political science, but also because he did not feel aligned with the school’s educational philosophy. Including his student teaching he has had three years of experience and teaches from third to twelfth grade. Juan sees himself teaching for up to ten years if he can find a school with a good ratio of workload and salary. He also wants to contribute to the school and its educational project, as opposed to being someone who just obeys the administration.

María Gracia. María Gracia is twenty-six years old and has been working for two-and-a-half years at a private school. She believes that “everything that makes a teacher good is workable and that although you can have a beneficial personality, there is no such thing as a natural teacher”. María Gracia teaches from fifth to twelfth grade and sees herself teaching forever because she is passionate about it and its family life compatibility.

María José. María José is twenty-six years old, holds a hybrid position at a disadvantaged, subsidized school, and highly values team work among teachers. She has been teaching at the same school for two years and has two-and-a-half years of overall experience in the classroom. María José teaches from seventh to twelfth grade and sees herself teaching for around fifteen more years. She does not imagine herself in teaching for longer mostly because of class size (classes at her school have about forty students). Nonetheless, she would like to keep teaching in after-school workshops or something similar in order to stay in the profession.

Rosario. Rosario is twenty-six years old and has worked at the same disadvantaged, subsidized school for two years. Her overall experience is two-and-a-half years. She values the opportunities for Professional Development that her school has given her, especially one-on-one feedback. Rosario sees herself teaching for as long as she physically can. Even though she would like to teach her whole life, she has found that it is too physically and emotionally taxing—especially to underserved students as the ones she currently works with. After leaving, she would like to keep working in education through another role.

Verónica. Verónica is twenty-six years old, has been married for over two years, and is the mother of a toddler. She has been teaching at a private school for two-and-a-half years. She has three years of classroom experience. She teaches seventh to twelfth grade and highly values academic knowledge, wishing to complement teaching with research in history. She sees herself

teaching forever—not only because she enjoys it, but because she believes it is compatible with doing research and her family life.

Unit of Analysis

The focus of this study is to understand teachers' views towards different features of Professional Development. The unit of analysis is the individual; I will analyze each teacher's opinions on the matter.

Procedures

Interviews were conducted through different videoconference softwares such as Skype and FaceTime, and lasted between forty minutes and one hour. They were based on an open-ended, semi-structured protocol that provided specific questions under each theme developed in the conceptual framework. Sample questions by theme included:

School structure: What is your distribution of non-lecture and lecture hours?

Motivations and Incentives:

- a) Work diversification and professional growth: Would you like to assume some out-of-the-classroom responsibilities—while teaching fewer classes—such as student advisor or administrative work? Why?
- b) Autonomy: How would you define an autonomous teacher?

Teacher evaluation: According to your experience, who is most qualified to assess teachers?

Professional Development Programs

- a) Content and Pedagogy: From the following content options, choose the two that interest you the most for a program: (1) Designing approachable and challenging material for students. (2) Enlisting student participation, (3) Exposing student thinking, (4) Containing student behavior, (5) Accommodating personal needs.

- b) Length: How long should the ideal Professional Development Program last? Why?
- c) Implementation: What do you think about the importance of feedback and monitoring in the process of implementing a new program?

Methods of Analysis

After transcribing and translating the interviews, I organized them by theme of the conceptual framework. Given that the interview questions were organized in the same way, this task was a relatively simple process. I used thematic analysis to examine the data. In order to catalogue all the interviews under similar criteria, I created codes for both general and more specific themes such as School Structure (SS), Autonomy (A), and Evaluation Goals (EG).

After coding the seven interviews, I went through them theme by theme, writing and noting everything teachers said on the topic under analysis and taking special care to look for ideas that came up repeatedly across different interviews. For example, when I was looking at autonomy I read the section that asked about it in all the interviews, finding that five out of the seven teachers considered that an autonomous teacher was able to plan lessons freely and creatively. Finally, I organized my notes and created summaries of participants' responses by topic.

Researcher Bias

As I mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, all the participants of the study are former college classmates and friends. This can be an advantage because they were more comfortable with me and could be more open about their views. However, it is important to acknowledge the risk that the opposite happened: because they knew the researcher on a personal level, participants may have answered as they thought they should have instead of what they actually believed. To correct this potential issue, I mentioned at the beginning and several times throughout the

interviews that there were no right answers and that the study was intended to explore teachers' views free of judgment.

Chapter IV: Study Results

This chapter presents the results of participants' perspectives on five main topics: 1) views toward teaching; 2) school structure including work diversification and autonomy; 3) teacher evaluation; and 4) Professional Development Programs, including their content, pedagogy, length and implementation processes.

Views of Teaching

I begin the results chapter with teachers' views of their profession, which includes their likes and dislikes of the job as well as their views of good teaching and career projections. This will provide a context for understanding the study results.

All of the participants said that helping students think and grow both intellectually and emotionally was the aspect they valued most about teaching. As Verónica put it, "What I really like about teaching is awakening interest in students, seeing how they improve their grades, and helping them in their emotional life". Other factors that teachers mentioned as important were building relationships with students, being a role model for teenagers and being in constant touch with history.

When asked about what they valued the least, their answers were diverse. Two teachers mentioned bureaucracy and two mentioned the low salary. Other responses concerned the lack of planning hours, the ingratitude from some students, the imposed national curriculum, the excessive formalities in relationships inside the school, and for one teacher—who teaches in an especially challenging environment—the fact that she has to go through content in a more basic manner for students to understand it.

Most of the participants defined a good teacher as one that is close with his or her students. They were convinced this leads to better teaching because there is greater understanding between

teacher and students. In Josefina's words, a good teacher "is mostly receptive; her students realize that she is someone that wants to help them improve and that there are no dumb questions. But I also think a good teacher should be an academic authority; that is very important". According to the participants, good teachers should also stimulate students to think, be academic authorities, and be strict and organized.

When asked about how long they saw themselves teaching, the answers were quite diverse. Josefina said she thought she would probably teach a maximum for five more years, because she was not so passionate about teaching, the salary was bad and she liked studying more than teaching. Juan and Amelia saw themselves teaching for around ten years, the latter because although she liked teaching a lot, she liked other things as well. Juan mentioned that he would only teach again if he could find a school with a good balance between work and salary, and where he could be a contribution to the school and the educational project, not just someone who obeyed the administrators. María José saw herself teaching for around fifteen years, mostly because she didn't like such big classes (40 students), she would like to still be in touch with schools but maybe teaching afterschool workshops, something more diverse. Three participants mentioned that they would like to teach forever; Verónica, María Gracia and Rosario. Verónica said that in the perfect world she would teach forever, but complementing it with research in history, while having time for her family. Rosario mentioned how she would like to teach for as long as she could physically could, and that maybe afterwards she could teach one or two classes complementing it with other jobs linked to education. María Gracia mentioned how she found the profession fun, challenging and family friendly.

