MS-831: Jack, Joseph and Morton Mandel Foundation Records, 1980–2008.
Series C: Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education (CIJE). 1988–2003.
Subseries 3: Lead Communities, 1988–1997.

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Lead Community Consultation meeting, 1995.

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COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

To: Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen

From: Gail Dorph

Date: January 4, 1995

Re: Our next meeting dates

CC: Alan Hoffmann, Barry Holtz, Ginny Levi, Nessa Rapoport

Please save the dates March 8 - 9, 1995 for our next meetings.

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

To: Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen

From: Gail Dorph

Date: January 13, 1995

Re: Our next meeting dates

CC: Alan Hoffmann, Barry Holtz, Ginny Levi, Nessa Rapoport

Our next meetings will take place on March 8 and 9 at the CIJE offices in New York. On Wednesday, the 8th, we will discuss your plans for personnel in your communities and on the 9th, we will meet with denominational leadership to discuss place/role of denominations in these plans. Feel free to invite other key members of your team to participate in the meeting.

For now, assume these meetings will last from 9:00 to 5:00 each of these days. If you have suggestions for how to structure these days to have maximum effectiveness for your planning process, please contact me -- the sooner the better.

LEAD COMMUNITIES AT WORK

A. INTRODUCTION

The Commission on Jewish Education in North America completed its work with five recommendations. The establishment of Lead communities is one of those recommendations, but it is also the means or the place where the other recommendations will be played out and implemented. Indeed, a lead community will demonstrate locally, how to:

1. Build the profession of Jewish education and thereby address the shortage of qualified personnel;
2. Mobilize community support to the cause of Jewish education;
3. Develop a research capability which will provide the knowledge needed to inform decisions and guide development. In Lead Communities this will be undertaken through the monitoring, evaluation and feedback project;
4. Establish an implementation mechanism at the local level, parallel to the Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education, to be a catalyst for the implementation of these recommendations;
5. The fifth recommendation is, of course, the lead community itself, to function as a local laboratory for Jewish education.

(*The implementation of recommendations at the continental level is discussed in separate documents.*)

B. THE SCOPE OF THE PROJECT

1. A Lead Community will be an entire community engaged in a major development and improvement program of its Jewish education
   to demonstrate what can happen where there is an infusion of outstanding personnel into the educational system, where the importance of Jewish education is recognized by the community and its leadership and where the necessary resources are secured to meet additional needs.

per purpose

The vision and programs developed in Lead Communities will demonstrate to the Jewish Community of North America what Jewish education at its best can achieve.

2. The Lead Community project will involve all or most Jewish education actors in that community. It is expected that lay leaders, educators, rabbis and heads of educational institutions of all ideological streams and points of view will participate in the planning group of the project, to shape it, guide it and take part in decisions.

3. The Lead Community project will deal with the major educational areas — those in which **most people** are involved at some point in their lifetime:
   - *Supplementary Schools*
   - *Day Schools*
   - *JCCs*
   - *Israel programs*
   - *Early Childhood programs*

   In addition to these areas, other fields of interest to the specific communities could also be included, e.g. a community might be particularly interested in:
   - *Adult learning*
   - *Family education*
   - *Summer camping*
   - *Campus programs*
   - *Etc...*

4. **Most or all institutions** of a given area might be involved in the program (e.g. most or all supplementary schools).

5. A large proportion of **the community's Jewish population** would be involved.

C. VISION

A Lead Community will be characterized by its **ongoing interest in the goals** of the project. Educational, rabbinic and lay leaders will project a vision of what the community hopes to achieve several years hence, where it wants to be in terms of the Jewish knowledge and behavior of its members, young and adult. This vision could include elements such as:

- *adolescents have a command of spoken Hebrew;*
- *intermarriage decreases;*
- *many adults study classic Jewish texts;*
- *educators are qualified and engaged in ongoing training;*
- *supplementary school attendance has increased dramatically;*

- *a locally produced Jewish history curriculum is changing the way the subject is addressed in formal education;*
- *the local Jewish press is educating through the high level of its coverage of key issues.*

The vision, the goals, the content of Jewish education would be addressed at two levels:

1. At the communal level the leadership would develop and articulate a notion of where it wants to be, what it wants to achieve.

2. At the level of individual institutions or groups of institutions of similar views (e.g., all Reform schools), educators, rabbis, lay leaders and parents will articulate the educational goals.

It is anticipated that these activities will create much debate and ferment in the community, that they will focus the work of the Lead Communities on core issues facing the Jewish identity of North American Jewry, and that they will demand of communities to face complex dilemmas and choices (e.g., the nature and level of commitment that educational institutions will demand and aspire to). At the same time they will re-focus the educational debate on the content of education.

The Institutions of Higher Jewish Learning, the denominations, the national organizations will join in this effort, to develop alternative visions of Jewish education. First steps have already been taken (e.g., JTS preparing itself to take this role for Conservative schools in Lead Communities).

D. BUILDING THE PROFESSION OF JEWISH EDUCATION

Communities may want to address the shortage of qualified personnel for Jewish education in some of the following ways:

1. Hire 2-3 additional outstanding educators to bolster the strength of educational practice in the community and to energize thinking about the future.

2. Create several new positions, as required, in order to meet the challenges. For example: a director of teacher education or curriculum development, or a director of Israel programming.

3. Develop ongoing in-service education for most educators in the community, by programmatic area or by subject matter (e.g.the teaching of history in supplementary schools; adult education in community centers).

4. Invite training institutions and other national resources to join in the effort, and invite them to undertake specific assignments in lead communities. (E.g. Hebrew Union College might assume responsibility for in-service education of all Reform supplementary school staff. Yeshiva University would do so for Orthodox day-schools.)

5. Recruit highly motivated graduates of day schools who are students at the universities in the Lead Community to commit themselves to multi-year assignments as educators in supplemen- tary schools and JCCs.

6. Develop a thoughtful plan to improve the terms of employment of educators in the community (including salary and benefits, career ladder, empowerment and involvement of front-line educators in the Lead Community development process.)

Simultaneously the CIJE has undertaken to deal with continental initiatives to improve the personnel situation. For example it works with foundations to expand and improve the training capability for Jewish educators in North America.

E. DEVELOPING COMMUNITY SUPPORT

This could be undertaken as follows:

1. Establishing a wall-to-wall coalition in each Lead Community, including the Federation, the congregations, day schools, JCCs, Hillel etc...

2. Developing a special relationship to rabbis and synagogues.

3. Identify a lay "Champion" who will recruit a leadership group that will drive the Lead Community process.

4. Increase local funding for Jewish education.

5. Develop a vision for Jewish education in the community.

6. Invoive the professionals in a partnership to develop this vision and a plan for its implementation.

7. Establish a local implementation mechanism with a professional head.

8. Encourage an ongoing public discussion of and advocacy for Jewish education.

F. THE ROLE OF THE CIJE IN ESTABLISHING LEAD COMMUNITIES

The CIJE, through its staff, consultants and projects will facilitate implementation of programs and will ensure continental input into the Lead Communities. The CIJE will make the following available:

1. *BEST PRACTICES*

A project to create an inventory of good Jewish educational practice was launched. The project will offer Lead Communities examples of educational practice in key settings, methods, and topics, and will assist the communities in "importing," "translating," "re-inventing" best practices for their local settings.

The Best Practices initiative has several interrelated dimensions. In the first year the project deals with best practices in the following areas:

- *Supplementary schools*
- *Early childhood programs*
- *Jewish community centers*
- *Day schools*
- *Israel Experience programs*

It works in the following way:

a. First a group of experts in each specific area is recruited to work in an area (e.g., JCCs). These experts are brought together to define what characterizes best practices in their area, (e.g., a good supplementary school has effective methods for the teaching of Hebrew).

b. The experts then seek out existing examples of good programs in the field. They undertake site visits to programs and report about these in writing.

As lead communities begin to work, experts from the above team will be available to be brought into the lead community to offer guidance about specific new ideas and programs, as well as to help import a best practice into that community.

2. *MONITORING EVALUATION FEEDBACK*

The CIJE has established an evaluation project. Its purpose is three-fold:

a. To carry out ongoing monitoring of progress in Lead Communities, in order to assist community leaders, planners and educators in their work. A researcher will be commissioned for each Lead Community and will collect and analyze data and offer it to

practitioners for their consideration. The purpose of this process is to improve and correct implementation in each Lead Community.

b. To evaluate progress in Lead Communities — assessing, as time goes on, the impact and effectiveness of each program, and its suitability for replication elsewhere. Evaluation will be conducted by a variety of methods. Data will be collected by the local researcher. Analysis will be the responsibility of the head of the evaluation team with two purposes in mind: 1) To evaluate the effectiveness of individual programs and of the Lead Communities themselves as models for change, and 2) To begin to create indicators (e.g., level of participation in Israel programs; achievement in Hebrew reading) and a database that could serve as the basis for an ongoing assessment of the state of Jewish education in North America. This work will contribute in the long term to the publication of a periodic "state of Jewish education" report as suggested by the Commission.

c. The feedback-loop: findings of monitoring and evaluation activities will be continuously channeled to local and CIJE planning activities in order to affect them and act as an ongoing corrective. In this manner there will be a rapid exchange of knowledge and mutual influence between practice and planning. Findings from the field will require ongoing adaptation of plans. These changed plans will in turn, affect implementation and so on.

During the first year the field researchers will be principally concerned with three questions:

(a) What are the visions for change in Jewish education held by members of the communities? How do the visions vary among different individuals or segments of the community? How vague or specific are these visions?

(b) What is the extent of community mobilization for Jewish education? Who is involved, and who is not? How broad is the coalition supporting the CIJE's efforts? How deep is participation within the various agencies? For example, beyond a small core of leaders, is there grass-roots involvement in the community? To what extent is the community mobilized financially as well as in human resources?

(c) What is the nature of the professional life of educators in this community? Under what conditions do teachers and principals work? For example, what are their salaries and benefits? Are school faculties cohesive, or fragmented? Do principals have offices? What are the physical conditions of classrooms? Is there administrative support for innovation among teachers?

The first question is essential for establishing that specific goals exist for improving Jewish education, and for disclosing what these goals are. The second and third questions concern

the "enabling options" decided upon in *A Time to Act* , the areas of improvement which are essential to the success of Lead communities: mobilizing community support, and building a profession of Jewish education.

3. *PROFESSIONAL SERVICES*

The CIJE will offer professional services to Lead Communities, including:

a. Educational consultants to help introduce best practices.

b. Field researchers for monitoring, evaluation and feed-back.

c. Planning assistance as required.

d. Assistance in mobilizing the community.

4. *FUNDING FACILITATION*

The CIJE will establish and nurture contacts between foundations interested in specific programmatic areas and Lead Communities that are developing and experimenting with such programs (e.g., the CRB Foundations and youth trips to Israel; MAF and personnel training; Blaustein and research).

5. *LINKS WITH PURVEYORS OR SUPPORTERS OF PROGRAMS*

The CIJE will develop partnerships between national organizations (e.g., JCCA, CLAL, JESNA, CAJE), training institutions and Lead Communities. These purveyors could undertake specific assignments to meet specific needs within Lead Communities.

G. LEAD COMMUNITES AT WORK

The Lead Community itself could work in a manner very similar to that of the CIJE. In fact, it is proposed that a local commission be established to be the mechanism that will plan and see to the implementation and monitoring of programs.

What would this local mechanism (the local planning group) do?

a. It would convene all the actors;

b. It would launch an ongoing planning process; and

c. It would deal with content in the following manner.

1. It could make sure that the content is articulated and is implemented.

2. Together with the team of the Best Practices project and with the Chief Education Officer, it would integrate the various content and programmatic components into a whole. For example: it could integrate formal and informal programs.

It could see to it that in any given area (e.g., Israel experience) the vision piece, the goals, are articulated by the various actors and at the various levels:

- *by individual institutions*
- *by the denominations*
- *by the community as a whole.*

In addition, dealing with the content might involve having a "dream department" or "blues-kying unit," aimed at dealing with innovations and change in the programs in the community.

H. LAUNCHING THE LEAD COMMUNITY – YEAR ONE

During its first year (1992/93) the project will include the following:

1. Negotiate an agreement with the CIJE including:

   a. Detail of mutual obligations;

   b. Process issues – working relations within the community and between the community, the CIJE and other organizations

   c. Funding issues;

   d. Other.

2. Establish a local planning group, with a professional staff and with wall-to-wall representation.

3. Gearing-up activities, e.g., prepare a 1-year plan, undertake a self-study (see 6 below), prepare a 5-year plan.

4. Locate and hire several outstanding educators from outside the community to begin work the following year (1993/94).

5. Preliminary implementation of pilot projects that result from prior studies, interests, communal priorities.

6. Undertake an educational self-study, as part of the planning activities:

Most communities have recently completed social and demographic studies. Some have begun to deal with the issue of Jewish continuity and have taskforce reports on these. Teachers studies exist in some communities. All of these will be inputs into the self-study. However, the study itself will be designed to deal with the important issues of Jewish education in that community. It will include some of the following elements:

a. Assessment of needs and of target groups (clients).

b. Rates of participation.

c. Preliminary assessment of the educators in the community (e.g., their educational backgrounds).

