

Chapter 1: The Contexts of Urban Settings

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Undertaking pedagogical research in urban settings is not at all like conducting similar research in other settings. In a recent study in middle schools, we arranged the research team, sought and obtained various permissions to conduct the study, and met with the teachers over the summer to prepare. In the fall, 3 weeks after the start of school, the district announced that owing to decreased enrollments it was going to close at least five schools and terminate 33 teachers by December. One of the teachers in the study had just been hired. He was the least-senior person in physical education in the district, had taken a mortgage out on a home, and was getting married mid-fall. Months went by without his knowing whether he would be teaching physical education in the New Year. During this time, the district was frantically offering early retirements, reassignments, and other incentives to teachers in order to deal with the district's budgetary crisis. Another teacher involved in the study found herself starting the year with a block schedule format, but this was followed 3 weeks later with changes in schedule, class size, and class membership. Her students were frustrated and confused, as were parents, teachers, and administrators.

The conditions that students, parents, teachers, and administrators experienced are a product of economic, political, and social influences that impact the day-to-day operation of urban schools. One cannot understand the context of urban schools in the United States without considering the economic, political, and social influences that have made urban settings what they are today. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the educational contexts of urban schools so that readers can best understand the research studies in this monograph. The chapter begins with a brief history of urbanization and the sociopolitical policies that have influenced urban schools. We then discuss the particular context of the Columbus Public Schools (CPS), where the studies reported in this monograph

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occurred. Finally, we provide an overview of the professional development (PD) model on which the studies are based.

The Advent and Economic Consequences of Urbanization

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, families in the United States lived in either rural or urban settings. During this time, however, the population was increasingly moving from rural settings to the city. Cities were sites for manufacturing jobs. Workers and their families moved from farms to cities in the hope of a better quality of life and a better education for their children. In the early 1900s, cities spent twice as much per pupil as did rural districts (Tyack & Cuban, 1995) and, thus, along with increased income came improved educational benefits. As the 20th century progressed, many White (i.e., Caucasian immigrants) families reaped the benefits of urbanization, such as steady employment and an increased standard of living.

Following World War II, the GI Bill of Rights (1944) increased the number of men and women attending college and served to further educate the adult members of the citizenry. With increased income and improvement in the quality of life, beginning as early as the 1920s and accelerating through the 1970s and 1980s, middle-class families moved out of inner city to the new suburbs, surrounding urban areas (Euchner & McGovern, 2003; French, 1997). The move was facilitated by an increased transportation infrastructure in the 1950s that created highways and road systems around the cities (Euchner & McGovern, 2003; French, 1997). In addition, the post-WWII years saw the Federal Housing Administration and Veterans Administration create policies that encouraged home ownership (French, 1997). During the 1940s and 1950s, income tax policies made it easier to purchase housing. The accompanying demand for services and industry followed suit. This move transformed U.S. cities from predominately manufacturing sites to centers for the provision of services (French, 1997; Keith, 1996).

This “suburban flight” drained jobs, resources, and money (e.g., the tax base) from the inner city and into the suburbs (Keith, 1996). As businesses and jobs moved out, wealth followed. In the wake of suburban flight, cities became populated with poorer residents, mostly minorities, who were unable to follow in the footsteps of their wealthier neighbors. The inner city’s weakened financial base was further exacerbated by an absence of the kinds of investments that were being made in the suburbs. This meant that inner cities became concentrated areas of poverty. Moreover, the loss of the middle class, who were mostly White, meant that there was class and cultural isolation for inner city residents. This has become a critical piece of the puzzle in understanding the impact of urbanization on inner city residents. In short, residents of the inner city became disconnected from mainstream social networks and viable economic opportunities (Wilson, 1987, 1996). Wilson’s work shows that problems in urban settings, such as crime, family dissolution, welfare, and low levels of social organization, are a direct consequence of the disappearance of work. The outcomes created by these forces are not easy to ameliorate, not just because of the economic challenges, but also because these forces have become a form of institutionalized discrimination affecting generations of inner city communities (Ogbu, 1997).

Social and Educational Reform and Its Impact on Urban Settings

The urbanization of America and suburban flight occurred against a backdrop of social and political reform. Though this reform can be traced to the late-18th century (Check, 2002), the most significant events for urban settings began in the post-WWII period. The GI Bill of Rights, created by President Roosevelt in 1944, increased opportunities for 51% (7.8 million) of returning veterans from WWII and 42% (2.3 million) from the Korean War to become better educated (Mettler & Welch, 2004). This education served to provide these veterans, who were predominately male and White, with increased access to higher-paying jobs. This in turn raised the expectations for and access to quality of education for their children.