Context: School Structure

All the participants felt that, even though they had different proportions of planning versus teaching hours, they did not have enough time for planning and grading. Rosario explained her situation: “I started with a proportion of seventy-five/twenty-five, and now we have sixty-five/thirty-five. I like the new distribution, but it is always insufficient, it is better, but the teacher never finishes. It is never enough for all the work: lesson planning, creating evaluations, grading, preparing and looking for material...”. Like Rosario, most of the participants agreed that the sixty-five/thirty-five hour distribution of teaching and planning hours that the new Chilean law established was better than the previous situation, but, it was still not enough. Some of the teachers mentioned that the ideal proportion would be fifty-fifty, and Verónica suggested a regular schedule that would go until 6 PM, making teaching more like other jobs and getting paid for the whole day, improving salaries in that way.

Regarding planning time, a couple of the participants suggested that new teachers should have more planning hours than experienced ones. Verónica explains, “I am always short on planning time. Especially during the first year you are teaching a class when you start a clean slate. Afterwards, you complement, you enrich what you already have; but, the first year is terrible. That is why I think new teachers should have extra planning time”.

Teachers working in subsidized schools said that their classes were too big (around 40 students), interfering with classroom management and in their freedom to create more comprehensive assessments because they took too long to grade.

Almost all participants reported that, regardless of whether the school was private or subsidized, their academic coordinator did not observe them regularly. For example, according to María José, “Last year the coordinator went to observe my classes two times.” María Gracia added,

“My boss went to observe two of my classes in the whole year.” Josefina said, “In my case, my coordinator went to observe only one of my classes in the whole year and that was in March. And believe me, my classes at the end of the year were way better.” One participant even mentioned fearing her academic coordinator, while another noted how the only feedback she had was at the end of the year when the coordinator gave her evaluation results. Only Rosario mentioned that her academic coordinator observed her frequently; “At my school, we use the Bambrick method in which the coordinator focuses on you, helps you discover your weaknesses, helps you establish concrete goals and then initiates weekly follow-ups”. Because she teaches at a subsidized school that is known for its intense work with teachers, her case is somewhat special.

Participants mentioned other issues related to school structure. María José said that her school had a huge problem with teacher absenteeism which regularly affected her planning hours because she was needed to substitute for other teachers. María Gracia also stated that she felt her superiors expected her to help students develop complex thinking but did nothing to guide her along the way.

When participants were asked their opinions on mentors for new or struggling teachers, all of them referred only to mentors for new teachers and did not mention failing teachers. They agreed that the figure of a mentor could be very positive for new teachers.

When asked about what mentors should do, almost all included reviewing mentee’s lesson plans, tests and packets, and introducing new teachers to the school environment. Some participants mentioned that a mentor should give practical tips to mentees. As Amelia said, tasks that mentors could assume “would have helped me make fewer and smaller mistakes during my first year”. Rosario and Juan, who had experience with mentor-mentee structures in Professional

Development Programs, mentioned that mentors should guide teachers, as opposed to making the mentee copy his or her style.

Most of the participants thought mentors should be experienced, understanding teachers. Other characteristics they listed were mentors being from the same discipline as the mentee, currently teaching, an academic authority, committed, and having good teaching practices (as opposed to only experienced).

The last set of interview questions regarding school structure asked for participants' views on in-school recognition of good teachers. All interviewees agreed that good teachers should be recognized inside schools. Like Verónica, who claimed that “good teachers should be recognized because it is always good to know when you do your job right”, most of the participants said that it was a great way of getting positive feedback. Other things mentioned about recognitions included that they should be given for good teaching practices and that they should be uniform for the whole team. Three participants said that administrators should give recognitions, two mentioned students and one the whole school. Finally, when asked about the form that this recognition should take, some said it should be with a bonus while others were opposed to the idea of recognizing teachers with money because it could create friction among the staff. Other options ranged from simple recognitions to postgraduate degrees (e.g. giving the option of studying for a diploma).

Work diversification and professional growth. All the participants said that teachers must be constantly learning and improving their pedagogical theories, materials, lesson plans, and teamwork abilities. According to most of the participants, teachers could improve through Professional Development programs, reading research, observing other teachers and practice. On

the other hand, Josefina said, “You get new methodologies by pure common sense; more than from reading or that advice from others”.

All the participants agreed that they would like to take on other roles inside the school besides teaching. Some of the alternative jobs they mentioned were: counseling students, guiding students on their pastoral or social services to the community, helping the student council, creating teaching material for the department, giving after-school workshops, and coordinating teachers’ schedules and work.

María José was the only teacher who actually held a hybrid position, best described by her own words:

I like having this type of position. I have never liked classes that are too big, I love being a teacher but hate that there are 43 kids in one room. The job I did this year was more personalized. I was the first communion guide for a class I taught history to last year. Students changed the view they had of me; in this setting they thought, “Ah, this teacher is a good person that wants to help me. She is more than just someone who gives me a bad grade if I do bad in a test.” In that sense, my position gave me benefits that other teachers don’t have. I worked on both sides, teaching and in the personalized area of helping kids. I like diversity. Another part of my job description is that I’m in charge of the cultural area now, which relates strongly with history. And I’m alone on this; this is a new project for the school, that no one knows anything about, and they asked me to design it from scratch. So, I defined the cultural visits students must go to in relationship with the history curriculum of their year. All my work ended up being a project for the whole school. When a kid enters the school in pre-kinder, teachers are going to tell their parents, “When your child graduates from high school, he will have gone to the “Museo de Bellas Artes”,

“Museo de Historia Natural”, etc.” You create a style of culture in the school that didn’t exist before. And that job wouldn’t have been done by someone who was not a history teacher. In the end, it is still a pedagogical job, even if it’s not through direct teaching.

When asked why they would like to carry out those roles, most of the participants, who did not hold a hybrid position, mentioned the impact they could have on students and the personal relationship they could built with them, which, in turn could help students learn more in the classroom. In that sense, they saw it as complementary to their teaching role. Another reason was that it could be a space with more professional freedom because after school workshops do not have a national curriculum.

All the participants agreed that complementary roles should be paid; however, there was no consensus on how much that payment should be. Some of the teachers said these alternative positions should be paid the same as a regular classroom job, others thought that they should pay more and others less. Rosario added another request by saying, “Having specific hours to dedicate to your other job is crucial to really have the space to do it because, many times, planning and collaboration hours end up being spent in meetings or other things”.

An interesting aspect of professional growth arose when I asked about creating a Professional Annual Growth Plan like the one used in Ontario. Most of the participants said they would like something along those lines, mentioning it should be concrete and guided by the academic coordinator. Nonetheless, many of them said they thought it would work better as a department instead of with each teacher in order to best create continuity and coherence throughout different classrooms. In María Gracia’s words, “I also think it is good, and more realistic, to have common goals as a department because the department chair knows her department’s weaknesses.”

While most of the participants thought something like the Annual Growth Plan would work at their school, they didn't think it would work at the national level. Verónica explained it in the following way:

I think that an idea like this [the Annual Growth Plan] would work in my school. But, I don't know if it would work nationally. I work at a private school, and it's a whole different world compared to public schools. I don't think I have the face [authority] to determine what happens in those schools; they have a hard time. I have a lot of friends who work in the public system and their relationship with the academic coordinators is really bad. There's a lot of jealousy going on, which is a problem if you want others to improve. Because if you think they're trying to steal your job, then you won't help them improve. I think that the key for this to work is having a very good academic coordinator. And besides, they typically have bigger problems, like ensuring that kids don't come high to class, that they take tests, and that they show up for class! Only afterwards can they focus on teachers' improvement. The problem is that there are too many problems.