The self-study will be linked with the work of the monitoring, evaluation and feedback project.

Some of the definition of the study and some of the data collection will be undertaken with the help of that project's field researcher.

1/93

CLEVELAND COLLEGE OF JEWISH STUDIES

MASTER OF JUDAIC STUDIES IN JEWISH EDUCATION AT MILWAUKEE

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The master's degree program offered by the Cleveland College of Jewish Studies at locations away from the College is bound by the same educational requirements that pertain to the programs offered at the College itself. However there are some modifications in the way the program is structured and delivered to accommodate the realities of distant locations.

GOALS

The program is designed as an integrated set of experiences aimed at intensifying participants' understanding of basic Jewish concepts and appreciation for and competence in the study of Jewish texts; deepening participants personal involvement in Jewish life; and fostering an approach to education that is holistic and reflective. It takes into account the varied paths that bring applicants to the field of Jewish education and the varied tasks that they will be expected to undertake. It assumes the central importance of the family to Jewish education and the integration of the formal and the informal, the cognitive and the affective. It views education as taking place in multiple contexts, including but not limited to the classroom. It has several overarching goals that are fostered throughout the curriculum. They include developing the following skills:

* the ability to reflect on the meaning of Judaism in one's own life and on one's own practice of education;
* the ability to analyze basic Jewish texts and to cultivate an appreciation of them in students of all ages;
* the ability to analyze problematic situations and to develop solutions to them; and
* the capacity to work with children, adults and families.

The program is built on an initiatory model, designed to provide graduates with the tools, skills and desire to grow Jewishly and to confront the ever changing demands facing the Jewish educational professional.

ELIGIBILITY AND REQUIREMENTS

The program is open to students with an undergraduate degree from an accredited institution who demonstrate the ability to study Judaica on the graduate level. Students with weak background in Judaica may be asked to engage in additional study as co-requisites for the program. In addition, before completing the degree, students will be required to establish that they have minimum level Hebrew competency equivalent to 2nd year college level Hebrew. This study will be undertaken locally. The program is designed to be completed in three academic years and two summers while taking into account the needs of working educators.

The program formally requires the completion of twenty-four credits in Education and twenty-one credits in Judaica. Judaic knowledge is also furthered in the educational courses. Similarly, Judaic courses are constructed to be sensitive to the pedagogic knowledge required of the Jewish educator. While there is a core required of all students -here are opportunities for electives and individualized study based on students backgrounds and career interests. In lieu of a thesis, participants will be required to write an integrative essay to be described below. Students who have

completed graduate work in other venues that replicate courses within the program may be allowed up to six (6) transfer credits.

The Program will be directed by a member of the College's education faculty and will be administered locally by a coordinator designated by the home community. The Program Director and the community coordinator will meet with students in the home community to provide an orientation them to the program and to map out a course of study.

Education Requirements

All colloquia, one supervised internship and individual courses share a unified approach to the work of educators that is inquiry based and fosters reflection. The program also recognizes the need for the acquisition of essential skills and understandings about how people learn and interact.

I Core

2 credits	Intensive Colloquium: Restructuring Jewish Education - Assumptions Issues and Promise - to be offered at or near the beginning of the program to provide an orientation to the themes to be developed throughout the curriculum
3 credits	Monthly Colloquium on Issues in Jewish Education (One credit annually)
1 credit	One Year Supervised Internship (Additional internships without credit may be designated where deemed appropriate.)

II 9 Credits Required of All Students
(After consultation with the home community - may be revised.)

3 credits in Foundations of Jewish Education (with a focus on either history or philosophy)
3 credits in Curriculum for Jewish Educational Settings
3 credits in Developmental Issues in Jewish Education

III 9 Credits of Electives to be Selected from the Following:

3 credits in Family Education
3 credits in Learning and Teaching
3 credits in Mentoring Coaching and Supervising
3 credits in Administering Jewish Educational Programs
3 credits in Teaching in the Various Subject Areas
3 credits in Working with Groups
3 Credits in Informal Education

Judaica

All Judaica courses are text-based and are designed to deepen the students' ability to work with traditional Jewish texts and to encourage the process of exploring the meaning of Judaism in the students' life. The core of the Judaic Curriculum is built around four courses, two of which will be selected in consultation with the home community. These courses are chosen because of the range of texts to which the

students will be exposed, the centrality of the thematic material to Jewish life, and the way the topics help explicate authentic Jewish modes of learning and transmitting culture and identity.

I. 6 Credits Required of All Students

3 credits	The Passover Haggadah
3 credits	Parshat Hashavua

II. 6 Credits to be Determined from the Following:

3 credits	Daily, Yearly and Life Cycles: Sources and Significance
3 credits	Jewish Prayer: Text and Context
3 credits	A History of Jewish Ideas
3 credits	Relating to the Land of Israel/the State of Israel
3 credits	Sources of Jewish Spirituality

III. 9 Credits in Judaica Electives

These can be selected by the students with advisor approval from among courses offered at the College or at other approved colleges or universities (at personal cost at other institutions).

Final Essay or Project

The concluding integrative essay or curricular or education related project of the Master's Program is designed to assist the student in integrating the varied experiences of the program. This will be developed with the guidance of the Project Director.

CLEVELAND COLLEGE OF JEWISH STUDIES

MASTER OF JUDAIC STUDIES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

TENTATIVE

SCHEDULE FOR DISTANT COMMUNITIES

YEAR ONE

1 credit	Monthly Colloquium
6 credits	Intensive semesters (at College or in Milwaukee)

Fall

3 credits Vide Conference Course

Summer *

Spring

2 credits	Intensive Colloquium
3 credits	Video Conference Course

YEAR TWO

1 credit	Monthly Colloquium
9 credits	Intensive semesters (at College or in local community) (Placement of additional 3 credit Course to be determined)

Fall

3 credits Vide Conference Course

Summer *

Spring

2 credits	Intensive Colloquium
3 credits	Video Conference Course

YEAR THREE

1 credit	Monthly Colloquium
6 credits	Intensive semesters (at College or in local community)

Fall

3 credits Vide Conference Course

Summer *

Spring

2 credits	Intensive Colloquium
3 credits	Video Conference Course

PROGRAM WIDE

1 credit Supervised Internship

* Up to 6 credits will be available at the College in intensive semesters each summer.

CIJE Seminar on Community Vision
Professor Michael Rosenak
Wed. Feb. 14, 1995
4 p.m to 7 p.m.
15 E. 26 St./ 10th floor

Professor Rosenak has asked us to distribute the attached essay, **"A Community-Wide Vision for Jewish Education,"** as the starting point of our seminar on the 14th. He is eager to engage in a discussion of the questions raised by the paper as they apply to your own contexts and communities.

Among these questions are:

Is a community vision of Jewish life and Jewish education possible? Desirable?

How might we formulate a vision of the kind of Jews we want our communities and communal institutions to foster?

What roles might communal institutions--such as federations and JCCs--play in advancing such a vision? (Can we/should we move from an idea of communal institutions as facilitators and "umbrellas" to one of catalysts for a vision? What might be the consequences of such a change?)

Please bring your own questions and responses as well. This seminar will be a pioneering discussion of a critical issue.

We look forward to seeing you on Feb. 14.

15 East 26th Street, New York, NY 10010-1579 • Phone: (212)532-2360 • Fax: (212)532-2646

file - LC seminars

MEMO

FEB 17 1995

TO: CHAIM BOTWINICK, STEVE CHERVIN, RUTH COHEN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION ON MARCH 8, 9

CC: ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, GINNY LEVI, NESSA RAPOPORT

FEBRUARY 15, 1995

Our next meeting is scheduled for March 8 and 9. Our goal for these meetings is to move ahead in the process of developing personnel action plans for our communities. If you think it appropriate to invite additional members of your planning teams to these meetings, please feel free to do so. Just let us know so that we can have enough room and food.

As you remember, several "homework" questions form the agenda for our meetings on Wednesday:

1. What in-service opportunities currently exist in your community? What are their strengths and weaknesses?
2. Where do you want to be in five years?
3. Given where you and where you to be, what's your plan for getting there? Chart the next six months time.

It is critical for moving our work forward that we be able to build on your responses to these questions.

As you requested the meetings will also include an opportunity discuss in-service education with representatives from the education departments of the denominational movements. Therefore, on Thursday, the following people will be joining us: Robert Abramson (United Synagogue Department of Education), Aharon Eldar (Torah Department of the World Zionist Council), Robert Hirt (Yeshiva University), and Kerry Olitsky (Hebrew Union College-Jewish Institute of Religion, NY). I have asked them to speak about the ways

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in which they are currently structured in order to facilitate your work in terms of planning and/or implementing in-service programs for teachers and/or educational leaders. We will then have an opportunity to discuss possible appropriate collaborative efforts in the development and implementation of your communal personnel action plans.

If you have suggestions about ways in which these days' conversations can be structured in order to best meet your needs, please let me know. Currently, we are planning these meetings to run from 9:00 - 5:00 each day. This should allow us enough time to address the issues

MEMO

TO: CHAIM BOTWINICK, STEVE CHERVIN, RUTH COHEN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION ON MARCH 8, 9

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MEMO

TO: ROBERT ABRAMSON, AHARON ELDAR, ROBERT HIRT, KERRY OLITSKY

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: CIJE LEAD COMMUNITY SEMINAR, MARCH 9, 1995

CC: ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, GINNY LEVI, NESSA RAPOPORT

FEBRUARY 15, 1995

Thank you so much for agreeing to participate in our lead community consultation. This memo will summarize where we are at this point and our goals for our March consultation.

In December, we met to work on the development of "Personnel Action Plans" in the communities. Enclosed are the minutes and worksheets that we produced before and after our last consultation which we held in December. As you will read in the minutes, the first part of our meeting was devoted to communal reports. Then Barry and I presented two things:

1. A Generic Personnel Action Plan
2. Suggestions and Strategies for Creating Communal Personnel Action Plans

In March, this group will be meeting again. On March 8, we will be reviewing communal progress in terms of development of these plans. On March 9, we would like to discuss the role, place of denominations in the future development and implementation phases of these plans. At this moment, I am picturing that this portion of our meeting will run from 9:00 - 1:00 (Please plan to stay for lunch if your schedule permits so that there can also be some informal schmoozing time).

By the end of this meeting, we hope that these communities will know more about the ways in which you are currently structured in order to facilitate their

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work in terms of planning and/or implementing in-service programs for teachers or educational leaders. Additionally, you will have a better sense of their thinking about professional development and what kind of help they think they need. (As we think these communities are representative of other communities as well, this information goes beyond the specifics of these three cases.)

In order to reach this goal in the shortest possible time, I suggest that we think about the four hours in two hour segments: the first, built on a "show and tell" model, the second, designed as a discussion.

9:00 - 11:00 --Presentations and Clarifying Questions:

I would ask each of you to take about 20 minutes to describe the ways in which your organization is organized to deal with issues of in-service planning and implementation. There would then be a 10 -15 minute of clarifying questions. If there are descriptive brochures or hand-outs of other kinds that you would like us to reproduce for this occasion, please let me know.

11:00 - 1:00 --Planning Discussion

During the second part of the morning, I would like to engage in a discussion about possible appropriate collaborative efforts in the development and implementation of their communal personnel action plans.

Think about whether this format makes sense to you. I will be in touch with each of you next week for your feedback both about issues of content, strategy and timing.

BOARD OF JEWISH EDUCATION
of Greater Washington

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Robert Keats, President
H. Chaim Lauer, Executive Director

PRESS RELEASE

The Board of Jewish Education of Greater Washington announced this week that its publication, Lilmod Lelamed: A Video Library of Teaching Strategies, will be released the week of March 6th.