In just short of a decade after the end of WWII, the landmark *Brown vs. Board of Education* (1954) decision changed the “legal” face of school segregation in the United States. By then, suburban flight had for the most part created schools in the inner city that were mostly populated by minorities. Since the White middle class were unlikely to buy houses in urban settings, the proposed solution to desegregate big-city schools was busing. Unfortunately, this exacerbated the problem by causing even greater suburban flight (Coleman et al., 1966).

Tyack and Cuban (1995) note that *Brown vs. Board of Education* did more than provide support for students of color:

The justices maintained that, “it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education.” That gave protest groups a broad mandate. Activists working for women’s rights, for the handicapped, for immigrant students, and for the poor were able to draw on this doctrine that individual and societal progress demanded progress in schooling. (p. 26)

Brown vs. Board of Education, together with the accelerating momentum of the civil rights movement, paved the way for the Civil Rights Act (1964) and the Voting Rights Act (1965). The intended goal of these civil rights acts was to end legal segregation, particularly in the South. Civil rights’ historian Hugh Davis Graham (1992, p. 61) notes that: “The chief beneficiaries [of the civil rights acts] have been the Black middle class, which has expanded from some 10 to 30% of Black families in the generation since 1964.” The targeted poorer populations simply didn’t benefit to the same degree. Graham explains, “The Kennedy-Johnson war on poverty had emphasized the stunting effects of deprivation: the ‘culture of poverty’ trapped its victims in a chain of disadvantage. Anti-poverty planners concentrated in compensatory programs, like Head Start interventions in early childhood education.”

However, as Graham (1992) further observes, the civil rights legislation was framed “not only as a legacy of slavery and segregation, but as a consequence of institutionalized racism. Discrimination was seen to persist even in the absence of conscious prejudice and specific acts of discrimination” (p. 57). The evidence for this Graham suggests can be seen in the late 1960s, when “the unemployment rate of Blacks was double that of Whites, even in the industrial north, where fair employment commissions had policed discrimination for a generation” (p. 57-58).

In the early 1960s, the effects of suburban flight were being increasingly felt in the inner cities. In response, the federal government passed Title 1 of the Educational Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA; 1965). The ESEA was created to provide general aid to schools with large populations of disadvantaged students. It began the era of compensatory education. Tied to the philosophy of compensatory education was a requirement of the Civil Rights Act (1964). This requirement was that research should be conducted to demonstrate the degree to which inequities in schooling existed (Wong & Nicotera, 2004). The rationale was that this would provide further support for the funding of compensatory education proposed in the ESEA (Wong & Nicotera, 2004). A study was commissioned headed by James Coleman, a sociologist. The Coleman report on *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Coleman et al., 1966) is widely regarded as one of the most important educational studies of the 20th century (Wong & Nicotera, 2004). It was the first time that school research paired inputs (e.g., school resources, financing) with outputs (student achievement). In addition, it was a huge undertaking, involving 600,000 students, 60,000 teachers, and 3,100 schools. Coleman concluded that the strongest predictor of student performance in schools, and thus the strongest evidence for an achievement gap between students was not the quality of the school (e.g., teachers, money resources), but rather the level of the parents' education and their income. By extension this meant the school's socioeconomic makeup. If the hope of those who supported increased educational funding was that the Coleman Report would provide support, they were severely disappointed. Coleman concluded that schools and teachers do not make a difference:

Differences in school facilities and curriculum, which are the major variables by which attempts are made to improve schools, are so little related to differences in achievement levels of students that, with few exceptions, their effects fail to appear even in a survey of this magnitude. (Coleman et al., 1966, p. 316)

Coleman et al. (1966) also found that (a) American schools of the time (i.e., early 1960s) were thoroughly segregated, regardless of region; (b) 80% of White students attended schools that were at least 90% White, whereas 65% of Black children went to schools that were at least 90% Black; (c) African American achievement levels were lower than their White peers' from the kindergarten, with the gap growing throughout their school careers; (d) per-pupil spending accounted for a negligible difference in student achievement; and (e) the facilities in the school also had little impact.

There are several ways to interpret Coleman's primary findings, but the simplest interpretation is to suggest that putting money into schools to fund good teachers and materials isn't significant compared to increasing the socioeconomic status of families. Instead, Coleman's conclusion that disadvantaged minorities and Black children in particular learn better in well-integrated classrooms was used to further support the rationale for busing. There have been significant criticisms of the Coleman report, chiefly focused on its black box approach to the analysis of the variables, which focused principally on presage-product outcomes (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974) and the fact that it was correlational rather than causal in design.