Established sense of autonomy. María Gracia defined autonomy in the following way: “an autonomous teacher is one who feels free to try new things in his classroom; applies new methodologies, goes deeper in some areas of the content versus others, and decides when and how to go over the content”. Along the same lines, most of the participants defined autonomy as being free to lesson plan, do activities, and to be creative. Many of them mentioned the ability to solve problems alone, while others—like Josefina—emphasized the importance of feeling that their coordinator trusted them; “An autonomous teacher is one that feels that the coordinator trusts her. In my case my coordinator trusts me blindly. I can do whatever I want, go through the content as I want, and do the project I want. I show him everything before, but he never changes my plans”.

Only one teacher presented autonomy in terms of empowering teachers. Another teacher mentioned that even if autonomy were a good attribute, there was still a need for a certain amount of supervision to avoid laziness.

All participants stated that they needed to follow the national curriculum, which interfered with their autonomy. Most of the participants seem resigned by saying that there was always going to be a curriculum. María Gracia and Juan, for example, mentioned this: “Autonomy does not have to do with being free with the curriculum. I mean, you have to follow the curriculum you’re screwed... but you can be autonomous and follow the curriculum at the same time” [María Gracia]. “Teachers should have more responsibilities, like the option of changing the curriculum. There, I think not only teachers, but the school as a whole, should be more autonomous” [Juan].

When asked to rate how much they thought autonomy impacted student learning, all participants said that it impacted student learning greatly. With autonomy, teachers could lead better classes, be more creative, focus on student learning, and be better role models for students.

Feedback: Teacher Evaluation

When asked about their thoughts on teacher evaluation as a concept—as opposed to the shape it has taken in Chile—all the participants said that they found it positive and necessary. Most participants thought that teacher evaluation should be practical and contextualized, with class observation, and that it should also measure content knowledge. Most of them agreed that there should not be a standardized evaluation. Different types of evaluation were mentioned, such as self-evaluation, peer evaluation, and holistic (as a member of the community). María José added another thought to teacher evaluation: “I think that teacher evaluation is good, and that it needs to be done, but it should go hand in hand with self-evaluation. Your academic coordinator evaluates

you, you evaluate yourself, and, afterwards, you have a conversation about it to understand discrepancies”.

María Gracia thought that

the goal of teacher evaluation should be to help teachers improve. It should be framed very positively so that the teacher being evaluated does not feel questioned. They should see the evaluation as an opportunity to improve, not a threat of being fired.

Most teachers concurred that the main goal of teacher evaluation should be to help teachers improve. Many of the participants stated that evaluation could help teachers know how they were doing and that it could be a method to recognize, warn, avoid mediocrity, verify teachers' educational practices and guarantee basic competencies.

Five out of seven of the participants said that evaluation should be done by both internal and external agents. One teacher said it should be exclusively internal and the other exclusively external. The latter suggested that evaluators should go to the schools to observe the whole educational process for evaluations.

The main reason for advocating for external evaluation was that teachers thought external agents could provide a new view and be more objective. The main argument for an internal one was that participants thought internal agents knew teachers better and had more information about their classes. Other reasons for both external and internal agents came up; a teacher advocating for external evaluation mentioned that it was the state's responsibility to ensure educational quality, while two teachers supporting internal evaluation argued that it facilitated giving teachers feedback. One teacher said that a disadvantage of having external evaluations could be that schools would try to put up a better-looking front for outsiders.

When asked about who should carry out teacher evaluation, six out of seven participants were of the opinion that teachers should evaluate teachers. Four preferred that administrators (academic coordinators) evaluated teachers, and three said that students needed to do so.

Verónica summarized the main reasons given by different participants for choosing teachers as evaluators: “Teachers should be evaluated by other teachers. Teachers with a lot of experience, and ideally that they are also teaching at the university level. Teachers are in terrain, they know what is going on, they know the students, they know what teaching is like.” Josefina’s reasons for choosing the academic coordinator are representative of other participants’ ideas: “I think that evaluation should be done by the academic coordinator, but a more present one that observes your classes. The academic coordinator is someone that has more studies, more experience; there is a reason why he occupies that position.” Some participants mentioned that they thought students should evaluate teachers because they were the focus of teachers’ work. Such evaluations could indicate the environment the teacher created in a classroom, and it would be good for the students to be more involved in the school.

Six out of seven participants said that salary should be tied to teacher evaluation, while one said it should not be. Those in favor advocated for incentives in the form of a bonus, claiming that it would serve as a reward and incentive because Chilean teachers were poorly paid. Different warnings were issued by interviewees with respect to problems bonuses could create: they should not be public (like in any other job), and they should not be given out every year. Juan was against teacher evaluation results being tied to salary because “it creates a weird environment in the educational community, by encouraging cronyisms and cheating”.

Formal Opportunities: Professional Development Programs

Most participants mentioned that Professional Development Programs should be concrete to facilitate implementation and enactment. Other factors that were brought up were the need for interdisciplinary programs and the importance of schools giving teachers the time and space to go through programs so that they would not become nuisances (some participants mentioned that teachers got fed up by useless or overly intense programs). Some mentioned that there should be an evaluation of the program where teachers would be evaluated on what they learned to detect problems in future implementation. Many participants mentioned that programs should be run by specialists.

When asked about their expectations of Professional Development Programs, most of the participants mentioned that they wish they would be practical and easy to implement. Many teachers talked about their desire for group work, suggesting that it would be beneficial to attend PDPs as a department.

I asked participants to share their thoughts on programs in which they had participated. Many of them mentioned that programs were rarely easy to apply in the classroom, one of them saying that programs did not take context into consideration. Some positive experiences with programs included those embodying concrete applications, collaboration, personal follow-up and class recordings afterwards analyzed as a group.

Content and Pedagogy. When asked about what content they would like to address in a Professional Development Program, participants mentioned discipline specific content (history: e.g. working with sources), classroom management, fostering thinking abilities, and psychology. Later, I asked teachers to choose two themes from the following list of program content: design material, enlist student participation, expose student thinking, contain student behavior, and

accommodate personal needs. The most popular topics were designing material and exposing student thinking followed by enlisting student participation and containing student behavior. Accommodating personal needs was chosen only by one teacher.

María Gracia argued that she chose designing material ... because it requires a lot of time, and you need to be up-to-date. As a historian, I love to read; but I imagine that, at some point, I won't be able to keep up to date with everything. In that sense, I think that it is very important to have programs where you work with your team and create good historical material, avoiding to use the same old packets with the same sources for ten years, which is what usually happens in Chilean schools.

Amelia explained that she chose exposing student thinking by saying, That is how you verify learning, and that should be done every class and I feel that practically never happens. It is important to have the tools for doing it, having effective ways to see what they are thinking as a class. We have tried to look for those tools and it has been really hard, so I would love to have a program to practice and learn how to do so.

María José chose enlisting student participation “because if students do not participate, you don't know if the class was fruitful or not. It is a way of seeing if students are motivated and how much they learned.” For Josefina, containing student behavior “is a help for me and for the few students that do want to learn but are obstructed by the wild behavior of their classmates.”