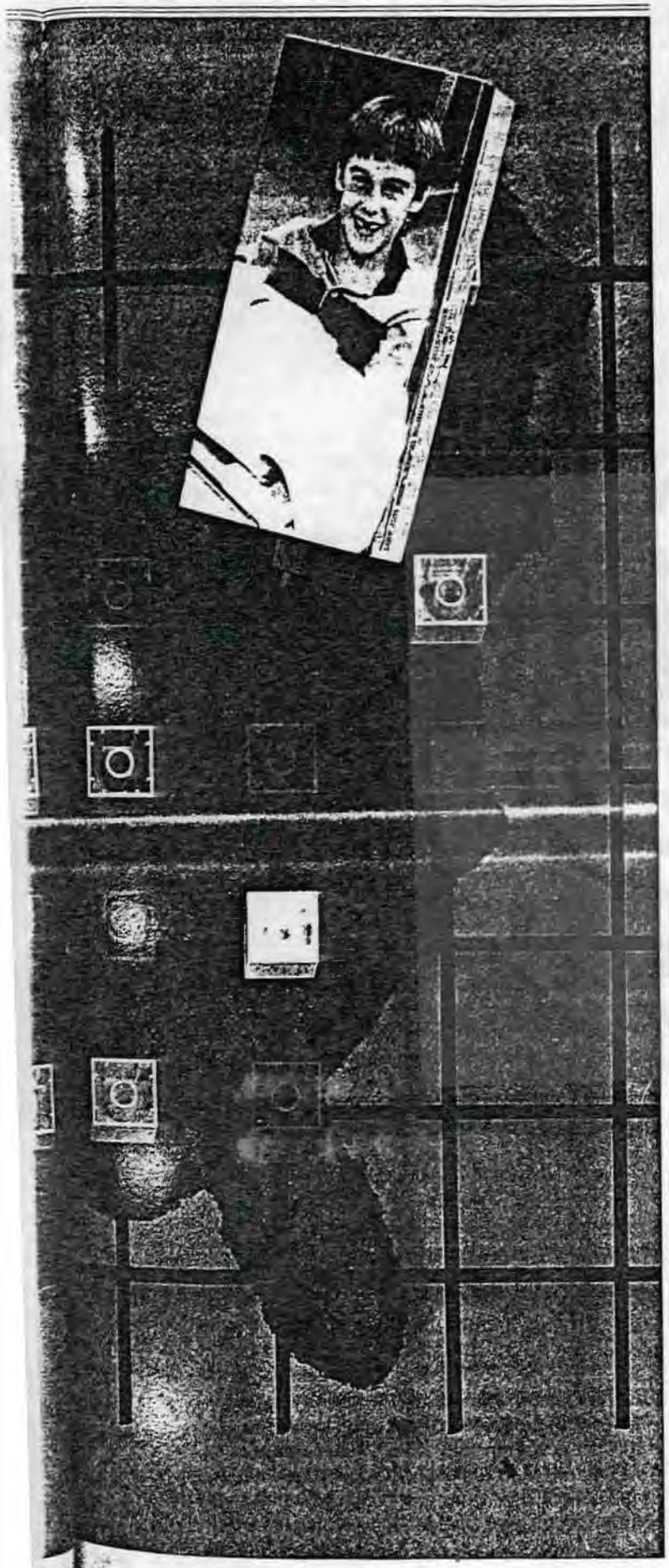
The project is a comprehensive training program that provides eighteen hours of teacher training material specifically developed for Jewish educators. It was funded by a Covenant Grant from the Crown Family Foundation and the Jewish Education Service of North America.

The program adapts to the Jewish school environment six teaching strategies which were originally outlined in the authoritative text Models of Teaching. Chaim Lauer, Executive Director of the BJE, explained that the goal of Lilmod Lelamed is "to equip Jewish teachers with a variety of teaching strategies that have been shown to be exceptionally effective in the classroom." The strategies taught on the ninety minute videotape are; inquiry; synectics, role-playing, advance organizers, concept attainment and cooperative learning.

"The fascinating thing about these six techniques," said Rabbi Mark Levine, Project Manager of Lilmod Lelamed "is that they each have a firm foundation in traditional Jewish educational practices. In this sense," he continued, "we are teaching modern Jewish teachers how to reclaim an educational tradition that has characterized Jewish learning for centuries."

Dr. Bruce Joyce, nationally recognized educator and author of Models of Teaching, will attend a previewing session for Lilmod Lelamed which will be sponsored by the Board of Jewish Education on Monday, March 6th, from 10:00AM to 12:00 noon. Dr. Joyce will lead a workshop for Jewish educators on the models of teaching approach and its impact upon students.

Call the BJE office at 301-984-4455 to register for the seminar.



Construction by Joe LaMantia

Reframing the School Reform Agenda

Developing Capacity for School Transformation

Reforms based on a behavioristic view of learning will never enable schools to meet the demands of the Information Age, Ms. Darling-Hammond asserts. Instead, she suggests, reform should begin with the assumption that students are not standardized and teaching is not routine.

By Linda Darling-Hammond

OVER THE last decade the rhetoric of school improvement has changed from a language of school reform to a language of school restructuring. Efforts to make our current education system perform more efficiently have shifted to initiatives that aim for the fundamental redesign of schools, of approaches to teaching and learning, and of goals for schooling. Just as the last century's transformation from an agrarian society to an industrial one made the one-room schoolhouse obsolete, replacing it with today's large school bureaucracies, so this century's movement into a high-technology Information Age demands a new kind of education and new forms of school organization.

There is little room in today's society for those who cannot manage complexity, find and use resources, and continually learn new technologies, approaches, and occupations. In contrast to low-skilled work on assembly lines, which was designed from above and implemented by means of routine procedures from below, tomorrow's work sites will require employees to frame problems, design their own tasks, plan, construct, evaluate outcomes, and cooperate in finding novel solutions to problems.[1] Increasing social complexity also demands

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citizens who can understand and evaluate multidimensional problems and alternatives and who can manage ever more demanding social systems.

These changes signal a new mission for education – one that requires schools not merely to "deliver instructional services" but to ensure that all students learn at high levels. In turn, the teacher's job is no longer to "cover the curriculum" but to enable diverse learners to construct their own knowledge and to develop their talents in effective and powerful ways.

This changed mission for education requires a new model for school reform, one in which policy makers shift their efforts from *designing controls* intended to direct the system to *developing the capacity* of schools and teachers to be responsible for student learning and responsive to student and community needs, interests, and concerns. Capacity-building requires different policy tools and different approaches to producing, sharing, and using knowledge than those traditionally used throughout this century.

COMPETING MODELS OF POLICY MAKING

Over the last decade, hundreds of pieces of legislation have sought to improve schools by adding course requirements, increasing testing requirements, mandating new curriculum guidelines, and requiring new management processes for schools and districts. Similar reforms during the 1970s had tried to "teacher-proof" schooling by centralizing textbook adoptions, mandating curriculum guides for each grade level and subject area, and developing rules and tests governing how children should be tracked into programs and promoted from grade to grade.

These efforts are the most recent expressions of a model of school reform put into place at the turn of the 20th century – a model grounded in the view of schools as bureaucracies run by carefully specified procedures that yield standard products (students). Based on faith in rationalistic organizational behavior, in the power of rules to direct human action, and in the ability of researchers to discover the common procedures that will produce desired outcomes, 20th-century school reform has assumed that changing the design specifications for schoolwork will change the nature of education that is delivered in classrooms – and will do so in the ways desired by policy makers.

This model fits with a behavioristic view of learning as the management of stimulus and response, easily controlled from outside the classroom by identifying exactly what is to be learned and breaking it up into small, sequential bits. However, we now know that, far from being "blank slates" waiting to accumulate pieces of information, learners actively construct their own knowledge in very different ways depending on what they already know or understand to be true, what they have experienced, and how they perceive and interpret new information. Furthermore, learners coostruct this knowledge in a much more holistic and experiential fashion than is assumed by the sequenced teaching packages, worksheets, texts, and basal readers typical of the old approach to teaching and learning.[2]

To foster meaningful learning, teachers must construct experiences that allow students to confront powerful ideas whole. They must create bridges between the very different experiences of individual learners and the common curriculum goals. They must use a variety of approaches to build on the conceptions, cultures, interests, motivations, and learning modes of their students. They must understand how their students think as well as what they know.

This more complex approach to teaching requires that teachers combine deep knowledge of subject matter and a wide repertoire of teaching strategies with intimate knowledge of students' growth, experience, and development.[3] Furthermore, if schools are to be responsive to the different needs and talents of diverse learners, they must be organized to allow for variability rather than to assume uniformity. Teachers must diversify their practice so that they can engage each of their students in whatever ways are necessary to encourage learning.

These tasks suggest a radically different approach to educational improvement. Rather than seek to make the current system of schooling perform more efficiently by standardizing practice, school reform efforts must focus on building the capacity of schools and teachers to undertake tasks they have never before been called upon to accomplish. Schools and teachers must work to ensure that *all* students learn to think critically, to invent, to produce, and to solve problems. Because this goal requires responding to students' nonstandardized needs, it far exceeds what teacher-proof curricula or administrator-proof management processes could ever accomplish.

Reforms that rely on the transformative power of individuals to rethink their practice and to redesign their institutions can be accomplished only by investing in individual and organizational learning, in the human capital of the educational enterprise – the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of teachers and administrators, as well as those of parents and community members. The new reforms also demand attention to equity in the distribution of those educational resources that build school capacity, including well-qualified teachers supported by adequate materials and decent conditions for teaching and learning. The dramatic inequalities that currently exist in American schools cannot be addressed by pretending that mandating and measuring are the same thing as improving schools.

The shift in our approach to school reform began during what has come to be known as the second wave of reform in the 1980s, which emphasized the need to improve education by decentralizing and professionalizing teaching, by investing in the knowledge and skills of educators rather than in prescriptions for uniform practice. In response, many states and districts have begun to experiment with decentralized decision-making structures, such as site-based management and shared decision making. If these innovations are to succeed, however, they require highly educated and well-prepared teachers who can make sound decisions about curriculum, teaching, and school policy.

Indeed, all the solutions to the problems cited by education's critics are constrained by the availability of talented teachers, by the knowledge and capacities those teachers possess, and by the school conditions that define how that knowledge can be used. Raising graduation requirements in mathematics, science, and foreign language, for example, is of little use if we

do not have an adequate number of qualified teachers to teach those subjects. Exhortations to improve students' higher-order thinking will accomplish little without able teachers who know how to engender such thinking and who teach in an environment that supports rather than undermines such learning. Concerns about "at-risk" children – those who drop out, tune out, and fall behind – cannot be addressed without teachers who are prepared to understand and meet the needs of students who come to school with varying learning styles, from diverse family situations, and with differing beliefs about themselves and about what school means for them.

AT THIS MOMENT WE HAVE TWO VERY DIFFERENT THEORIES OF SCHOOL REFORM WORKING IN PARALLEL – AND SOMETIMES AT CROSS-PURPOSES – THROUGHOUT THE U.S.

Though these arguments may sound persuasive, it is important to realize that American education has been down this path before. The criticisms of current education reformers – that our schools provide most children with an education that is too rigid, too passive, and too rote-oriented to produce learners who can think critically, synthesize and transform, experiment and create – are virtually identical to those of the Progressives at the turn of the century, in the 1930s, and again in the 1960s. Many current reforms were pursued in each of these eras: the interdisciplinary curriculum; team teaching; cooperative learning; the use of projects, portfolios, and other "alternative assessments"; and a "thinking" curriculum aimed at developing higher-order performances and cognitive skills. Indeed, with the addition of a few computers, John Dewey's 1900 vision of the 20th-century ideal[4] is virtually identical to current scenarios for 21st-century schools.[5]

These efforts, aimed at more child-centered teaching and more universal, high-quality education, were killed by underinvestment in teacher knowledge and school capacity. Lawrence Cremin argues that "Progressive education . . . demanded infinitely skilled teachers, and it failed because such teachers could not be recruited in sufficient numbers."[6] Because of this failure, in each of its iterations Progressivism gave way to standardizing influences: the efficiency movement of the 1920s, the teacher-proof curricula of the 1950s, and the "back-to-basics" movement of the 1970s and 1980s. Disappointment with the outcomes of these attempts at rationalizing school procedures led in each instance to renewed criticisms of schools and attempts to restructure them. Current efforts at school reform are also likely to fail unless they are built on a foundation of teaching knowledge and are sustained by a commitment to structural rather than merely symbolic change.

At this moment we have two very different theories of school reform working in parallel – and sometimes at cross-purposes – throughout the U.S. The first focuses on tightening the controls: more courses, more tests, more directive curricula, more standards enforced by more rewards and more sanctions. Some versions of recent national testing proposals follow this model, as do several states' versions of school reform legislation. These approaches essentially assume that the basic problem is a lack of focus, direction, and effort on the part of schoolpeople. In organizational management terms, this is the Theory X of school policy.

The second theory attends more to the capacities of teachers and to the development of schools as inquiring, collaborative organizations than to changes in mandated curricula or management systems. Policies built on this theory include efforts to strengthen teacher education, licensing, and certification processes; to create knowledge-building institutions, such as professional development schools; to decentralize school decision making while supporting teacher learning; to rethink local assessment practices; and to create networks of teachers and schools. While this model of educational improvement emerges, however, the old one remains in force, and the education system is pulled in opposite directions.

A COLLISION COURSE FOR SCHOOL CHANGE

There are many examples of these opposing forces. One is apparent in heavily regulated New York State, where a new "Compact for Learning" exhorts schools to set their own goals, to engage in school-based rethinking and redesign, to develop alternative assessments of student learning, to "teach for understanding" through interdisciplinary team teaching and cooperative learning, and to develop more personalized learning environments. Yet at the same time the curriculum is straitjacketed by Regents courses and testing requirements, which are not interdisciplinary or inquiry-based, and by directive syllabi that often maintain the view that teaching means transmitting information to be memorized within the context of traditional age-graded, single-discipline compartments. Practitioners are well aware that there is an unresolved tension between the policy framework that currently exists and the policy desires that are being voiced in the rhetoric of school-based reform. Until the new vision is more fully enacted, practitioners, parents, and students will live in a state of policy conflict.