One effect of the Coleman Report is that it motivated educational researchers to prove that schools did indeed make a difference. Research on teaching effectiveness programs based on Dunkin's and Biddle's (1974) model for the study

of classroom teaching, Edmonds's effective schools movement (Edmonds, 1979), and the Comer school development program (Comer, 1980) were among the many direct responses to the Coleman report.

Parallel with the compensatory education movement and the Coleman report was a movement focused on substantively improving America's scientific accomplishments. In 1957, the Soviet Union launched *Sputnik*. America reacted in panic relative to its technological capacity and its cold war relationship with the Soviets (PBS, 1997). As a result of the *Sputnik* launch, the U.S. congress passed the National Defense Education Act (1958), the goal of which was to produce more scientists (Slobodin, 1977). Science and math received considerable attention as American focused on responding to the challenge of what became known as the *space race*. Rutherford (1998) notes that the educational goals of the space race were not influenced by civil rights issues, such as focusing on the disadvantaged, but were instead influenced by curricular outcomes, focusing on what was being taught and how it was being taught. The questions included, "Should priority be given to building the nation's scientific capability or to creating nationwide science literacy" (Rutherford, 1998).

The scientific literacy movement was to continue under its own stream for some time. But in the late 1960s, the compensatory education movement received another boost. One of the most successful compensatory programs from the ESEA was Head Start (Zigler & Styfco, 1993). There was strong support to conduct a follow-through of Head Start into the elementary years. To this day, this project called *Follow-Through* remains the largest educational experiment ever conducted in the United States. It assessed the differential effectiveness of 22 models of curriculum and instruction using a "planned variation" design, using student achievement basic skills, cognitive-conceptual skills, and affective-cognitive skills as dependent measures (Watkins, 1988). Approximately 80,000 students in 51 school districts located in economically disadvantaged regions participated in the study (Watkins, 1988). Although Follow-Through cost more than \$500 million and produced very clear evidence in terms of which curricula worked and which did not, its findings were not used to shape future educational policy to help disadvantaged students (Engelmann, 1992). The outcome here is ironic because Project Follow-Through produced results that were the opposite of Coleman's conclusions, that schools did not make a difference. Project Follow-Through supported both the ESEA compensatory education movement and the Civil Rights movement by demonstrating that at least one important variable in *Brown vs. Board of Education* was access to effective curricula taught by well-trained teachers.

Since the end of WWII, the involvement of the federal government in the educational affairs of the states had increased. Up until the 1970s, educational policy at the state level was dominated not by the state legislature, but instead by school professionals and their associations (Gittell & McKenna, 1999; Hero, 2005). However, beginning in late 1970s and throughout the 1980s, legislatures and, in particular, governors began to take an increased interest in education (Gittell & McKenna, 1999). This was spurred by the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). During the late 1970s and early 1980s, governors acquired more control over state budgets, increased the size of their executive staffs, and served for longer terms (Gittell & McKenna, 1999). A Wallace Foundation report (2004) shows that in 2004 states devoted nearly

half of their general fund expenditures to education. Since the 1980s, governors have met together regardless of political affiliation to address educational issues in national education summits sponsored by the National Governors Association and its organizations such as Achieve.org.

As we enter the 21st century, no state and federal legislation for the past 30 years is likely to impact schooling in the United States as much as the latest reauthorization of the ESEA. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB; 2001) is grounded in recognition that comparisons (e.g., the Third International Mathematics and Science Study, or TIMSS, and the Program of International Student Assessment) between the performance of U.S. students and students from other countries often reveals that U.S. students perform in the middle of most comparisons on reading, math, and science (Mathis, 2003). These same international data reveal that the United States has the greatest inequity of any developed country. The inequity is illustrated in the large variance between high- and low-scoring U.S. students on these international tests. The United States ranks 21st out of 24 industrialized nations in educational equality (Mathis, 2003).

The NCLB requires that schools comply with the ESEA's accountability measures. In this reauthorization, the law requires standards of student achievement to be met, testing to confirm that the standards have been met, and accountability for schools that do not meet the standards. Moreover, the law requires that student performance data be reported by subgroups of students by ethnicity, English as a second language (ESL), economically disadvantaged, and students attending special education classes.