Only Rosario chose accommodating teachers' personal needs as a priority for a Professional Development Program. She explained:

One of the main problems teachers face is managing their vocation and their personal life. The level of stress that a teacher undergoes because of academic overload and the number and magnitude of challenges (emotive, psychological, academic, bureaucratic) he encounters is huge. Teaching requires playing several roles that nobody taught you in teacher education programs... the physical and psychological wear that comes with the job is enormous. And it is hard for teachers to have a good self-care in that sense. And you can see it, you see that most teachers are tired, that those that stay over 30 years are not motivated, that they don't want to keep up to date. You can see that they have a sad face that newer teachers don't have. So, I think it would be enriching to have programs to help teachers be okay, because if teachers are okay, then students will be okay too.

When asked about preferred program pedagogies, participants mentioned group work, class observations and videos, group comments on recorded classes, practice time during the program, and constant follow-up.

Length. Most participants said that the ideal length of a Professional Development Program depended on its content. When pressed further, most said that the ideal length for something new and challenging would be an initial training workshop and then monthly follow-ups. Another option that was offered by one of the participants was having afternoon program sessions every one or two months.

Implementation. When asked about program implementation, three of the participants mentioned the importance of follow-up. Some interviewees mentioned that, most of the time, teachers should not be forced to implement specific methodologies. But if the program were a "school reform" or "whole-school program" like drug prevention programs or reading plans are, then the school should impose it. Two participants stressed the importance of gradualism.

All participants said they considered feedback vital, necessary and/or important in the implementation of a new program. Some reasoned that it was the only way to see if programs were working. Others mentioned that monitoring should be done both to teachers and students, that feedback should be part of a reflective process, and that it was a way of keeping teachers, administrators and program designers accountable for the results. Most participants agreed that the level of feedback should vary depending on the program's content.

When asked about their experiences with Professional Development Programs, answers were diverse. In some cases, teachers could chose whether they implemented a program or not; conversely, there was one participant who said she did not have any freedom when it came to implementation. In other cases, participants reported that there was no monitoring or follow-ups, which meant that in practice they had freedom to implement or not—even if, in theory, they did not have the choice. Amelia gave a clear example of this:

We needed to implement a program for civic engagement starting in April, and the school forgot. We just did it in December, and it went horribly. But we have a document that says we're doing it. In this case, monitoring from the ministry was super weak. It was positive for me because I didn't agree very much with the program. But if you think that the program is supposed to help civic engagement, it is clearly bad that every teacher can do whatever they want. Some teachers are super responsible and do it the best way they can; but, it also allows for other teachers not to do it with impunity.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented the participants' views on teaching, school structure, work diversification and autonomy, teacher evaluation, and Professional Development Programs

including their content and pedagogy, length and implementation process. The next chapter focuses on my interpretation of these results and the study's implications.

Chapter V: Discussion and Implications

The challenges of Chilean teacher education programs make it important to identify successful and meaningful Professional Development Programs (PDPS). With the hopes of finding elements to design more meaningful teacher Professional Development plans, this research looks at Chilean teachers' views on their Professional Development.

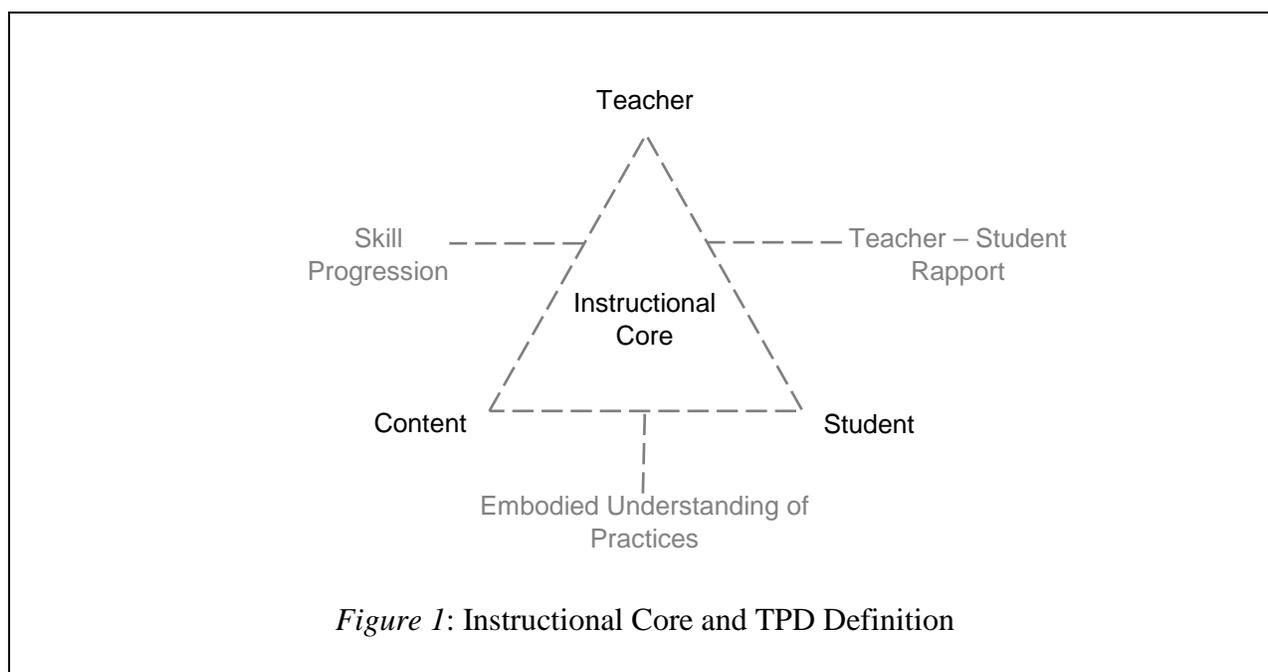
The seven participants of this interview-based study were novice history Chilean teachers, with between one and three years of experience. Interviews were done through Skype and followed an open-ended, semi-structured protocol that provided specific questions under each topic developed in the conceptual framework. Interviews lasted between forty-five minutes and one hour. After transcribing and translating the interviews I organized them around the topics of the conceptual framework. To examine the data, I used thematic analysis.

In the first chapters, I used Dall' Alba and Sandberg's definition of Professional Development, interpreting it as a combination of embodied understanding of practice and skill progression that can take different shapes (Dall' Alba & Sandberg, 2006). Nonetheless, after looking at the results, it is apparent that participants mostly defined their professional goals in terms of helping students grow through building relationships or rapport with them. Across the interviews, participants mentioned teaching practices mostly when talking about improving their work as teachers. This is consistent with the initial definition. Based on this study's findings, I argue that, when approaching teacher Professional Development, a definition founded only on practice and skills is too narrow. Teaching is foremost a personal endeavor. To not consider this in Professional Development can lead to meaningless programs and educational policies.