Top-down directives are based on the presumption that teachers cannot be trusted to make sound decisions about curriculum and teaching. Clearly, school-led innovations will require knowledge building for at least two purposes: to enable more challenging forms of teaching and to disarm negative presumptions about teachers. Meanwhile, however, capacity-building mechanisms – such as staff development programs, teacher education investments, and supports for school change – are funded much less well than activities designed to control the curriculum. Recently, New York State's mentor teacher program and its teacher centers, which had formed the bedrock of the state's professional development program, were eliminated in a round of budget cuts. The experience in many other states is similar: ambitious and well-intentioned reforms are enacted while opportunities for people to learn new practices are being cut back.

Ironically, the understandings about human learning that have informed the development of new approaches to curriculum do not appear to have informed the process of policy implementation yet. Teachers are expected to change their beliefs, knowledge, and actions as a result of a change process that consists primarily of the issuance of a statement and the adoption of new regulations or curriculum packages. This approach to policy implementation clearly cannot achieve the goals of reform.

The responses of school practitioners to policies depend on a wide array of environmental factors: local resources, student needs, community expectations for schools, competing priorities and ideologies, and previously passed policies, many of which stand as direct or indirect obstacles to the pursuit of the intentions of new policies. Speaking of teachers' encounters with newly arrived "improvements," Penelope Peterson notes, "The pedagogical slate is never clean."[7]

A massive geological dig would be required to unearth the tangled influences that created the many layers of policy that people in schools must now contend with. These influences make the serious implementation of new policies difficult, even impossible, without excavation and reform of what has gone before.

One example is the set of recently developed curriculum frameworks in California that aim to promote a more conceptual, constructivist approach to teaching and learning. Researchers who examined the implementation of the new mathematics framework discovered that it collided with several existing policies. One was the state system of standardized testing, which values algorithmic knowledge and rote performances rather than those deeper understandings sought by the new framework. As one teacher explained:

> Teaching for understanding is what we are supposed to be doing. . . . It's difficult to test, folks. That is the bottom line. . . . They want me to teach in a way that they can't test. Except that I'm held accountable to the test. It's a Catch-22.[8]

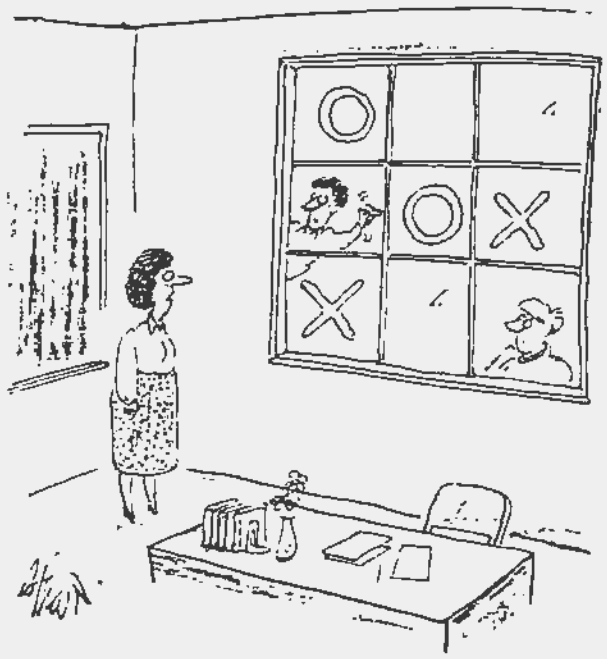
Not only is the kind of teaching required to achieve the goals of the mathematics framework different from that required to achieve the goals of the current standardized tests, but the type of teaching that allows students to puzzle and delve deeply, to experience and explore alternatives, may require tradeoffs — at least in the short term — between breadth and depth of content coverage. The same teacher reads and comments on a statement from the framework: " 'Teaching for understanding . . . takes longer to learn.' Hey, if I were spending the time to really get these kids to learn it, I might be several pages back."[9]

This is the reality of classroom life in most schools, where the press of teaching is "getting through" the curriculum, even if the students are being left behind (or left numb and unengaged) as the curriculum marches on, page by page and day by day. Contrast this approach with the mathematics curriculum framework in Japan, which, for a major portion of an entire year in the early middle grades, focuses on "deepening the understanding of integer." It assumes that the goal is to learn to think mathematically rather than to cover large numbers of problems, memorizing facts and algorithms along the way.

A second policy collision is occasioned by the earlier introduction in a number of California districts of certain "direct instruction" models for teaching and teacher evaluation. The Achievement for Basic Skills Program is used in some schools, and Madeline Hunter's Instructional Theory into Practice model is used in others. Where such programs constitute heavy influences on teaching and evaluation, teachers feel that they constrain their abilities to use student-centered, inquiry-oriented strategies of instruction. Both of the models I've mentioned assume a teacher-directed classroom, structured by brisk presentations of lessons followed by guided practice and evaluation of mastery. These models' implicit view of teaching and learning is quite different from one that envisions a classroom in which exploration guides students to their own discovery and testing of concepts, and right answers are not the only goal of instruction.

Although teachers could sense the curricular conflict that had been produced by this layering of policies, neither the state nor the districts seemed particularly aware of the dilemma or prepared to help teachers deal with it. And where instructional policies are enacted at the state level, local districts do not have the authority to resolve the discrepancies between conflicting state mandates.

This can create a kind of Alice in Wonderland world in which people ultimately begin to nod blithely at the inevitability of incompatible events — a world in which educators cease to try to make sense of their environment for themselves as professionals or for their students. They have to explain the procedures and policies that students encounter only in terms of what some faceless, external, and presumably nonrational "they" say we have to do.



"Would you two please step inside? I'd like a word with you."

When teachers are unable to help students make sense of the school environment, the students (and often their teachers as well) become alienated. Young people are very good at identifying things that do not "make sense" and rejecting them. They find other ways by which to organize their time, their thinking, and their lives. Solving the problem of contradictory policies is a prerequisite for solving the problems of student engagement and learning in schools.

IMPLICATIONS OF COMPETING MODELS

The two very different streams of policy that are creating such cognitive dissonance in teachers stem from radically different notions of how students learn and what is required for effective teaching.[10] In one view, students are raw material to be "processed" by schools according to specifications dictated by schedules, programs, courses, and exit tests. Teachers administer the procedures to the students assigned to them, using the tools they are given: textbooks, curriculum guidelines, lists of objectives, course syllabi. Correctly defining the procedures is the key to educational improvement. If the outcomes are not satisfactory, the solution is to provide more detailed prescriptions for practice and to monitor implementation more carefully.

There are no problems of practice in this view. There are only problems of implementation. As a consequence, we have created a superstructure of regulatory offices that prescribe a variety of practices and design a range of programs; they inspect and monitor, receive reports and audit them. In addition to reducing options for meeting students' needs, this approach drains resources out of classrooms into peripheral offices at the edges of the core teaching/learning enterprise: only half of education professionals are classroom teachers, and a much smaller share of our total resources makes its way to classrooms than is true in most other industrialized countries.[11] These countries invest more in supporting the work of "front-line workers" in schools than in trying to inspect, monitor, and control that work.

Because this view assumes that students are standardized and that educational treatments can be prescribed, it does not view teachers as needing expertise. Thus most major teaching decisions are handed down through policy and encapsulated in packaged teaching materials. It is better that teachers not be especially "empowered," because correct implementation depends on a certain degree of uniformity controlled from above. There is no rationale in this conception of teaching for substantial teacher preparation, induction, or professional development, aside from "inservicing" designed to ensure more exact implementation of prescribed teaching procedures. There is no need and little use for professional knowledge and judgment or for collegial consultation and planning.

As a consequence of this view, "real teaching" in American schools consists of teaching large groups of students, often one after another in five or six batches of 30. Anything else that a teacher does is considered "released time." Time is rarely available for planning, for working with other colleagues on changes in the school organization, for meeting individually with students or parents, and for working on the development of curriculum or assessment measures – activities that are not considered part of the teacher's main job.

In contrast, teachers in most countries work with large groups of students only 15 to 20 hours per week and spend the other 20 to 30 hours per week working individually with students and parents, planning and consulting with other teachers, and developing curriculum and assessments. The conception of teaching in these countries assumes that collegial work is the basis for instructional decisions and actions rather than that individual assembly line workers process "products" passing by on a conveyor belt.

THE VIEW THAT UNDERPINS THE NEW PARADIGM FOR SCHOOL REFORM STARTS FROM THE ASSUMPTIONS THAT STUDENTS ARE NOT STANDARDIZED AND THAT TEACHING IS NOT ROUTINE.

It is the logic of our assembly line approach to teaching that has allowed U.S. policy makers to avoid investing substantial resources in teacher preparation or in teacher salaries. U.S. teacher preparation programs typically spend less per student than other schools or departments in most of our universities.[12] U.S. teachers earn about 30% less than other college-educated workers with the same amount of experience. There is no need to invest in rigorous preparation of teachers if there is nothing of value to be learned. There is no reason to attend to the abilities of those recruited and retained in teaching if these are only marginally related to the outcomes of schooling. If we can fix teaching by developing better regulations, there is no need to produce better-educated teachers.

One of the most extreme versions of this viewpoint has been implemented in one of the nation's largest urban school districts, in which teachers are supplied with a K-12 standardized curriculum outlining the scope and sequence for instruction in each subject in each grade, complete with a pacing schedule showing how much time teachers should spend on each topic as well as lesson plans for each day of the school year. Grading standards are also prescribed, showing how much weight teachers should give to each type of assignment (the assignments are also specified) and how they should calculate grades. Promotion standards are determined by standardized tests, which were developed to match the curriculum. The assumption is that marching the students through these procedures is all that is necessary to ensure learning.

The second view of teaching and learning, the view that underpins the new paradigm for school reform, starts from the assumptions that students are not standardized and that teaching is not routine. Consonant with recent research on teaching and learning, this view acknowledges that effective teaching techniques will vary for students with different learning

styles, with differently developed intelligences, or at different stages of cognitive and psychological development; for different subject areas; and for different instructional goals. Far from following standardized instructional packages, teachers must base their judgments on knowledge of learning theory and pedagogy, of child development and cognition, and of curriculum and assessment. They must then connect this knowledge to the understandings, dispositions, and conceptions that individual students bring with them to the classroom.

Thinking about teaching and learning along these lines suggests a very different approach to education reform. It also suggests a very different relationship between research and practice – and between researchers and practitioners. Among the major sources of conflict in the history of educational research in this century are issues concerning the types of knowledge sought and the uses to which knowledge should be put. Is the goal to discover unvarying relationships between educational processes and outcomes and then to use that knowledge to create the "one best system" of educational practice and thus control curriculum and teaching?[13] Or is knowledge to be used for illuminating the complexities of human learning for the purpose of enriching teachers' own thinking about their practice and empowering them to see teaching and learning through many lenses?

In the first instance, researchers produce knowledge for policy makers and administrators who use it to create the right design specifications. They then "impart" knowledge, usually in memo form or on inservice training days, to teachers who are to absorb it and use it in fairly straightforward ways. In the second instance, knowledge is produced with and for teachers.

John Dewey's quest for the sources of a "science of education" was motivated by the desire to enrich the teacher's capacity for understanding and intelligent decision making rather than to control the teacher's behavior. Dewey argued that those who thought scientific study would ultimately result in a "uniformity of procedure" misunderstood the problem:

> Command of scientific methods and systematized subject matter liberates individuals; it enables them to see new problems, devise new procedures, and, in general, makes for diversification rather than for set uniformity. . . . This knowledge and understanding render [the teacher's] practice more *intelligent*, more flexible, and better adapted to deal effectively with concrete phenomena of practice. . . . Seeing more relations he sees more possibilities, more opportunities. His ability to judge being enriched, he has a wider range of alternatives to select from in dealing with individual situations.[14]

Contrary to the efforts of many recent reforms to translate research findings into uniform and unvarying rules for practice, Dewey argued that "no conclusion of scientific research can be converted into an immediate rule of educational art." Educational practice, according to Dewey, is always highly complex and contains "many other conditions and factors than are included in the scientific finding. The significance of one factor for educational practice can be determined only as it is balanced with many other factors."[15]

This is essentially the same conclusion that Lee Cronbach and others reached when they investigated the relationships between specific teaching treatments and student outcomes, even after adjusting for "aptitudes" or characteristics of students. Cronbach discovered that interaction effects that may be identified from research on teaching are not confined to easily translatable two- or even three-way interactions, thus limiting the prospects of achieving generalizable rules for practice:

> An ATI [aptitude-treatment interaction] result can be taken as a general conclusion only if it is not in turn moderated by further variables. . . . Once we attend to interactions, we enter a hall of mirrors that extends to infinity. . . .[16]

Cronbach concluded that the search for empirical generalizations "in a world in which most effects are interactive" should give way to "response-sensitive" research, which takes exceptions seriously and makes continual adjustments on the basis of individual, context-specific responses.

This is precisely what teachers must do every day. They must adapt and respond on the basis of individual needs and interactions to a complex, ever-changing set of circumstances – taking into account the real knowledge and experiences of learners, including their cultures, their communities, and the conditions in which they live. Yet this is what many current school reform policies seek to prevent teachers from doing.