As Fusarelli (2004, p. 88) notes: "If . . . NCLB encourages state and federal policy makers to concentrate extra resources on children from the worst performing schools, then the legislation could benefit underserved children and become a policy vehicle for enhancing equity in schools." The costs of implementing NCLB are substantial (Mathis, 2003). Yet, despite the cost, and philosophical differences with the structure of the act, many urban districts embrace NCLB. For example, in 2003 a group of more than 100 African American and Latino superintendents signed an open letter to congress titled "Don't turn back the clock":

Like other steps before it—including *Brown vs. Board of Education* and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act—NCLB might justifiably be labeled as a mandate not "fully funded." But just as we then didn't use insufficient funding as an excuse to maintain legally segregated schools . . . we must not use funding to escape our responsibilities now. . . . We support No Child Left Behind's important message that "good schools" are good for all kinds of students, not just some. Rolling back any part of the requirement to know more and do more about the large achievement gaps that have long blighted American education sends the wrong message and simply cannot be an option . . . we must not use funding to escape our responsibilities. (Don't turn back the clock, 2003)

The challenges to NCLB are more than just funding difficulties. There are criticisms challenging the validity of assumptions that the quality of instruction and student learning can be improved by (a) high-stakes testing and (b) sanctions and other punitive consequences on districts (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Fusarelli, 2004). Critics also challenge what is seen as an unconstitutional intrusion into

state's education rights by the federal government (Cochran-Smith, 2005) and the prioritization of some subject matters (e.g., reading and math) at the expense of others, such as physical education.

The Context of Urban Schools

It is important to remember that urban settings consist of many subcultures. Urban schools reflect these cultures. Moreover, it is the economic, political, and social forces shaping urban schools and urban settings, rather than the students that are responsible for the state of urban schooling, both the excellent and the mediocre. As should be clear by now, poor and minority students dominate the enrollment in American urban school districts (Council of the Great City Schools [CGCS], 2005). Yet more than 70% of all teachers in urban settings are middle-aged, White, and female (Nuby & Doebler, 2000; Trent, 1990). In addition, students attending urban schools are much more likely to have inexperienced teachers (Prince, 2002).

Urban schools are routinely characterized as places where crime, drugs, and overcrowding are commonplace (Brookins, Peterson, & Brooks, 1997). Compared to their suburban peers, students in urban schools have a greater likelihood of encountering violence, early involvement with drugs (e.g., alcohol consumption, cigarette use, and marijuana), are more likely to be absent from school, and have higher incidents of classroom misconduct (Brookins, Peterson, & Brooks, 1997; Johnson, 1997; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1997). Teenage pregnancy is three times higher in urban minorities than it is in nonminorities (Johnson, 1997) and is accompanied by poor nutrition patterns and an increased risk of STD and HIV infections (Johnson, 1997).

Student outcomes in urban schools are best represented by achievement and graduation rates. These variables show differences not just between urban and suburban settings but also among minorities. Achievement differences between urban and nonurban schools are significant. Urban students score at least 20 percentile points lower than their nonurban counterparts in reading, math, and science (Olson & Jerald, 1998). In Ogbu's cross-cultural study of Oakland, California, the "GPA of ethnic minorities, in descending order, was Vietnamese Americans: 3.2; Chinese Americans: 3.0; the Mein Americans: 2.5; Cambodian Americans: 2.2; Mexican Americans: 2.0; Black Americans: 1.66" (Ogbu, 1997; p. 192).

The effects of urban settings are most obvious in graduation rates. Figure 1 shows a comparison of four urban districts to a suburban school district located in a middle to upper socioeconomic area.¹ These data speak for themselves. In urban settings, Hispanics and Blacks are least served, followed by Whites and Asians. By any yardstick, these rates are low. In contrast, in Edison, New Jersey, a middle- to upper-class socioeconomic area, graduation rates for all students (i.e., Black, White, and Asian) are considerably higher.²

The consequences of not graduating from high school are significant. Economically, the unemployment rate for students who drop out is around 15% compared with 7% for those who graduate high school (Duttweiler & Smink, 1994). This in turn creates a base for the poverty rate for the next generation of children. The social costs are also extraordinary. Eighty-two percent of inmates in America's prisons are high school dropouts. Duttweiler and Smink (1994, p. 5) note, "The relationship

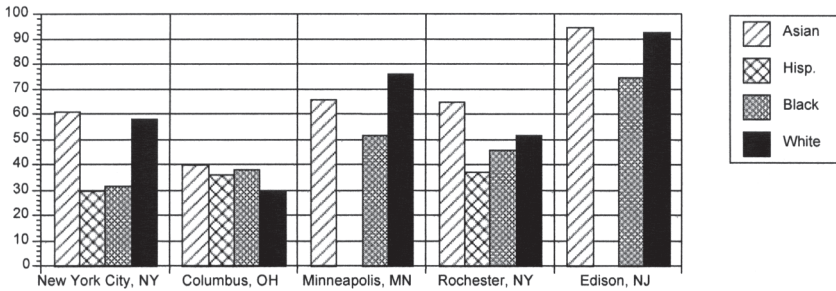


Figure 1 — A comparison of graduation percentage rates in four urban school districts (from the left: New York, Columbus, Minneapolis, Rochester) and one suburban (far right: Edison) school district. Source: *Who Graduates, Who Doesn't* (Swanson, 2001).

between being a high school dropout and becoming a prisoner is stronger than the relationship between being a smoker and lung cancer.”