This new definition of teacher Professional Development is consistent with the theory of the instructional core. The instructional core includes three main elements: **teacher** knowledge,

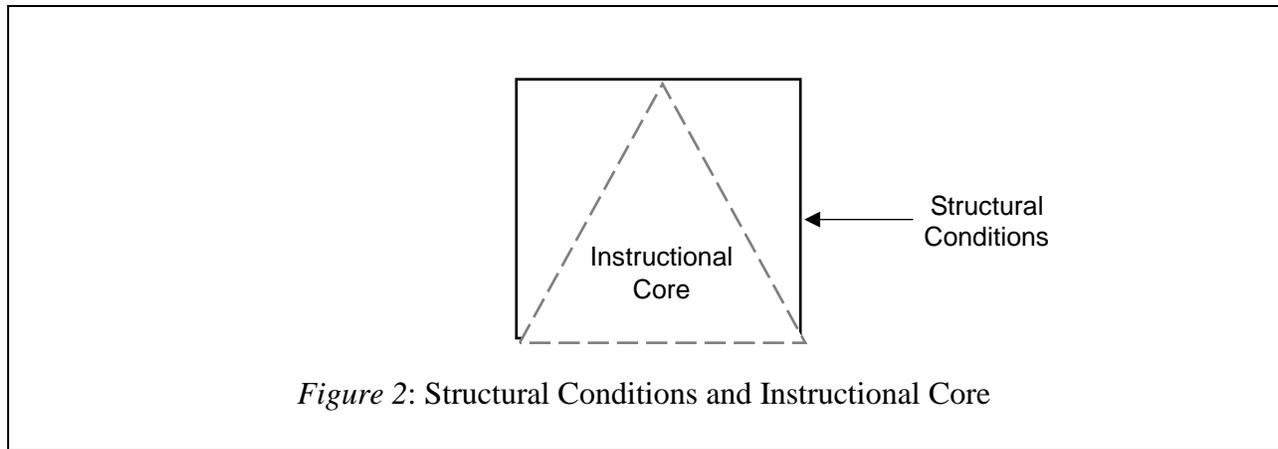
student engagement and demanding **content**. The interaction of these three elements define both teachers' work and student learning (City, Elmore, Fiarman & Teitel, 2009).

The instructional core can be used to understand the three elements of the definition of Professional Development. Each relation represents an element of a teacher's work. In that way, the relation between teacher and content mastery and delivery can be improved through skill progression; the relation between content and students can be improved through embodied understanding of practices (i.e. which practices promote more independent work from students); and teacher and student relations can be developed through teacher-student rapport.

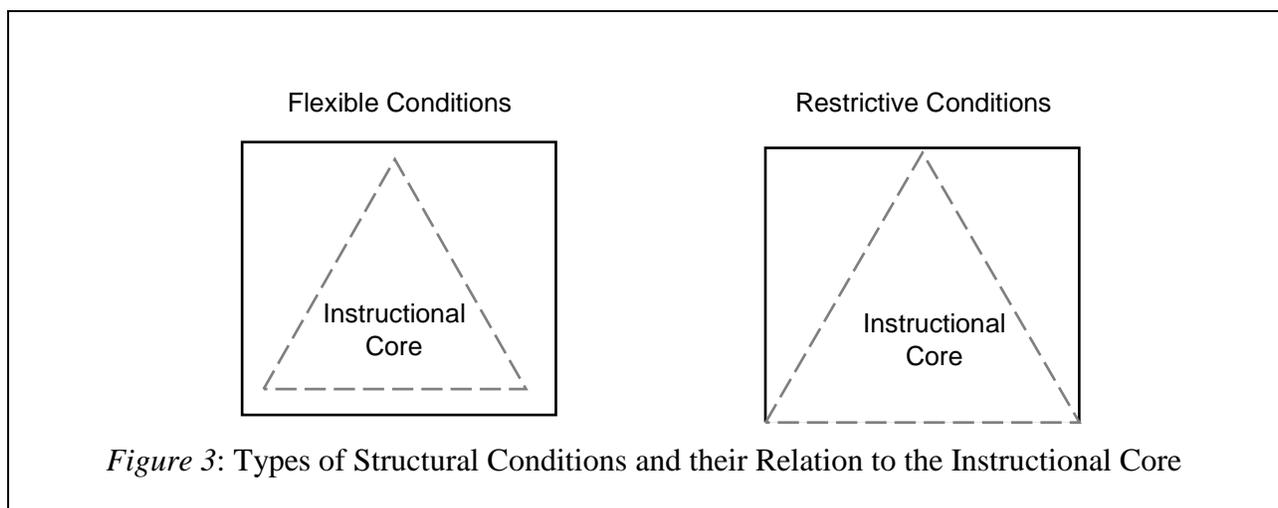


In parallel, participants repeatedly referred to structural circumstances that delimited their work in the classroom. I used that information to include another element to the instructional core framework: the structural conditions in which teachers work. Structural conditions mentioned by the participants included the existence of a national curriculum, the number of lesson planning

hours, class size, salary conditions, bureaucracy, work diversification options and teacher autonomy.



Structural conditions may be restrictive or flexible depending on the space that teachers have for changing the instructional core. Restrictive instructional conditions interfere with the teacher's ability to exercise control over the instructional core, limiting their options in developing a better understanding and delivery of content, their capacity of creating independent environments for students to interact with the content, and their bonding opportunities with students. Flexible structural conditions allow—and can even facilitate—teachers' improvement of the core's interactions by promoting autonomy and creativity.



The new definition of Professional Development adds teacher-student rapport to practices and skills, and the new framework includes structural conditions to understand how relationships develop in the instructional core. Both will be used to analyze the findings of this study.

Research Questions

Question #1: How do novice Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and school structure? Participants seemed to think that their school structures could do more for their Professional Development.

Restrictive conditions. As mentioned in last chapter, all teachers considered their current lesson planning hours insufficient. On one hand, this structural condition restricts teacher – content interactions (or skill progression) because teachers do not have enough time to stay up to date with their field’s advancements or to develop new skills on content delivery. On the other hand, lack of time also affects the relationship between students and content because teachers need to create “fast to grade” activities and are not able to spend enough time in their class designing processes. This affects the quality of students’ interaction with content.