In addition to highly prescriptive curriculum and testing policies, such as those described above, the prescriptive policies for teacher evaluation that exist in many states actually impede teachers from teaching responsively and effectively. One such policy, adopted in several states, requires that teachers be rated as "ineffective" for engaging in practices that take into account the needs and interests of their students.[17] Despite research that suggests the importance of linking classroom work to students' personal experiences, the Florida Performance Measurement System (FPMS) codes as "ineffective" any teacher questions that "call for personal opinion or that are answered from personal experience." The coding manual notes that "these questions may sometimes serve useful or even necessary purposes; however, they should be tallied here [in the ineffective column] since they do not move the class work along academically."[18]

Even though the research underlying the development of the FPMS was assembled in a very thoughtful and carefully reasoned research summary, the instrument itself frequently con-

THE PRESCRIPTIVE POLICIES FOR TEACHER EVALUATION THAT EXIST IN MANY STATES ACTUALLY IMPEDE TEACHERS FROM TEACHING RESPONSIVELY AND EFFECTIVELY.

travenes these findings. Rather than try to put the research knowledge into the hands of teachers for use in making complex judgments, the policy sought to summarize it in a few simple and unvarying rules for practice to be used in the administrative control of teaching.

The FPMS, which has been borrowed by a number of other states, is littered with statements suggesting that beginning teachers should be prepared to be insensitive to the students they teach and ignorant of a broader knowledge base on teaching. Robert Floden and Hans Klinzing's conclusion is on the mark:

> Training teachers to follow a fixed set of prescriptions discourages teachers from adapting their instruction to the particular subjects and students they are teaching. Hence, the instructional effectiveness of teachers given such training is unlikely to be at a high level.[19]

A 21ST-CENTURY MODEL OF SCHOOL REFORM

If we are to move to a new model of school reform, we must reframe the reform agenda by reducing prescriptions for practice while investing in new forms of professional development, policy development, and political development.

Professional development. Supporting the type of practitioner knowledge that can inform teachers' judgments in complex situations is critical. Such knowledge can be sustained through continued investment in and strengthening of preservice teacher education as well as through investment in ongoing professional development. One of the most puzzling funding decisions by legislatures, government agencies, and foundations is the frequent conclusion that limited resources should be spent exclusively on inservice teacher education – sprinkling tiny droplets of resources among 110,000 individual schools – rather than on concentrated efforts to improve schools of education, only 500 of which prepare 80% of all teachers in this country.

The issue of teacher preparation is particularly important today, because there will be 2.5 million classroom vacancies to be filled over the next decade – and nearly the same number in the following decade. It would be shortsighted not to seize this opportunity to improve teacher education programs so that all of them can prepare reflective practitioners, able to teach students knowledgeably and responsively. Efforts to restructure teacher education by redesigning curriculum and establishing professional development schools are already under way in Holmes Group institutions and many others. If accreditation and licensing standards are strengthened and a commitment is made to invest in program development, all institutions that educate teachers should be enabled to prepare teachers for learner-centered schools.

The new emphases in teacher education will be enhanced by research and development efforts that generate and disseminate knowledge that is useful to teachers and constructed with teachers. Continued research that digs deeply into the textures of teaching and the nuances of teachers' thinking will augment our understanding of subject-matter pedagogy; of curriculum building; of teacher learning; of student learning; of links between intelligence, performance, assessment, and classroom practice; and of successful teacher education. Such research can also help create more meaningful and sensitive assessments of teachers' knowledge for licensing, certification, and evaluation systems.

At the same time, policy makers and practitioners need to find ways to support collegial discourse and inquiry in schools. Teachers should have opportunities to engage in peer coaching, team planning and teaching, and collaborative research that enables them to construct new means for inquiring into their practice. Participation in professional communities through school and teacher networks also deepens teachers' understanding.

Ann Lieberman and Milbrey McLaughlin note that teacher networks – such as the Foxfire Teacher Networks, the Urban Mathematics Collaboratives, and the North Dakota Study Group – can transform practice and create professional communities by inspiring teachers to solve problems, take risks, assume ownership of their teaching, and exercise leadership in their schools. Lieberman and McLaughlin comment:

> *The context in which educational change is pursued is everything*. Many policies are based on assumptions about contexts for reform that do not take into account the alternative that networks offer. Instead of targeting individuals and attempting to provide them with new skills or perspectives, networks concentrate on *building communities of teacher/learners*. It is thus critical that policy makers and others approach teacher networks not from the standpoint of management and control, but from that of the norms and agreements of communal relations.[20]

This collective perspective has to permeate the entire process of organizational development in order to create schools that can focus on learners.

"Impoverished parents, impoverished students, impoverished alumni of this great impoverished university . . ."

Policy development. State licensing and evaluation standards that embody conceptions of the type of teacher knowledge needed for adaptive and reflective practice are key to building the foundation of a new model of school reform. In addition to redesigned preprofessional programs, internship opportunities in restructured schools are crucial for new teachers; ideally, they should occur in professional development schools. Minnesota is the first state to require – and to begin to fund – such opportunities. A number of other states are considering doing so.

Policies that will build capacity in schools must include the equalization of school funding, so that adequate investments will be made in the capacity of *all* schools to offer a thinking curriculum and to employ well-qualified and well-supported teachers. Without such investments, current rhetoric about "world-class standards" and new kinds of assessment will perpetrate yet another cruel hoax on children in schools that haven't the remotest chance of offering "world-class" education with the resources they command.

Policies can also promote organizational development by supporting dialogue and shared decision making, along with opportunities for professional development and reflection. Policies should encourage and allow schools to structure shared planning time for teachers to engage in dialogue about practice and for collective inquiry into what is working well and how students can be better served. States and districts should also fund time for teacher development outside the boundaries of the traditional school year. For example, South Carolina funds an additional 10 days per year for teachers to engage in planning and professional development.

Political development. By "political development" I mean the ways in which groups of people develop shared goals and understandings – a broad consensus about the kind of education they want for children. Schools today largely function by submerging talk about those things that are likely to be most controversial – and thus are likely to be most important. Debates about the most fundamental concerns of teaching and learning are typically squashed – or tacitly agreed to be out of line – in faculty meetings, parent/teacher organization meetings, and other gatherings of members of the school community.

Schools have tried to implement bureaucratic rules and procedures by burying the dialogue that would allow real problems to emerge. A fragile agreement to maintain the silence allows us to keep on going without struggling to determine what we want from our students and what that requires from our schools. Consequently, we have failed to form true communities in most of our educational institutions.

The foundation of genuine accountability – one of the most frequently used words in the school reform lexicon – is the capacity of individual schools: 1) to organize themselves to prevent students from falling through the cracks, 2) to create means for continual collegial inquiry (in which hard questions are posed regarding what needs to change in order for individuals and groups of students to succeed), and 3) to use authority responsibly to make the changes necessary. No testing program can produce this kind of accountability. It will occur only if we find ways to empower, encourage, and allow schools to build an inquiry ethic, a community of discourse in the school, that is focused on students and their needs rather than on the implementation of rules and procedures.

This kind of accountability also requires a substantial amount of local control over school procedures and over the assessment of outcomes. One of the things we are learning in our work at NCREST (the National Center for Restructuring Education, Schools, and Teaching) is that local school engagement in developing alternative forms of student assessment turns out to be a powerful tool for organizational development.[21] There are ripple effects throughout the entire school organization when teachers begin to ask questions such as these: What do we want students to be able to do? How will we know if they can do those things? What can we develop as a means for evaluating their knowledge and abilities in an authentic way? How do we develop shared views of what constitutes competence? How will we help students get there? Ultimately, these questions drive transformative changes in curriculum, in collegial discourse, and in the ways in which the organization focuses on students.

SCHOOLS HAVE TRIED TO IMPLEMENT BUREAUCRATIC RULES AND PROCEDURES BY BURYING THE DIALOGUE THAT WOULD ALLOW REAL PROBLEMS TO EMERGE.

For this reason the question of who controls assessment is one of the major dimensions of the current debate about assessment reform. Even the most challenging and thought-provoking performance-based assessments will fail to transform schools if they are externally mandated and delivered. If some significant portion of the assessment process does not support teachers, students, and parents in their efforts to define themselves as a learning community, then the possibilities for organizational change and improvement will once again be wrested away from schools. The engine for school change – the catalyst for a community's political and educational development – will have been removed once again from the local school arena, where it must reside if it is to be effective.

The Eight-Year Study, conducted by the Progressive Education Association in the 1930s, illustrates the significance of this kind of community building. During those years, a group of 30 experimental schools put into place nearly all of the various reforms we are once again talking about. Three hundred colleges and universities agreed to accept students from these schools based on teacher recommendations and student products rather than on test scores and Carnegie units. From its evaluation of nearly 1,500 matched pairs of students from experimental and nonexperimental schools, the study demonstrated that, on virtually any dimension of student develop-

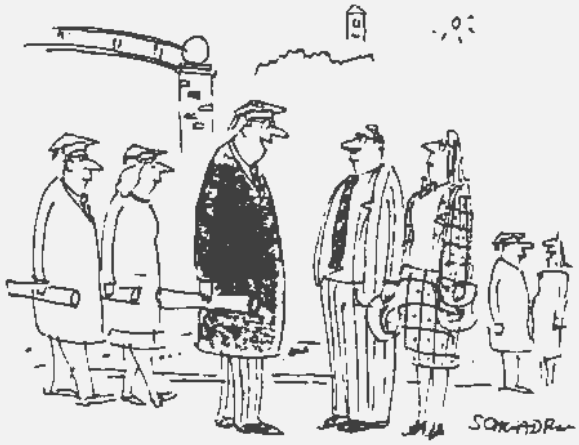
ment and performance — from academic honors to civic and social responsibility, according to the judgments of professors, teachers, or others — the students from experimental schools outperformed those from traditional schools.[22]

Most important, the study found that the most successful schools were characterized not by the particular innovation they had adopted but by their willingness to search and struggle in pursuit of valid objectives, new strategies, and new forms of assessment.[23] It was the *process* of collective struggle that produced the vitality, the shared vision, and the conviction that allowed these schools to redesign education in fundamentally different ways. If the processes and outcomes of education are already defined by those outside of the schools, there is nothing left to talk about. Thus the removal of local responsibility for thinking things through deprives schools and communities of the opportunity to engage in the kind of empowering and enlivening dialogue that motivates change.

Therefore, we need policies that allow and encourage schools to engage in the kind of democratic dialogue that fosters the development of a polity, a community with shared purpose. As Dewey suggested:

> There is more than a verbal tie between the words common, community, and communication. [People] live in a community in virtue of the things which they have in common; and communication is the way in which they come to possess things in common. What they must have in common in order to form a community or society are aims, beliefs, aspirations, knowledge — a common understanding — like-mindedness as the sociologists say. Such things cannot be passed physically from one to another, like bricks; they cannot be shared as persons would share a pie by dividing it into physical pieces. . . . Consensus requires communication.
>
> Not only is social life identical with communication, but all communication (and hence all genuine social life) is educative. . . . One shares in what another has thought and felt and insofar, meagerly or amply, has his own attitude modified. . . . It may fairly be said, therefore, that any social arrangement that remains vitally social, or vitally shared, is educative to those who participate in it.[24]

The new model of school reform must seek to develop communities of learning grounded in communities of democratic discourse. It is only in this way that communities can come to want for all their children what they would want for their most advantaged — an education for empowerment and an education for freedom.



"I'm looking forward to getting out of the dorm and on my own. By the way, is my old room ready for me?"

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LC Consultation

(or whatever you've called it)

8/8-9/95

TO: CHAIM BOTWINICK, STEVE CHERVIN, RUTH COHEN, INA REGOSIN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: CIJE -- LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION, MARCH 8, 9

CC: JANICE ALPER, MARCI DICKMAN, ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, GINNY LEVI, NESSA RAPOPORT

2/28/95

In preparation for our meetings next week, please think about how you want to share the following three issues which will serve as the framework for our agenda on Wednesday:

1. The personnel action planning process in your community
2. "The Map" of Current Inservice offerings(and your analysis of strengths and weaknesses)
3. "Your Communal Personnel Action Plan (The Map) in the Year 2000"

I am enclosing two articles by Judith Warren-Little. I have selected them because of their approriateness to the topics that we are discussing. Both deal with issues of professional development. One characterizes the nature of professional development; the other describes the differences between professional development initiatives which effect long lasting changes and those that do not.

On Thursday, our schedule will be as follows:

9:00 - 11:00 --Presentations and Clarifying Questions:

I have each of our guests (Robert Abramson, Aharon Eldar, Robert Hirt, Kerry Olitsky to take about 20 minutes to describe the ways in which their organization is organized to deal with issues of in-service planning and implementation. There would then be a 10 -15 minute of clarifying questions.

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11:00 - 1:00 --Planning Discussion

During the second part of the morning, I would like to engage in a discussion about possible appropriate collaborative efforts in the development and implementation of communal personnel action plans.