The Context of Columbus Public School District: Site of the Monograph Studies

The CPS district is located in the 16th largest urban area in the United States. The city of Columbus has a population of 1.4 million people and is the largest city in Ohio.

The Effects of Urbanization and Sociopolitical Policies on Columbus Public Schools

For the most part, the effects of urbanization and the sociopolitical policies impacting Columbus were similar to effects reported in other urban settings; however, the details are slightly different. A key feature of Columbus is that the school district and the city's boundaries have been quite different for most of the 20th century, and remain so today. This means that a family could live within the city borders but attend a suburban school district. Since the 1940s, as the city expanded to include White middle-class residents, it left behind, isolated and marginalized, the inner-city residents, who were mostly Black. These circumstances created by suburban flight and exacerbated by the physical differences between the city's and the district's borders, created segregated schools. As Jacobs (1998), who chronicled the era of *Brown vs. Board of Education* to the early 1990s notes,

The belief that school desegregation is to blame for public education's problems has hardened into conventional wisdom in Columbus. Yet desegregation failed to ensure equal educational opportunity not because it was inherently detrimental to learning, but because it was intrinsically incompatible with new residential real estate development. Even before the first buses rolled in

Columbus, the threat of desegregation had redefined the parameters of single family housing in the city, essentially turning the boundaries of Columbus school district into a residential red line. The myriad of resources that follow new housing development—the financial as well as the “social” capital—were both exiting and avoiding the city school district by 1979; busing simply solidified and intensified the process. (Jacobs, 1998, p. 121)

The problems were similar to what J. William Wilson described in *The Truly Disadvantaged*, (1987) and *When Work Disappears* (1996). Both books are grounded in the position that the urban poor have borne the brunt of the declining economic conditions found in urban America in the 20th century. In short, these economic conditions have deprived urban residents of well-paying, stable jobs that include healthcare and retirement benefits. Were such jobs available, family units and culture would remain intact. The position is best summed up by the CPS District superintendent in the early 1980s, Jim Hyre: “If every parent had a job and every family was middle class most of the problems the schools have to wrestle with would go away” (cited in Jacobs, 1998, p. 155). Increases in well-paying jobs were not to occur, and instead came challenges to segregation and inequity based on *Brown vs. Board of Education* ruling in the form of *Penick vs. the Columbus Board of Education*. The case was held before District Court Judge Duncan, who ruled in favor of desegregation and what he saw as institutionalized discrimination, which served to support desegregation. In his ruling, he noted the following:

In Columbus, like many urban areas, there is often a substantial reciprocal effect between the color of the school and the color of the neighborhood it serves. The racial composition of a neighborhood tends to influence the racial identity of the school as White or Black. . . . The racial identification of the school in turn tends to maintain the neighborhood’s racial identity, or even promote it by hastening the movement in a racial transition area. . . . The Court finds that the school authorities do not control the housing segregation in Columbus, but the Court also finds that the actions of the school authorities have had a significant impact upon housing patterns. The interaction of housing and the schools operates to promote segregation of each. (Jacobs, 1998, p. 63)

In 2006, CPS is still faced with schools that serve primarily Black children, some schools that serve predominately White children from Appalachia, and some schools that serve a more diverse set of students. By and large, in the inner-city schools, the children come from poor families. Data from the *CPS Annual Report* (2004) indicate the district has approximately 64,000 students attending 93 elementary, 26 middle, and 18 high schools. Within the district, the per-pupil expenditure is \$10,356, the average student/teacher ratio is 18:1, and the average number of years of teaching experience is 12.5 years. During much of the time of this project, the district was under academic emergency (i.e., meeting 30.9% or fewer state indicators). The State of Ohio has five district report card indicators that range as follows: *excellent*, *effective*, *continuous improvement*, *academic watch*, *academic emergency*. There are punitive consequences, some tied to NCLB and others to state legislation, that are applied to the district by the state the longer a district is in lower categories. Thus during the period of the grants, there was considerable pressure on the district to improve its academic standing.