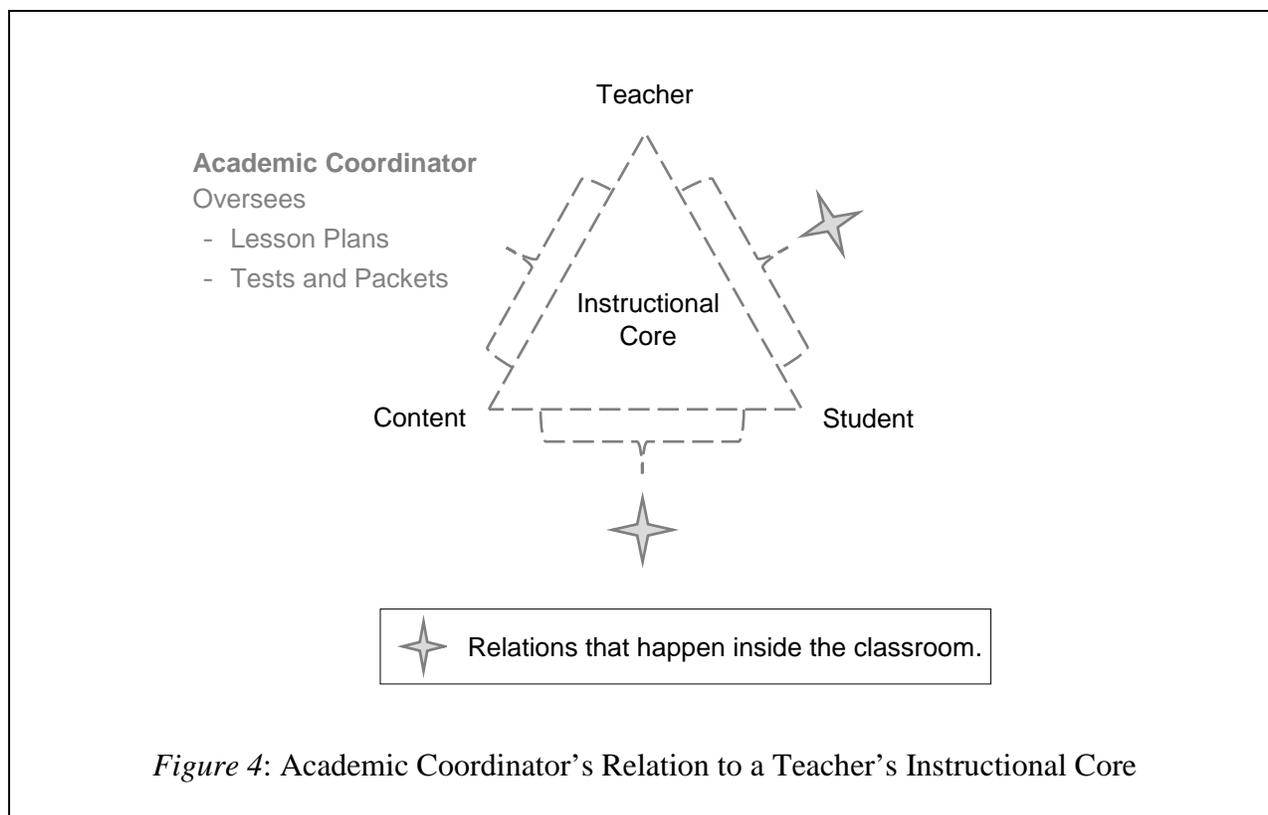
One of the most surprising findings of the study was the participants’ belief that new teachers should have more planning hours—that is, schools should allow for more flexible structural conditions for new teachers. This issue may be influenced by the fact that all the participants were novice teachers and have their first year fresh in their memories. It would be interesting to see if opinions would be similar in a sample that included more experienced teachers. Future research could answer this question.

Another structural condition that teachers from subsidized schools referred to was class size. This element interferes with both the relationship between content and students and with teacher-student rapport. Regarding content-student relations, big classes restrain better practices

such as doing essays or big projects because teachers cannot grade so many essays. If a teacher has five classes of forty students each—a common situation—he or she has two hundred students in total. Also, interactive projects are messier and can mean mayhem in a class with forty teenagers. Big classes can also interfere with teacher-student rapport because it complicates the teacher's ability to get to know each of his or her students and personalize lesson plans.

The national curriculum was viewed as a constraining condition because of how overwhelming it is. The national curriculum interferes in lesson planning and the learning process by being overly comprehensive. It affects the relationship between teacher and content and corresponding skill progression because its volume limits the depth in which teachers can study the content. The social sciences national curriculum tries to cover so much (i.e. Economics, Civics, World History, Latin American History and Chilean History) over only six years that it makes it impossible for teachers to study any of the topics in depth. This gigantic scope also affects the relationship between students and content (embodied understanding of practices) because the fastest way to go over this amount of content is through lecture, diminishing the interaction students have with content.

The role of the academic coordinator. As mentioned in chapter IV, most of the participants said their academic coordinators did not observe them regularly. The academic coordinator is supposed to be an instructional coach who oversees the whole learning process in order to help teachers develop professionally. In most of the participants' cases, it seems that academic coordinators focus mostly on some aspects of the relationship between teacher and content such as going over teachers' lesson plans and tests and packets, consequently missing the delivery portion of teacher – content relations.



The problem (shown in Figure 4) is that at least two of the interactions of the instructional core happen inside the classroom. If the coordinators do not observe teachers, they cannot help them improve. This also promotes teacher isolation. In the previous chapter, it was shown that teachers see this observation process as a need. It seems that they would like for school structure to be more helpful with their Professional Development.

Mentors. Participants' views on mentors only focused on new teachers, which I think is related to the fact that they are novices and that being a new teacher is their closest experience. More research is needed on this topic. The tasks they thought mentors should carry out were mostly ones that are part of the academic coordinator job description: observing classes, giving feedback, reviewing mentee's lesson plans, tests and packets, and introducing them to the school

environment. Participants seemed to want support across the different dimensions of the instructional core.

In chapter IV, Rosario and Juan, who had experience with mentor-mentee structures in Professional Development programs, mentioned that mentors should guide teachers and not make the mentee copy his or her style. Teachers who had not had experience with that kind of dynamic did not mention anything of the kind. In future research, it would be interesting to explore how mentors carry out this role.

Autonomy. Participants understood autonomy along the same lines as Ingersoll (2006)—having the power to exert high levels of control over their everyday tasks. Given the elements that teachers mentioned (i.e. being free to lesson plan, do activities, and be creative), teacher autonomy could also be understood as having control over the instructional core. Other elements of autonomy came up during the interviews; for most of the participants, autonomous teachers could solve problems on their own by applying their professional judgement. A sign of autonomy was having the trust of their coordinators, seen as the verification of their professional judgement from their superiors.

Most of the participants seemed to feel fairly autonomous. This may be influenced by the fact that they all graduated from the top university of the country affecting their superior's perception of them. The autonomy of Chilean teachers should be further studied.

Work diversification and professional growth. When discussing professional growth, participants highlighted two elements of the teacher Professional Development definition: embodied understanding of practice and skill progression. Participants remarked how teachers must be constantly learning and improving their pedagogical theories, materials, lesson plans, and team work abilities. According to them, teachers could improve through Professional Development

programs, reading research, observing other teachers and through practice, indicating that teaching is a highly professionalized profession. The only participant who did not view professional growth as something that could be improved through studying and training was Josefina, who thought teachers improved their methodologies through sheer common sense and practice. Interestingly, she was the only participant who did not see herself staying in the profession. It would be enlightening to do more research to see if there is a relationship between a professionalized view of teaching and career projection.

All the hybrid positions chosen by the participants were related to students, mostly having to do with interacting with students in settings outside the classroom. When asked about their choices, participants explained that their rationale was to have the chance to build personal relationships with their students. This is consistent with their ideas of good teaching and the definition of Professional Development that includes teacher and student rapport.

Another reason why participants liked the idea of hybrid positions was that it gave them the opportunity to teach without the constraints of a national curriculum, speaking to of their desire to have more control over the content element of the instructional core.