We will then have lunch. I have invited our guests to join us for lunch if it is possible.

We will then have time to discuss what we have learned in the morning session and how this adds to the picture and planning that we have done on Wednesday and plan our next steps.

P.S.

Mazal Tov to Marci on the birth of a baby boy. We are delighted by his arrival but sorry that his presence precludes Marci's presence at our meeting.

Janice is also sorry she will not be able to join us for these meetings. She already had commitments for these days when we set them in January.

Time for Act
CIJE Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

TO: ROBERT ABRAMSON, AHARON ELDAR, ROBERT HIRT, KERRY OLITSKY

FROM: GAIL DORPH

RE: CIJE - LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION

2/28/95

I want to share with you the two articles that I have sent to the participants in next week's meeting. They are both by Judith Warren-Little. I have selected them because of their approriateness to the topics that we are discussing. Both deal with issues of professional development. One characterizes the nature of professional development; the other describes the differences between professional development initiatives which effect long lasting changes and those that do not.

Looking forward to seeing you on March 9th at 9:00 am at the CIJE offices. Please let Robin Mencher (532-2360, ext. 440) know if you will be joining us for lunch at 1:00. I hope your schedule will indeed be flexible enough for you to do so.

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Teachers' Professional Development in a Climate of Educational Reform

Judith Warren Little
University of California, Berkeley

This essay posits a problem of fit among five streams of reform and prevailing configurations of teachers' professional development. It argues that the dominant training-and-coaching model—focused on expanding an individual repertoire of well-defined classroom practice—is not adequate to the conceptions or requirements of teaching embedded in present reform initiatives. Subject matter collaboratives and other emerging alternatives are found to embody six principles that stand up to the complexity of reforms in subject matter teaching, equity, assessment, school organization, and the professionalization of teaching. The principles form criteria for assessing professional development policies and practices.

This essay posits a problem of "fit" among five streams of reform and prevailing configurations of teachers' professional development. It argues that the dominant training model of teachers' professional development—a model focused primarily on expanding an individual repertoire of well-defined and skillful classroom practice—is not adequate to the ambitious visions of teaching and schooling embedded in present reform initiatives. Emerging alternatives to the training model, though small in scale, embody assumptions about teacher learning and the transformation of schooling that appear more fully compatible with the complex demands of reform and the equally complex contexts of teaching.

The essay begins by posing some of the ways in which current reform movements shape challenges, possibilities, and constraints for teachers' professional development. The second section frames a policy dilemma that revolves around the limitations of the dominant training paradigm for purposes of achieving the reform agenda. A third section introduces principles that seem especially congruent with reform requirements, together with examples of four options that appear to hold promise. The final section outlines selected issues that bear on the fit between reform imperatives and teachers' professional development and that inform the criteria for assessing professional development policy choices.

Two caveats preface the broader argument. First, the discussion concentrates exclusively, or nearly so, on teachers. For principled and pragmatic reasons it places teachers at the center, even while acknowledging the ways in which entire institutions, and all the roles and relations they encompass, are implicated in any reform effort. Second, the essay reflects certain reservations about any stance that places teachers solely or largely in the role of implementers of reform. To be certain, reforms pose certain technical demands—demands on the knowledge, skill, judgment, and imagination of individuals. In that sense, the implementation problem at the level of the classroom is real. But reforms also convey certain values and worldviews. They communicate a vision of what it means to learn, and what it means to be educated; they communicate a vision of schools and teaching, of students and teachers. They are to greater or lesser degrees compatible with the

organizational structures and cultures in which persons work. In these crucial ways, powerful reform ideas engage teachers in a broader consideration of the educational enterprise both in and beyond the classroom.

Professional development in the service of implementation may obscure questions related to purpose and may mask the internal contradictions and tensions within and across reform initiatives. To make sensible critiques of proposed reforms requires getting at their underlying assumptions, their social and historical context, the degree to which they are congruent or not with teachers' existing beliefs, commitments, and practices, their probable consequences for students, and the ways in which they vary or converge across communities. By this argument, one test of teachers' professional development is its capacity to equip teachers individually and collectively to act as shapers, promoters, and well-informed critics of reforms. The most robust professional development options will locate problems of implementation within this larger set of possibilities.

Professional Development and the Reform Agendas

Five streams of reform, both singly and in combination, present complex challenges to teachers as individuals and as members of a wider professional community. Those challenges are illustrated, though not exhausted, in the descriptions that follow. The test of different professional development strategies resides in their capacity to engage teachers in the kinds of study, investigation, and experimentation required to understand and undertake the multiple challenges described here, and to grasp the relationships among them.

Reforms in Subject Matter Teaching (Standards, Curriculum, and Pedagogy)

Reforms in subject matter standards, curriculum content, and pedagogy increasingly aspire toward more ambitious student outcomes. Among them one would count the shift to a whole language and literature–based approach to language arts, the new mathematics standards, proposals for integrated science curricula, and the like. Among them, too, one would place conceptions of authentic achievement that require a fundamental change in the nature of students' intellectual tasks and teacher-student relations (Newmann, 1990). These reforms constitute a departure from canonical views of curriculum and from textbook-centered or recitation-style teaching. They demand a greater facility among teachers for integrating subject content and for organizing students' opportunities to learn. They represent, on the whole, a substantial departure from teachers' prior experience, established beliefs, and present practice. Indeed, they hold out an image of conditions of learning for children that their teachers have themselves rarely experienced.

In addition, individual teachers may be pressed to move on many fronts at once (see Hargreaves, 1990, 1992; Little, 1992a). Elementary teachers must absorb the changes in content and method associated with an entire spectrum of the elementary curriculum. The rotating curriculum adoption schedules for the California state frameworks, for example, could keep elementary teachers permanently in an implementation-of-innovation mode—an exhausting prospect. Secondary teachers are asked to consider possibilities for interdisciplinary curricula at precisely the time they are asked to reconsider their approaches to subject matter teaching—the latter reinforced by new state curriculum frameworks, standardized test protocols, subject-specific university admission requirements, textbook design, and the like. Meanwhile, reforms aimed at critical thinking sit in tension with the basic skills reforms that began in the 1960s and that are still a prominent part of the urban school improvement landscape (Carlson, 1992).

Reforms Centered on Problems of Equity Among a Diverse Student Population

Equity reforms respond to the persistent achievement disparities among students from differing family backgrounds and are aimed at altering both the demonstrated achievement and school completion rates of the lowest achieving groups. Over the past decades, such reforms have centered largely on remedying individual student deficiencies. Al-

though more recent analyses have pointed with increasing specificity and persuasiveness toward institutional structures and norms that define and contribute to student failure (e.g., Fine, 1991; Oakes, 1985, 1992), programmatic remedies continue to focus on students' individual skills (and deficits). There are a few exceptions in which reforms in school organization specifically target the structures of students' opportunity to learn; these range from the charter schools experiment in Philadelphia high schools (Fine, 1992) to a single teacher's efforts to "untrack" an Advanced Placement English class (Cone, 1992). By comparison with individualistic remedies (to what is arguably a systemic and structural problem), these efforts are few in number; most school restructuring proposals are founded on other assumptions and strategies.

Advances in professional development, too, have centered on problems of diversity and equity in individual classrooms—assisting teachers to identify and alter classroom practices that contribute to student failure and that undermine equal opportunity to learn. The most promising of these efforts engage teachers collectively in studying classroom practices in ways that sometimes lead to more systemic changes at the school level (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1992; Cone, 1992). They do so by building a norm conducive to the close scrutiny of well-established practices and by building a capacity for organizational change.

Reforms in the Nature, Extent, and Uses of Student Assessment

Reform proposals argue for more widespread and rigorous use of authentic assessment. Yet the technical advances in assessment have typically lagged behind the formulation of standards and the advances in curriculum design. State and local policymakers continue to judge the success of reform efforts on the basis of standardized test scores. Components of statewide tests that strike teachers as most authentic (e.g., writing samples or open-ended math reasoning items) are also those most difficult and expensive to develop and to score. In areas other than language arts and math, they may also be relatively underdeveloped, especially where they call for synthesis across subject areas, as in the exhibitions favored by the Coalition of Essential Schools. At the local level, teachers' expressed interest in and commitment to alternative forms of assessment far exceeds their professed skill and confidence in constructing, evaluating, or incorporating such alternatives—and also exceeds the resources currently available from the research and test development communities. Yet local discussions do not and cannot wait upon the psychometricians' advances. In schools embarked upon "reinventing," "redesigning," and "restructuring" themselves, teachers wrestle with the criteria for good work and the forms in which it might be expressed.

Reforms in the Social Organization of Schooling

The recurrent strains of criticism throughout the 1980s culminate in the widespread agreement that business as usual will not suffice. The convergence of interest (and funds) around the broad image of school restructuring has been quite astounding. The call to more systemic reform permeates initiatives in school restructuring supported by states, private foundations, and, to a lesser extent, teachers' associations in concert with local schools and districts.

The most ambitious of these initiatives have in common an orientation toward principles, not programs or specific practices. The Coalition of Essential Schools, for example, is united by a commitment to nine principles for the redesign of secondary schools (Sizer, 1992). Predictably, teachers' commitments to these principles are provisional and uneven; in that regard, we have what might appear to be a conventional implementation-of-innovation situation. But the dilemma for school leadership and for professional development goes far deeper in this instance: There is no well-developed picture of what these principles look like in practice. In the scramble to define a model, isolated cases of success become the focus of lore—Central Park East springs to mind, but few others (Meier, 1992). And no matter how persuasive the precedent set by any success story,

broad principles require close attention to each local context. To fit opportunities for professional development to a campaign for the principled redesign of schooling is arguably a different matter from organizing the training and support to implement a program or a set of readily transferable practices. Yet we lack descriptions of restructuring initiatives that supply a detailed portrait of the learning demands on teachers and the corresponding professional development responses.[1]

Reforms in the Professionalization of Teaching

The professionalization reforms at the national and state levels center on teachers' demonstrated knowledge base (as reflected in standards for teacher education program accreditation and candidate assessment), on conditions surrounding teacher certification and licensure, and on the structure of career opportunities in teaching. At the local level, professionalization tends to take the form of extended assistance to new teachers, expanded career opportunities for experienced teachers, and experiments in site-based decision making. For purposes of this article, these reforms are interesting principally for the way in which they bear upon the four reform movements discussed above—that is, for the way in which they equip teachers both individually and collectively to play an informed and active role in defining the enterprise of education and the work of teaching.

This is not the place to repeat all the major arguments surrounding the professional standing of the teaching occupation, although the reforms have spawned a large and growing literature. Two comments seem germane. First, state and local policymakers seem most readily disposed to support appeals to professionalization where they see it as (a) sustaining a reasonably well-prepared and stable teacher work force and (b) coupled with assurances of local accountability for student outcomes. Second, initiatives that promise professionalization of teaching increasingly expand opportunity and reward in exchange for increased obligation. Teachers are expected to contribute to the support of beginning teachers and to participate in other ways in the improvement of schooling and teaching.

These five streams of reform cannot be done well piecemeal, nor are they reforms that succeed if attempted only in isolated classrooms. As Fine (1992) puts it, the present ventures pursue the "big systemic, educational question" of transforming whole systems into "educationally and emotionally rich communities of learners" (p. 2). This suggests quite a different organization of learning opportunity (and obligation) than one that supplies teachers with measured increments in knowledge, skill, and judgment from a known pool of effective classroom practices.

The Policy Dilemma

Three assertions help to shape the policy problem. They are derived in part from studies that reveal the dominant configurations of professional development opportunity (Little, 1989, 1992b) and in part from emerging research and other commentary on the demands that multiple reform initiatives present to teachers (Fine, 1992, in press; Little, 1992a; Meier, 1992).

1. The well-tested models of skill development, built on the staff development and implementation-of-innovations literatures, will work reasonably well to introduce those aspects of reforms that are technical or that can be rendered as a repertoire of classroom practices. Among the possibilities generated by the five streams of reform, for example, are training programs in which outside experts or experienced colleagues introduce teachers to various models of cooperative learning, to the uses of manipulatives in mathematics instruction, or to methods for organizing portfolio assessment of students' work. On the basis of research into the conditions of teachers' skill transfer, the practices associated with skill training have demonstrated increasingly greater sophistication (e.g., Joyce, Murphy, Showers, & Murphy, 1989; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990). Effective training has come to be defined largely by its ability to provide adequate opportunities for practice and to provide for classroom consultation and coaching as teachers learn to use new ideas. All in all, then, we might make some substantial gains in some arenas if we more uniformly and

consistently made use of what we have learned about the organization of training and classroom follow-up.