Data on student demographics show that during the time the research in this monograph was conducted, 48.8% of the students in this district were female and 51.2% were male (Columbus Public Schools, *Annual Report*, 2004). The ethnic distribution was 61.9% Black (including a large Somali population, resettled from war-torn Somalia), 32.9% White, 2.8% Hispanic, 2.2% Asian, and 0.2% Native American. The percentage of students receiving ESL services was 3.9%, and 64% of the students were eligible for free and reduced meals. In 2003 the Franklin Health Department, the county where CPS is located, reported that 25% of the children in the county were overweight, compared to a national average of 16%. Within the county, 30% of the children living in Columbus were overweight. These data are distributed disproportionately with 41% of the children living in the 100%–200% poverty range reported as overweight, as were 31% of the girls and 48% of the non-Hispanic Black children.

Columbus Public Schools has always had pockets of excellence (Jacobs, 1998). For example, currently, two of its high schools were reported in *Newsweek* as among the top 4% of high schools nationwide; each year many of its students receive academic, performance (e.g., dance), and social honors (CPS Fact Sheet, 2004). This has been the case throughout its history. In 1910 the first all-Black (i.e., administrators, teachers, and students) school in Columbus was a school of excellence, demonstrating leadership and student achievement for many years (Randolph, 2004).

The Context of Physical Education in CPS

Like most school districts in the United States, the NCLB Act has impacted the time available for physical education. In the Columbus elementary school, students are supposed to receive two 30-min lessons per week of physical education. Because of NCLB, however, most schools block out 2 hours per day for reading. This often results in only one lesson of physical education per week in the elementary school. The district health and physical education coordinator described the conditions in this way:

Outside of the district issues for CPS are the lack of State standards that address not only content, but amounts of delivery time. As it stands, districts in Ohio can determine how much PE is delivered. Because NCLB policy does not recognize PE as a core subject, [it] limits the presence of PE in elementary schools especially, where PE has to compete for delivery time against core tested subjects. Severe budget limitations are another result of NCLB. The budget for physical education in the district is approximately \$20,000 with \$12,000 earmarked for travel mostly within [physical education teachers transitioning between schools] but also outside of the district [conferences]. (personal communication, November 18th, 2005)

Middle schools vary in the amount of physical education they offer. Sixth graders in many some schools receive physical education every other day, whereas in other schools they receive it for 6 weeks per year. Most 7th- and 8th-grade middle school students receive physical education every other day. High schools offer physical education for two 20-week sessions, once in the four years, in grades 9–12. In addition students may take physical education as an elective.

One of the six tenets that form the guiding principles for the district is a commitment to quality instruction through a commitment of professional development.

Although the district is committed to identifying and funding PD programs that improve academic achievement, physical education has received little support for PD beyond the contracted time allotment. Only elementary physical education teachers are provided PD during in-service days ($n = 4$). Secondary teachers are required to remain in their schools and attend four 90-min general sessions each year that do not focus on physical education. Professional development opportunities for middle and high school teachers have changed in recent years, and currently teachers are allowed 5 days of PD throughout the year. However, teachers have the autonomy to choose which sessions they attend across disciplines, and this is particularly problematic:

As coordinator, I never have the opportunity to meet with the middle and high school teachers as a group, due to the new PD model used by CPS that allows teachers to choose to go elsewhere rather than their subject specific areas. As a result when we offer workshops many teachers view them as hard and too much work and do not attend. Many of the current middle and high school teachers teach "old school," no assessment, no integration of technology. (health and physical education coordinator of CPS, personal communication, November 15th, 2005)

Ohio State University's History of Involvement With CPS and Physical Education

Within the university and the College of Education in particular, there has been a long-term involvement and commitment to support CPS. In physical education, this support has taken various forms, including the development of PD schools, collaborative support for in-service workshops, a foundation for training of teachers who have been hired in the district, collaborative projects initiated by district personnel, collaborative projects initiated by university faculty and graduate students, and PD support on a case-by-case basis. The Ohio State physical education teacher education program integrated its licensure program with school-based programs. For example, in addition to student teaching, elementary and secondary methods classes are entirely field-based, with lectures occurring in schools with support from practicing teachers. Teachers from the district provide mini-clinics for teacher candidates in such areas as assessment, the Fitness for Life curriculum, and use of technology.

There has also been substantive countywide PD support led by Ohio State in the form of sponsoring the Franklin County Academy of Physical Educators (FCAPE). For seven years, FCAPE played a role in school reform by advocating for better physical education in schools and for quality professional preparation for preservice teachers.