Teachers had an interesting reaction when presented with the model of Ontario's annual growth plan. On one hand, it seems teachers did not grasp that level of independence. On the other, there was a very strong emphasis on collegiality; it seems that these teachers understood growing professionally as a team effort and considered that coordinated changes could make a bigger impact on student learning. Using the previous formats, collegiality would look something like the following figure:

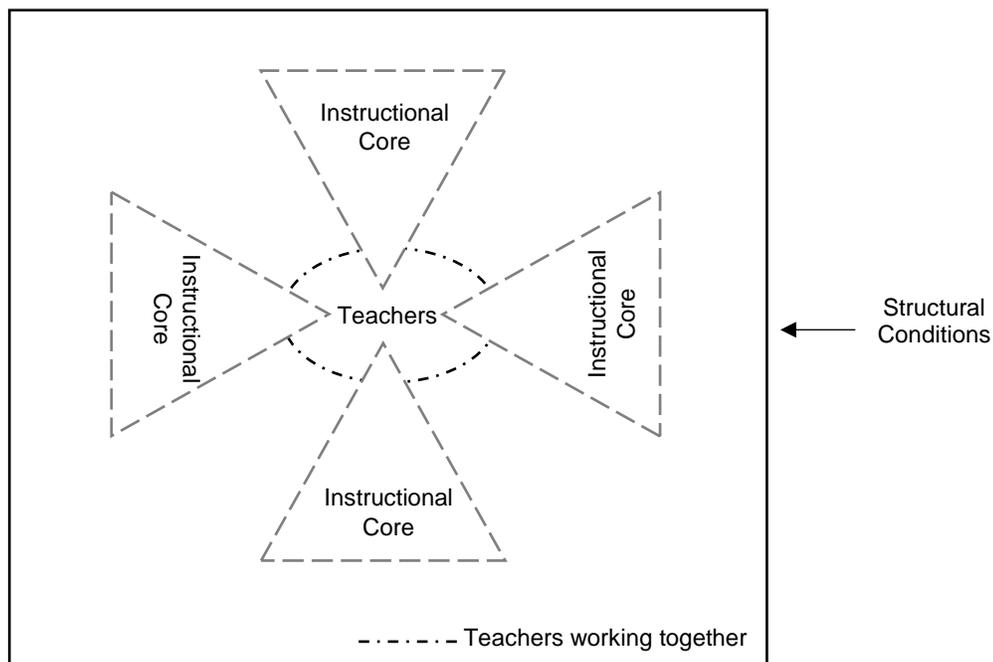


Figure 5: Collegiality in the Context of the Instructional Core

This figure can help us understand that, when teachers interact with each other, they can impact each other's classrooms. It would be interesting to use the instructional core framework to explore collegiality further.

Motivation. Even previously I described work diversification and autonomy as elements of teacher motivation, participants in the study did not make any comments related to motivation while talking about hybrid positions and teacher autonomy. Nonetheless, a strong connection between school structure and motivation through in-school recognition could be when they were asked about in-school recognitions. Even though there was no consensus around linking recognition to bonuses—thus keeping its relationship to Professional Development unclear—all the participants agreed on the importance of recognizing good teachers inside the school in order

to keep teachers motivated. It would be interesting to study teacher motivation and its elements to see the connections between school structure and teacher motivation.

Question #2: How do novice Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and feedback in the form of teacher evaluation? Participants viewed teacher evaluation as an essential part of Professional Development because it gave teachers feedback and helped them improve.

According to these teachers, teacher evaluation was positive and necessary; however, it needed to be contextualized to serve its purposes. They gave priority to the idea that evaluators should observe the classrooms of the teachers they were assessing. This is supported by the instructional core theory which says the relationships between teacher and students and students and content develop in the classroom. Some participants also mentioned the need for teacher evaluation to have a portion on content knowledge, which would reflect the interactions between teacher and content.

As mentioned, participants understood the goal of teacher evaluation as a way to help teachers improve and as a method of recognition or warning. This is consistent with the literature reviewed and the idea of the academic coordinator being an instructional coach who observes and gives feedback on the instructional core process. The element of recognition may have to do with the structural conditions in which these teachers worked. It could be that because they received small amounts of positive feedback, they resorted to evaluation as a way of getting it.

Participants supported a mixed evaluation system consisting of both external and internal evaluations. They thought that external evaluation could be more objective, reflecting their perceived need to grow on embodied understanding of practices and skill progression (the more “technical” part of teaching). On the other hand, advocates for internal evaluation argued that those

inside the school knew teachers and classes better. They could appreciate more teacher-student rapport and consider structural conditions that get in the way of better performance.

When describing who the evaluators should be, most participants agreed that teachers were the ideal candidates because they knew what teaching was like. In other words, members of the profession know the structural conditions that constrain teachers and the learning process (instructional core). Some participants pointed out that the academic coordinator should evaluate teachers because of his or her experience and studies; nonetheless, one who is more present and observes classes regularly. This is essential because it highlights that important processes and relationships of the learning cycle happen inside the classroom (i.e. teacher – student rapport, content – student relationship), making it necessary to be **in** the classroom in order to give pertinent feedback. Lastly, some participants promoted teacher evaluation done by students because they were considered the center and focus of teachers' work. This is consistent with the professional goal of building relationships with students to help them.

Surprisingly, in clear contradiction to the literature, most participants thought teacher evaluation should be tied to monetary rewards. Their reasons ranged from bonuses being part of any other job (which could be related to social status issues) to the fact that teachers were so poorly paid (structural conditions). This finding requires further study; some of the questions could include: Would the participants' views on this matter change if salaries were better? Is their answer related to the SES of the participants? Is this explained by cultural norms in Chile? This could be an interesting niche for comparative education studies.

Question #3: How do novice Chilean history teachers view the relationship between Professional Development and Professional Development programs, considering their content and pedagogy, length and implementation process? Participants viewed Professional

Development programs as an opportunity to grow professionally provided that they were pertinent to their school's reality.

Something that came up in most of the interviews was that participants thought that PDPS should be concrete and specific to facilitate enactment. This speaks to how these teachers viewed Professional Development as the embodied understanding of practices. When talking about their past experiences with programs, most touched on the difficulties of implementation because the programs did not take context into consideration. It is possible to see how participants consider that structural conditions should be taken into consideration when designing programs in order for them to be applicable to their teaching realities.

Surprisingly, teachers wanted to be evaluated during and after programs. Also, participants demanded that programs were given by specialists. Both of these point to a professionalized profession in the sense that teachers want to have access to good Professional Development and measure their skill progression. Lastly, participants expressed their desire to work in groups and attend PDPS with their department. Again, this speaks to the peer collaboration these teachers expect from their Professional Development opportunities and their wider view of teaching. It is important to remember that these are all high school teachers. They usually teach just one subject, but they are worried about content and pedagogical cohesion across grade levels. It would be interesting to further study if this desire for collaboration is related to age, work experience, or something else.

Content and pedagogy. When teachers were asked to choose two topics for a Professional Development program from five things teachers typically did, all of them mentioned that these topics were interrelated. This makes sense under the light of the Instructional Core theory because

the learning process is defined by the relationship between teacher, content and student, and the five topics focus on at least one element.