2. However, much of what we anticipate in the present reforms does not lend itself to skill training because it is not readily expressed in terms of specific, transferable skills and practices. Rather, the present reforms require that persons in local situations grapple with what broad principles look like in practice. In Deborah Meier's terms, we are called upon to reinvent teaching and schooling, and to do so even while in the midst of day-to-day work (Meier, 1992). This aspect of reform calls not for training, but for adequate opportunity to learn (and investigate, experiment, consult, or evaluate) embedded in the routine organization of teachers' workday and work year. It requires the kinds of structures and cultures, both organizational and occupational, compatible with the image of "teacher as intellectual" (Giroux, 1988) rather than teacher as technician. And finally, it requires that teachers and others with whom they work enjoy the latitude to invent local solutions—to discover and develop practices that embody central values and principles, rather than to implement, adopt, or demonstrate practices thought to be universally effective. This assertion acknowledges both the uncertainty surrounding best practice and the complexity of local contexts.

3. Local patterns of resource allocation tend to favor the training model over alternative models. In the absence of a good fit between the nature of the reform task and the nature of professional development, schools and districts are nonetheless inclined to do *something* in the name of professional development (before the fiscal year ends, the state program expires, or the school board demands results). That something is likely to look very much like the existing menu of training options: workshop series, special courses, or in-service days devoted to transmitting some specific set of ideas, practices, or materials to teachers. For example, a decision to expand the available training in cooperative learning is readily defensible: The training is accessible as a well-tested program, and it has a plausible connection with efforts to improve classroom teaching. But such a decision is also problematic on two grounds. First, the investment in packaged programs of training tends to consume all or most of the available resources. The messier and more contentious forms of teachers' involvement required to examine existing practice and to invent new possibilities remain undersupported. Second, the training paradigm tends toward standardized solutions to the problem of best practice. The more ambiguous aspects of reform—what authentic assessment or integrated curricula might amount to, for example—are granted comparatively less attention.

So: We know how to do training well, and could profitably do more of it well; the training paradigm, no matter how well executed, will not enable us to realize the reform agendas; and resource allocations for professional development represent a relatively poor fit with the intellectual, organizational, and social requirements of the most ambitious reforms.

Professional Development Principles and Practices

As a basis for achieving a more compelling fit, we might seek strategies or mechanisms that embody principles consonant with the complexity of the reform task. This is not to say that these practices and principles will provide the smoothest path to the implementation of reform proposals or initiatives as they are presently charted; to take these principles seriously, for example, could prolong the implementation of state level curriculum frameworks.

Alternatives to the Training Model

Four alternatives to the training model rest on a common implicit claim: that the most promising forms of professional development engage teachers in the pursuit of genuine questions, problems, and curiosities, over time, in ways that leave a mark on perspectives, policy, and practice. They communicate a view of teachers not only as classroom experts, but also as productive and responsible members of a broader professional community and as persons embarked on a career that may span 30 years or more.

Teacher collaboratives and other networks

Subject-specific teacher collaboratives in mathematics, science, and the humanities have grown in size, visibility, and influence over the past decade. Lord (1991) locates the subject collaboratives within an alternative paradigm of professional development in which the vision of teachers' professional development encompasses "(a) teachers' knowledge of academic content, instruction, and student learning, (b) teachers' access to a broader network of professional relationships, and (c) teacher leadership in the reform of system-wide structures" (p. 3; see also Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992).

Two accounts suggest how subject collaboratives equip teachers individually and collectively to deepen their subject knowledge and to assume a more assertive role in the reform of curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment. The first is an account of Philadelphia's humanities collaborative (PATHS); the second centers on the mathematics collaborative PLUS, one of several subject matter collaboratives organized under the sponsorship of the Los Angeles Educational Partnership.

PATHS (Philadelphia Alliance for Teaching Humanities in the Schools) engages teachers directly in the modes of inquiry related to the various humanities disciplines. The project's aim to provide urban *students* a genuine curriculum in the humanities—not one that is watered down, dumbed down, or packaged—required a parallel experience for *teachers*. The former project director traces this decision about teachers' professional development in part to the general absence of humanities background in teachers' preservice preparation or subsequent studies:

> Most teachers hold degrees in education, psychology, and related technical fields; few have been trained as historians, scientists, philosophers. Even those who do hold liberal arts and science undergraduate degrees rarely continued their pursuit of these subjects as graduate students. Advancement in teaching depends on certifications and supervisory credentials, not on learning more about arts and science subjects. (Hodgson, 1986, p. 29)

The specific program formats employed by PATHS all place teachers in direct contact with the city's rich humanities collections and with the curators and other experts who acquire, maintain, and interpret them. Minigrants were organized to give greater incentives to collaborative work and to engage teachers with a broader array of material and human resources. "We stacked the deck quite unashamedly"—teachers could receive up to $300 for an individual classroom project, but up to $3,000 for collaborative work with other teachers, university people, museums, or libraries (p. 31). One example of a minigrant product is a slide show and teachers' guide on the Ars Medica exhibit for art, science, and social studies teachers: "All areas that can benefit from the show on the artistic images of disease and the medical arts through the centuries" (p. 31.). An outgrowth of the minigrant program is the 2-week summer institute "Good Books for Great Kids," designed to

> enlarge teachers' visions about literature to a much broader range of genres and subjects, and to teach them how to do a search of the literature in a variety of fields that would take them beyond whatever the salesmen from textbook publishers left on their desks. (Renyi, 1992)

Using the children's literature collections in the Rare Book Room of the Philadelphia Free Library and in similar collections, the teachers "did research in these collections and were trained to seek out books in their subject areas by children's librarians, children's literature specialists and special collections experts." At the end of 2 weeks, each teacher presented an oral defense of an annotated book list comprising trade books, library books, and special collections books; after the defense, the teacher received $500 to spend on trade books in the list and on trips to bring children to the special collections.

Colloquia sponsored by PATHS meet monthly throughout the year. In one, teachers working in Philadelphia's Rosenbach Museum and Library concentrated on manuscripts detailing how 20th century writers revised their work. This arrangement with the Rosenbach permits up to 25 teachers per month to study some aspect of the manuscript collection. The colloquia are over-

subscribed, although they offer neither credit nor stipends. Summer institutes in literature, history, and languages (which do offer graduate credit) also are conducted on-site where relevant collections are held. These institutes, like the colloquia, entail an altered set of relations between the schools and other institutions (museums, libraries) and between teachers and other experts. Through activities organized by PATHS, teachers were able to see how curators conducted their own work with primary materials, and to work with those materials themselves. They got behind the scenes in museums, libraries, and other archival collections. They came to know not only the materials, but the people who worked with (and interpreted) them. They were able to examine (and sometimes contest) one another's interpretations.

Hodgson remarks: "[Teachers] have been starved (a metaphor teachers themselves use) for serious stimuli, and they are immensely enthusiastic patrons of museum and library collections" (p. 32). When her account is read in juxtaposition with rather common accounts of "unmotivated," "reluctant," or "resistant" teachers, one is struck by marvelously contradictory images of teachers as intellectual beings. In PATHS, we have an oversubscribed colloquium series and avid participants in archival research, while in much of the professional development literature we find a portrait of teacher as troglodyte. Surely there is a lesson here.

In a second example, the Urban Mathematics Collaboratives in more than 15 major cities engage teachers with mathematicians in industry and higher education, with the combined aims of strengthening the caliber of math teaching and deepening teachers' commitment to all students (equity). The Urban Math Collaboratives have positioned themselves in support of the NCTM standards, though not without substantial discussion and debate, and have issued policy statements regarding equity, student assessment, and teacher professionalism (e.g., Urban Mathematics Collaboratives, n.d.).

In Los Angeles, the mathematics collaborative (PLUS) retains structural independence from the participating districts but secures a foothold in the school workplace by inviting departments rather than individual teachers to join. Observers highlight six aspects of the collaborative's strength: (a) a capacity for teacher support in subject matter teaching that exceeds that of the district or university, (b) a norm of informed and steady experimentation in mathematics teaching, (c) a system of mutual aid that compensates for uneven subject matter preparation among the district's secondary math teachers, (d) sustained involvement with a professional community of mathematicians and mathematics educators, (e) a connection to the classroom that is sustained by teachers' control over the content and format of the collaborative's activity, (f) a broadened conception of professional knowledge and involvement that engages teachers in discussion and debate over the nature of mathematics and mathematics teaching, and also engages them in policy deliberations surrounding math teaching at the local, state, and national levels (Little & McLaughlin, 1991).

Both of these collaboratives, together with various models based on the Bay Area Writing Project, underscore teachers' involvement in the *construction* and not mere *consumption* of subject matter teaching knowledge.[2] They constitute a challenge to intellectual and collegial passivity. Further, they prepare teachers to make informed responses to reforms in subject matter teaching and student assessment without being linked narrowly to specific reform proposals.

Subject matter associations

The place of teachers' professional associations remains nearly invisible in the mainstream professional development literature. We know little about the role played by the largest and most prominent subject matter associations (NCTE, NCTM, NSTA, and others) in the professional lives of teachers or in shaping teachers' disposition toward particular reforms. Although it is clear that the subject associations are exerting an increasingly powerful influence in the articulation of subject curriculum and assessment standards, we have virtually no record of the specific nature or extent of discussion and debate over subject matter reform. In what ways is the ordinary classroom teacher touched by an association's involvement in

state and national debate over standards? If we were to examine the agendas for state, regional, and national conferences held by these associations, what traces of reform would we encounter? How do elementary and secondary teachers experience the demands associated with subject-specific reforms? In what ways are the various subject matter reforms congruent or in conflict? (The Alliance for Curriculum Reform, sponsored by the Rockefeller Foundation, has begun to work with the major subject matter associations to trace the commonalities and differences in the reforms targeted at subject paradigms, subject-related pedagogies, curriculum policy, and assessment.)

Smaller, more informal regional associations have attracted even less policy research attention, yet may prove crucial in shaping teachers' responses to specific reform initiatives. The Curriculum Study Commission (CSC), a long-standing group of English educators spanning elementary, secondary, and higher education, provides a forum for pursuing a wide range of teaching interests linked to the subject discipline. Although the CSC gives serious attention to any reform with crucial implications for teachers' work, it reserves its support for those reforms shaped fundamentally by teachers—as some of the new frameworks, standards, and assessments have been (Wagner, 1991; see also Ellwood, 1992).

In each of these examples—the NCTM and the CSC—we find an instance of teachers' professional community that extends well beyond the school walls, fundamentally independent of the employing organization, but positioned to exert considerable influence on teachers' dispositions toward reform proposals. To the extent that an association's most active members also occupy leadership roles within their schools, districts, or collective bargaining units, the association's effect is multiplied.

Collaborations targeted at school reform

Professional development is one integral feature of some collaborations targeted to school reform. School-university collaborations exhibit something of a rocky history. As instruments of reform, and as sites for professional development, they have had difficulty overcoming long-standing asymmetries in status, power, and resources. As partnerships have evolved, they have moved toward greater parity in obligations, opportunities, and rewards. The Coalition of Essential Schools offers the image of the school "friend," the insider/outsider (generally affiliated with a university) who remains attached to the school to provide support and critique of school progress. The friend, in principle, is a resource to the collective, a way of expanding access to information and other resources. In the Stanford/Schools Collaborative, certain structural mechanisms help to introduce and sustain reciprocity. Governance arrangements achieve parity not only by formal provisions for equal representation, but also by operations that ensure widespread availability of important information (especially information about resources) and provisions for exercising influence in the distribution of resources. Separate planning committees for key program components or events expand representation in decision making. The committees are a distance-closing device that is particularly crucial to the school-based participants (who have greater numbers), reducing the organizational distance from any one teacher or administrator to a node in the decision-making net. To the extent that the structure of leadership spans groups and institutions, it helps to permeate organizational boundaries. Organizational boundaries are further blurred by the development of cross-institutional roles (for example, research activities designed and led jointly by teachers and professors, Professor in Residence in Schools opportunities, and the incorporation of classroom teachers as lecturers in the teacher education programs). However, these cross-institutional roles are still small in number, low in visibility, modest in institutional salience, and perhaps too dependent on individual will.

Various other partnerships employ new conceptions of the university-school relation in the service of particular reform agendas. Faculty from National-Louis University have entered into a partnership with the Chicago schools in support of various subject matter reforms. They express the basic problem this way: "For most elementary school teachers,

a very different type of instruction is described in the [Mathematics] Standards than they experienced as students." In mathematics, for example, "the professional development programs that our Best Practice leaders provide require teachers to become actively engaged in *doing mathematics*" (Chicago Project on Learning and Teaching, 1992, p. 6). The idea is to promote and provoke breakthroughs in conceptual understanding for the teachers by facilitating mathematical experiences rather than by teaching the teachers mathematical content or methods. A similar investigatory stance toward curriculum and instruction also distinguishes a partnership described by Marilyn Cochran-Smith and her colleagues at the University of Pennsylvania. University faculty, experienced and prospective teachers, and secondary school students in Philadelphia join in research on aspects of a multicultural society (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1992). In this instance, teachers' professional development is intricately interwoven with the daily life of the classroom—for example, as English teacher Bob Fecho (1992) engages his students in research into the relations between language and power.

Whether broadly conceived or more closely focused, these partnerships invite a reexamination of the traditionally privileged position of the university in relation to schools and of the asymmetries in the relations between professors and schoolteachers.