The Project

This monograph reports on a 4-year interval during which the Columbus Public Schools, together with faculty from Ohio State University, applied for and successfully obtained two Carol M. White Physical Education for Progress (PEP)

grants. Each grant operated for 2 years. The first grant was funded for \$245,000 and the second for \$300,000. In the first grant, 24 teachers participated from 18 elementary schools, 5 middle schools, and 1 high school. In the second grant, there were also 24 teachers (1 teacher voluntarily withdrew mid-year) in 11 elementary schools, 10 middle schools, and 3 high schools.

The focus of the first grant was very much targeted to the PD capacities of the physical education teachers. The second built upon the work of the first but focused also on assessing changes in teaching practices. Both grants had a commitment to developing thinking, reflective professionals. Although there had been hundreds of thousands of dollars devoted to PD in the CPS district, almost none of it was allocated to health or physical education teachers. Beginning with the premise that teachers need to engage with other teachers to think about their profession, in expanding their content and curricular capacities, and how students can engage in content in meaningful ways, we provided a cohort of teachers with PD experiences to

- Develop a community of learners among physical education teachers
- Develop a cohort of physical education teacher leaders in CPS to sustain teacher learning into the future and expand the learning to other physical education teachers working in the district
- Design and implement curricular programs to help students increase their levels of physical activity

The specific objectives of the both grants were to provide opportunities for teachers to

- Learn about contemporary curricular ideas, that is, to develop a discourse about their subject matter and to develop their understandings of what is meant to teach physical education to the students in the context of urban settings
- Deliver innovative curriculum programs that meet the needs of their students while working within the conditions of their school
- Clarify and revise the goals of their program in terms of what it means to be a physically educated person at that grade level and in the context they teach
- Reflect on or develop their vision of instruction in their contexts
- Increase instructional and content knowledge base
- Access funding for equipment and professional resources
- Share expertise and experiences with other teachers and professionals

The research team, in consultation with the school district physical education coordinator highlighted specific themes that would be infused into all the professional work teachers completed over the four 4 years of both grants. These themes reflected priorities of the school district as well as what the team members saw as key issues in quality physical education programs. These themes addressed

- Understanding alternative assessments of student learning
- Best use of technology in physical education settings
- Better serving the needs of all students during physical education

- Building student responsibility within instructional units and across programs
- Promoting higher levels of physical activity in and out of school

Adhering to the principles of Lave and Wenger's (1991) community of practice, we invited all teachers to apply for participation in this project. We made it very clear from the beginning that there were incentives for involvement, such as

- Money for equipment
- Money to pay for time in PD workshops during the summer and on some Saturdays during the year
- Ongoing support at their school for implementing some new curricular ideas in their school. Support included team teaching, teaching model lessons, as well as phone contact and resources

It was made clear to teachers that there were also specific responsibilities for their involvement in this PD initiative. For example, teachers were informed that they would

- Design and deliver units based on different curricular models such as "tactical games teaching," "personal responsibility," and "sport education"
- Share their experiences with the curricular models with other PEP teachers
- Write and share experiences/expertise with non-PEP teachers in the school district
- Become leaders in the school system and advocates for quality physical education

In the first grant, over 110 contact hours of structured PD occurred during the first 18-month period alone (2003 and 2004). Over half of the hours were completed during the first summer. In an effort to build a community of learners, the first meeting was devoted to two main goals: (a) building awareness and trust among the teachers who were often unfamiliar with one another, even though they worked in the same school district, and (b) engaging teachers in conversation about physical education, the benefits of physical education for their students, and the barriers to achieving the specific goals they wanted to accomplish over the course of the PD project. These issues were revisited throughout the duration of the first grant during workshops, debriefing sessions through the project, and at the completion of the project. In one of the more empowering sessions of PD, teachers presented their PEP ideas at the Ohio Association for Health Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance annual conference and shared how their work had changed their instructional practices and ways of thinking about their physical education program. Teachers then shared where they were in their efforts to make change. During this activity we learned the importance of allowing teachers to publicly share ideas and summarize the work they had completed. It provided affirmation for those who had made progress and acted as a catalyst for those who had experienced difficulty at making progress.

The purpose of the second grant was to recruit additional middle and high school teachers, in order to strengthen the infrastructure of the CPS district. Eight

teachers from the first grant volunteered to serve as assistants to the workshop presenters during the second grant. Two were trained as both Physical Best and Fitness for Life instructors. The remaining six teachers assisted different workshops according to their interests (e.g., elementary content, cooperative learning, tactics). An additional two teachers who had shown leadership skills from the first grant (one male and one female), and who had more than 10 years experience each, were selected to provide support to teachers in the field. These teachers received release time 1 day each week for the entire school year to participate in the grant activities. One teacher was assigned to work in elementary school settings and the other was assigned to middle and high school settings. On average, they visited two school sites each week and were involved in a variety of activities, including answering questions, teaching classes, modeling teaching techniques that had been discussed at an earlier workshop, helping with technology integration and use, and providing feedback on teaching.