- a) Design material: Four teachers chose this topic, mentioning how it required a lot of time and that a program of this type could help teachers keep up to date. Designing material is a visible outcome of the relationship between teacher and content.
- b) Expose student thinking: Four participants chose this topic, emphasizing that it was the only way to verify student learning daily. Exposing student thinking is a way for teachers to understand the relationship between content and students and see how students understand and work with the content. This information is vital for teachers to be able to adapt content to their students' needs and trains of thought.
- c) Enlist student participation: Three participants chose this as a topic for a Professional Development program because they wanted to see how motivated their students were and how much they had learned. Enlisting student participation was understood by teachers as a sign of both teacher and student rapport and student and content relationship.
- d) Contain student behavior: Three participants chose this topic because they thought it would help them take better control of the class. Containing student behavior is a manifestation, or expression, of teacher and student rapport.
- e) Accommodate personal needs: Only one teacher chose this topic. Her reasons were based around the importance of having good self-care in order to be able to happily stay in the profession for a long time. Accommodating personal needs has to do with the figure of the teacher and the structural conditions where she or he works.

I first tried to see if there was one relationship from the instructional core that was mentioned more than the others; but, I could not find one that seemed most important to the

participants. What I did find upon looking at each participant's choices was that, when asked to choose two topics, all of them chose topics that addressed different relationships. Some teachers went even further and chose three, recreating the entire instructional core.

Table 1
Participants' Choices of Topics and their Related Relationships

Participants	Topics	Relationships
María Gracia	Design Material	Teacher – Content
	Enlist Student Participation	Content – Student
Amelia	Design Material	Teacher – Content
	Expose Student Thinking	Content – Student
Josefina	Contain Student Behavior	Teacher – Student
	Expose Student Thinking	Content – Student
María José	Design Material	Teacher – Content
	Enlist Student Participation	Teacher – Student
	Enlist Student Participation	Content – Student
Juan	Contain Student Behavior	Teacher – Student
	Enlist Student Participation	Content – Student
Verónica	Design Material	Teacher – Content
	Contain Student Behavior	Teacher – Student
	Expose Student Thinking	Content – Student
Rosario	Accommodate Personal Needs	Teacher
	Expose Student Thinking	Content – Student

It is interesting—although not surprising—that the participants chose complementary topics for their Professional Development. This could be interpreted as an understanding of the practical expressions of the instructional core—even if they have not studied it—validating the theory as representative of classroom reality. In order to seriously claim that, a more thorough study would be needed.

Regarding programs' pedagogy, participants said that they would like to work in groups emphasizing collaboration among peers. They also expressed their desire for someone to observe their classes which circles back to the lack of in-classroom observation from academic coordinators. Lastly, they wanted practice time during the program to make sure they properly

understood program's content; this could be understood as quest to develop embodied understanding of practices.

Length. Participants thought that the ideal length of a Professional Development program depended on its content; and, that if the content was challenging, the best format was an initial workshop with follow-ups during the year. These thoughts on Professional Development Program length is an example of what Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006) described as embodied understanding of practices where practitioners first learn a concept of their profession and then put it into practice. The fact that they mention follow-ups bring to focus an important element of the Professional Development definition: *embodied* understanding of practices. Teachers seem to understand that in order to change their teaching they need to change the way they act as well as the way they think; and that this is more likely to be accomplished through follow-ups and feedback.

Implementation. The main ideas that teachers had on program implementation included the importance of having follow-ups and receiving feedback, allowing teachers to choose when and how to implement specific methodologies, and gradualism. All these indicate a desire for accountability for teachers, administrators and program designers alike. It seems that the participants have a view of implementation as mutual adaptation, where teachers should have autonomy and input in the implementation of a program.

The participants indicated their desire for schools to trust their professional judgement when they mentioned that teachers should be able to choose when and how to implement specific methodologies. In a time where policies tend to be designed under the fidelity model, trusting teachers' judgement and considering them in program designing processes requires a change of direction that could benefit from further studies in the matter.

Future research

The data showed three main unexpected findings: the role of the academic coordinator, teacher preference for mixed (internal and external) evaluation, and the repeated mention of team or department work.

The figure of the academic coordinator, who is supposed to serve as an instructional coach to teachers, was shortly discussed in the first chapter. Even if none of the questions mentioned the academic coordinator, this subject came up in every one of the interviews. Regardless of participants complaining that their coordinators did not observe them, they seemed to value and look up to them and appreciated their years of studies and experience. More research is needed on the figure of the academic coordinator, especially regarding their relationship with teachers.

Even though the literature vouches for a more personalized teacher evaluation directed by people from inside the schools (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Sanford, 2012; Pervin & Campbell, 2011; Kumrow & Dahlen, 2002), participants in this study supported a mixed approach. This topic goes beyond the scope of this study; but, it would be interesting to see if this is unique to Chile, to the age group or has another explanation.

Although there were no questions around the topic of team or department work, all the interviewed teachers mentioned it. This shows that teachers do not see themselves as working alone, and gives hope for building a stronger profession with shared practices. It would be interesting to conduct studies that use the instructional core as a theoretical framework to focus on views of collegiality among teachers.

Final Thoughts

One of the main findings of the study is that teaching is a personal job. Teachers value that; in fact, it is largely what motivates them. Teachers know they cannot get students to learn if they

do not build a relationship with them. A definition of teacher Professional Development that does not include this aspect is limited. A revised definition of teacher Professional Development could be the one proposed at the beginning of this chapter: an embodied understanding of practice, skill progression (as defined by Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006)), and the construction of teacher-student rapport which enables teachers to more effectively do their jobs.

Lastly, structural conditions shape both teaching and learning. Participants reported restrictive structural conditions related mostly to teacher – content relations (i.e. few lesson planning hours and a rigid, huge national curriculum), and content – student relations (i.e. insufficient lesson planning/grading hours, big classes, and a huge national curriculum). It would be relevant to conduct further studies to better understand the relationship between structural conditions and teachers' understanding of the profession. Could restrictive structural conditions in teacher – content and content – student relationships be forcing teachers to focus on teacher – student ones because it is the only relation from the instructional core they can have influence over, leading them to define the profession in that sense?

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Indiana University, Bloomington, IN. January 2016 – April 2017

Masters in Secondary Education

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Secondary Education Degree

Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago Chile, March 2010 – December 2013

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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Indiana University, Bloomington, IN. August 2016 – April 2017.

Lead Spanish Teacher for Project Supported by a New Frontiers in Creativity and Scholarship Grant

Interdisciplinary program called Saturday Exploration of Language through Art (SELA), which combined art and world language education into a class for 4th to 6th graders in the Fall Semester, and for 2nd and 3rd graders in the Spring.

Colegio Inmaculada Concepción de Vitacura, Santiago, Chile. October – December 2015

English Substitute Teacher

7th grade, freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior classes; five hours a week per class. The job involved Lesson Planning, Instruction and Classroom Management.

Colegio Apoquindo Femenino, Santiago, Chile. March – December 2014

Social Studies Teacher

8th grade History teacher, ten hours a week and 4th grade History teacher, three hours a week. The job involved Lesson Planning, Instruction and Classroom Management.

PSU March 2012 – November 2014

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Once a week I prepared high school groups of seniors to give and succeed in the test to enter college in Chile (PSU). The job involved Lesson Planning, Instruction and small group management.

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Creation of Social Studies study material to prepare for PSU at www.puntajenacional.cl, website that gives free preparation material and packets for students all over the country. The job required research and designing study material.

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Computer: Word, Excel, PowerPoint

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Prepared a group of High School seniors in a vulnerable school for their test to enter college in Chile (PSU)

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