In the second grant, a PD activity was designed to bring teachers together in a social setting outside of school to discuss issues confronting them in teaching. The goal was to create opportunities for teachers to share, reflect, and interact on topics important to them. The content of the discussions was to be directed primarily by teachers, but the conversations were directed toward pragmatic, change-oriented topics and away from aspects of teaching that they could not change. This activity, called “PEP-talk,” was designed to supplement and complement the PD efforts, representing the ongoing mission of both the CPS district and Ohio State University.

The monograph focused on the PD of teachers as a prerequisite to making substantive changes in the curriculum and instruction of physical education programs. Ultimately, it would be anticipated that changes in the quality of physical education programming would have a beneficial affect on the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and health and wellness of students. However, as a first step, the studies in the monograph focus on teacher development and changes in the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of teachers. The fundamental goal was to develop a solid professional foundation on which the work of teachers could be built. This foundation support included the (a) development of teaching skills in the form of curricula and pedagogy of those teachers, (b) development of teachers as trainers in specialized curriculum models (e.g., Fitness for Life, Physical Best, Cooperative Learning, Tactics), and (c) development of communities of practice among the teachers.

Without a solid foundation of knowledge, skills, and dispositions, little can be done in this district to improve physical education for children. It should not be assumed, though, that our interest or our efforts did not extend to children and youth, or that our involvement ended with the period of grants. This monograph reports on a phase of our ongoing involvement with CPS that was occasioned by the opportunity of the two federally funded PEP grants.

The Studies in This Monograph

In chapter 2, Bechtel and O’Sullivan present a review of the literature focusing on factors that influence the design and implementation of effective PD programs in physical education. They identify guidelines for designing effective PD programs that served as a basis for our decisions about PD activities reported in the

monograph. In chapter 3, Deglau and O'Sullivan use a sociocultural framework to examine the influence of PD initiatives on the thinking, beliefs, and practices of experienced teachers involved in the first grant. Their findings focus on the ways in which teachers' experiences with the first PEP grant influenced their beliefs about teaching and their teaching practice, and the ways in which their experiences within the community of practice influenced their sense of themselves as professionals and their programs over time.

In chapter 4, Ko, Wallhead, and Ward assess what teachers learn and use from PD workshops. Their data shed light on what knowledge teachers use, and why teachers may not use the knowledge and skills provided in PD workshops. The findings raise questions about the effectiveness of workshops and the factors that impact teachers' choices to utilize the knowledge presented in PD experiences. In chapter 5, Deglau, Ward, O'Sullivan, and Bush use a critical discourse framework to examine the nature of professional conversations that occurred in a PD activity called *PEP-talk*. PEP-talk, which occurred in the second grant, was designed to bring teachers together in a social setting outside of school to discuss issues confronting them in their roles as teachers, to share their teaching ideas and practices, and to reflect and interact on topics that were important to them and within their control. Their findings provide evidence that when teachers collaborate in such communities, they are more willing to take risks, reflect on their failures, and share successful programs and practices.

In chapter 6, Ince, Goodway, Ward, and Lee use a quasi-experimental group design to assess the effects of a year of PD intervention focused on technology use and integration of technology into teaching by teachers in the second grant. Their results point clearly to the need for teachers to be trained to use the new technologies that exist and to integrate them into their instruction in ways that support and enhance their instructional goals without inhibiting them.

In chapter 7, O'Sullivan and Deglau describe some lessons we have learned from engaging in 4 years of the grant. These lessons extend the literature reviewed in chapter 2 for the design and delivery of quality PD experiences by providing a framework for thinking about and designing future PD. Finally, we have invited Steve Tozer, professor of policy studies at the University of Illinois at Chicago, and coauthor Heather Horsley, a graduate student who is working with Tozer, to comment on the papers in this monograph.

Notes

1. These data were selected from the 2001 data of the Urban Institute's *Who Graduates, Who Doesn't*. (Swanson 2001). This database probably overestimates dropouts because it doesn't factor into a district's score mobility of students leaving the district. Thus, districts with a high number of students either moving to charter schools or out of the district would show as not graduating from that class.

2. Yet it is still important to note that even here middle and upper class Black students do not fair as well as their counterparts. This data supports Ogbu's contention (1997) that merely creating jobs and wealth is insufficient to address some of the discriminatory effects of institutionalized discrimination.

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