Special institutes and centers

Among the accounts that teachers offer when they are asked to describe favorable professional development experiences, certain stories stand out. They are those that describe participation in special institutes or centers—summer institutes sponsored by NSF, for example, where teachers enjoy sustained work with ideas, materials, and colleagues, or centers such as the University of California's Lawrence Hall of Science where every activity expresses a commitment to make mathematics and science more accessible, rich, and engaging for students, parents, and teachers. Judging by teachers' accounts, such institutes and centers offer substantive depth and focus, adequate time to grapple with ideas and materials, the sense of doing real work rather than being "talked at," and an opportunity to consult with colleagues and experts. Some are grounded in a conception of systemic reform, their influence magnified by mechanisms that sustain connections among participants (electronic networks) and by explicit attention to the local and state contexts surrounding subject matter reforms.

By comparison with the volume of studies directed at district-sponsored training or school improvement projects, there is virtually no body of work directed toward these institutes and centers as a vehicle for teachers' professional growth and colleagueship. On the basis of anecdotal evidence, two policy issues stand out. The first is one of scale. Special institutes and centers concentrate resources, representing a greater cost per participant and a more restricted access than more modest local ventures. The second and related matter is scope or purpose—in a climate of reform, how might participation by a relative few achieve a ripple effect among a larger number in local schools and districts? Some institute sponsors more than others extend their agendas in ways that address the realities of reform; they understand the problem of knowledge use in context. The relevant contexts include states, where graduation standards are set and curriculum frameworks promulgated. They include districts, where curriculum policy is specified and local priorities are expressed. And, most centrally, they include schools. It is a commonplace of the school workplace literature that schools are generally not organized to exert much influence on teaching practice, that collegial norms do not admit special claims to expertise, and that the social organization of daily work offers scant reason or opportunity for teachers to take much account of one another's interest in new ideas, materials, or methods (Bird & Little, 1986; Huberman, 1993). Some schools stand out as dramatic exceptions. They have been built through acts of leadership and organization, not legislated, mandated, regulated or coerced. The policy challenge is to enlarge their number.

Six Principles for Professional Development

The strategies of professional development described above embody, each to a greater or

lesser extent, certain principles that arguably stand up to the complexity of present reforms. Each principle represents a challenge to some aspect of present practice. Each is manifest in one or more of the alternatives to the conventional training model that are emerging in the context of present reform. Although stated as design principles—that is, in normative language—they are subject to the kinds of rigorous study and evaluation by which their consequences for teachers, students, and the nature of schooling might be demonstrated. Teachers' professional development might reasonably be tested against these principles:

1. Professional development offers meaningful intellectual, social, and emotional engagement with ideas, with materials, and with colleagues both in and out of teaching. This is an alternative to the shallow, fragmented content and the passive teacher roles observable in much implementation training. Teachers do not assume an active professional role simply by participating in a "hands-on" activity as part of a scripted workshop. This principle also acknowledges teachers' limited access to the intellectual resources of a community or a subject field. Thus, the subject matter collaboratives engage teachers in the study and doing of mathematics, enlarge teachers' access to mathematicians and mathematical ideas in university or industry settings, and establish mechanisms of consultation and support among teachers.

2. Professional development takes explicit account of the contexts of teaching and the experience of teachers. Focused study groups, teacher collaboratives, long-term partnerships, and similar modes of professional development afford teachers a means of locating new ideas in relation to their individual and institutional histories, practices, and circumstances. This principle thus challenges the context-independent or "one size fits all" mode of formal staff development that introduces largely standardized content to individuals whose teaching experience, expertise, and settings vary widely. The training and coaching model, which by its nature tends to *assume* the importance of its training content, grants only residual status to questions regarding the fit between new ideas and old habits, or between new ideas and present circumstances.

3. Professional development offers support for informed dissent. In the pursuit of good schools, consensus may prove to be an overstated virtue. Admittedly, deeply felt differences in value and belief can make agreements both difficult to achieve and unstable over time. At its extreme, dissent may engender a certain micropolitical paralysis (see Ball, 1987), while shared commitments may enable people to take bold action. Nonetheless, to permit or even foster principled dissent (e.g., by structuring devil's advocate roles and arguments) places a premium on the evaluation of alternatives and the close scrutiny of underlying assumptions. To do so may alter that dynamic by which dissenters come quickly to be labeled as "resisters." Although specific examples do not abound, one might expect that close collaborations and long-term inquiry-oriented partnerships provide more opportunity than do training experiences for the kind of principled and well-informed dissent that strengthens both group decisions and individual choices (e.g., Nemeth, 1989).

4. Professional development places classroom practice in the larger contexts of school practice and the educational careers of children. It is grounded in a big-picture perspective on the purposes and practices of schooling, providing teachers a means of seeing and acting upon the connections among students' experiences, teachers' classroom practice, and schoolwide structures and cultures. This is a challenge to a narrowly technological view of curriculum reform that depends heavily on the accumulation of specific technical skills, and to the tendency to treat teachers nearly exclusively as classroom decision makers independent of larger patterns of practice. It recalls Fullan's (1991) argument that reforms or innovations are simultaneously technical and social, and underscores the balance of obligations and opportunities in teachers' professional development. Partnerships and collaboratives to a large extent engage these multiple levels and aspects of reform; special institutes do so to some extent when they help prepare teachers to assume

leadership or assistance roles in their schools or districts.

5. Professional development prepares teachers (as well as students and their parents) to employ the techniques and perspectives of inquiry. Without denying that there are times when technical skill training is indeed appropriate, this principle anticipates a model based more persuasively on the pursuit of knowledge. It provides the possibility for teachers and others to interrogate their individual beliefs and the institutional patterns of practice. It acknowledges that the existing knowledge base is relatively slim and that our strength may derive less from teachers' willingness to *consume* research knowledge than from their capacity to *generate* knowledge and to *assess* the knowledge claimed by others. Those teacher consortia and partnerships centered most directly on teachers' research come closest to embodying this principle.

6. The governance of professional development ensures bureaucratic restraint and a balance between the interests of individuals and the interests of institutions. Despite some well-publicized exceptions such as the various subject matter collaboratives, the field is dominated by a district-subsidized marketplace of formal programs over which teachers exert little influence or in which they play few leadership roles. Further, few states or districts have any mechanism for evaluating the criteria on which resources are allocated; few have examined the ways in which the entire configuration of professional development obligations and opportunities communicate a view of schools, teachers, teaching, and teacher development. Evaluation and research, to the extent that they exist at all, tend to center on individual projects rather than on the policy import of whole patterns of resource allocation (for exceptions, see Little et al., 1987; Moore & Hyde, 1981; Schlechty et al., 1982). A principled view of resource allocation might more readily balance support for institutional initiatives with support for those initiated by teachers individually and collectively.

Comparison of the training model with various alternatives suggests that there are precedents worth preserving and dilemmas worth revealing. To start, it seems we must be willing to ask: Among the formal activities or agreements that make up the most common approaches to professional development, where does one find the most ambitious reflection of the six principles? Even among the alternatives described here, some principles are more clearly evident than others. Principles 3 (informed dissent) and 4 (the big picture or systemic view) prove most difficult to locate, though they are arguably central to professional development that is at once intellectually rigorous and socially responsible. What are the most challenging issues?

Emerging Issues

In the present reform context, three issues dominate policy considerations in the design of professional development:

1. The sheer complexity of the reform tasks being proposed, together with the relative absence of tested principles, policies, and practices; the contradictions across policies; and the propensity to seize upon early-stage experiments as models.

2. The problem of fit between the task of reform and the prevailing models of professional development—in particular, the dominance of a training paradigm built on knowledge consumption, and the lesser support for an inquiry and problem-solving paradigm built around knowledge production.

3. The relative inattention to teachers' opportunity to learn within the salaried workday and work year—an issue in the social organization of teachers' work in schools and their participation in a wider professional community.

The Complexity and Uneven Pace of Systemic Reform

Complexity and ambiguity are inherent features of the more ambitious reforms, making progress uneven and difficult to detect. The picture is complicated further by the internal contradictions of the reform movement itself, for example, in the competing views of schooling and teaching inherent in the basic skills reforms that still dominate urban reform versus the more ambitious outcomes embodied in the NCTM standards and in other reform initiatives that emphasize

higher order thinking. Confronted with complexities, ambiguities, and contradictions, individuals and institutions move forward in fits and starts. The professional development problem mirrors the larger problem of reform in several ways.

Limited grasp of possibilities

Asked to participate in the redesign of their work and workplace, participants at first invent a narrow range of responses or solutions. Michelle Fine, who chronicles the progress of Philadelphia's reform effort, says simply: "The categories people have in their heads are the categories people have in their heads" (Fine, 1992, p. 20). Inertia prevails, undergirded by established ideologies that explain and defend massive student failure (see also Fine, 1991). Such explanations "block any sense of possibility" (p. 22). Even among enthusiastic teachers, Fine observes, few could imagine a "sufficiently collective effort" to produce substantial improvements in student outcomes (p. 21).

Conventional forms of professional development and support grounded in training are poorly conceived to help people expand the possibilities for learning, teaching, and schooling. Rarely do they contend with fundamental debates and disagreements about the purposes of schooling, the relationships between teachers and students, and the obligations of teachers to a wider larger community. It seems unlikely that teachers' sense of possibility will be enlarged in the absence of expanded information, deeper discussion and debate, and a tolerance for public dispute over fundamental matters. After 3 years, Fine considers it progress in Philadelphia "that at least now people are fighting aloud" (p. 21).

Policy collisions and the legacy of past reforms

Most plans for systemic reform or restructuring underestimate the sustained impact of long-standing policy and practice. Teachers and administrators witness policy collisions between present reforms and their predecessors, many still reflected in statute, regulation, policy, and local habit. Darling-Hammond (1990) reminds us that "policies do not land in a vacuum; they land on top of other policies" (p. 346). She notes with respect to California's new curriculum frameworks: "Several previous policy initiatives stand out sharply as competing with the new reform" (p. 343). Among them she names the state's standardized testing system, "which values a type of mathematical knowledge and performance very different from the conceptions embodied in the new Framework" (p. 343). She goes on to argue:

> In several respects, policy accretion is a more difficult problem than the older problem bemoaned by reformers (which has not left us) of ingrained tradition. . . . This can create an Alice in Wonderland world in which people ultimately begin to nod blithely at the inevitability of incompatible events. (p. 344; see also Evertson & Murphy, in press)

Pressures for fast-paced implementation

Systemic change is also undermined when local and state leaders attempt to reduce conceptual and practical complexities in the interest of a fast-paced implementation. The California curriculum frameworks serve as one example of a complex policy instrument that is experienced in distilled form by classroom teachers. In her introduction to a series of case studies of the math framework implementation, Linda Darling-Hammond (1990) observes:

> The cases suggest that, at least from the vantage point of the teachers interviewed, the mathematics curriculum framework consisted of a 'statement' . . . and its transmission to them occurred when they were handed new textbooks, selected by the local administration after being approved by the state as compatible with the framework. (p. 342; see also Peterson, 1990)

The magnitude of the task

Observers remind us of the sheer difficulty of the reform task and the toll that it takes on people. The work of systemic reform is enormously difficult, frustrating, slow—and rewarding. Fine (1992) says once-discouraged teachers are "back" in droves but they must contend with powerful dilemmas. They experience the frustration of doing what is, while envisioning what could be—what Debbie Meier, principal at Central Park East (New York City), is famed for describing as changing

the tire on a moving car. A certain amount of "institutional schizophrenia" is generated around specific institutional routines—practices of student evaluation, for example. And the burden is felt especially by the front runners, the ones that Schlechty would call the "trail-blazers" (Cole & Schlechty, 1992). They "offend almost every vested interest, at some point" (Fine, 1992, p. 24).

Political will

The success of the trail-blazing individuals and institutions will rest ultimately on a crucial fund of political will. Whatever the shortcomings of the knowledge base on which reform stands, we can nonetheless assert that we have sufficient knowledge to move forward; we have "the knowledge, methods, assessment strategies to transform our classrooms into engaging, critical and creative sites of intellectual growth and personal development" (Fine, 1992, p. 30). What remains uncertain is whether we have the political will to employ our knowledge in the service of public (and particularly urban) education. Professional development, in this view, will prove fruitless if it fails to cultivate and sustain political will.

The available (though rare) accounts of large-scale restructuring efforts thus underscore the *systemic* character of reform and, correspondingly, the *collective* capacity needed to achieve and sustain it. But professional development practice remains, on the whole, highly individualistic. Rates of participation vary enormously, generating "radically different profiles of professional development for teachers with comparable experience and teaching assignments" (Lanier with Little, 1986, p. 548; also Arends, 1983). These differences appear to persist even in schools formally committed to reform initiatives.

A shift to school-based initiatives does not necessarily alter the variable pattern of individual practice. Schools associated with the Illinois Writing Project showed promising changes in language arts scores, but in the urban schools "typically less than half the teachers in each building attended the voluntary, after-school workshops" (Chicago Project on Learning and Teaching, 1992, p. 1). What we do not learn is why. Were teachers opposed to the assumptions and practices of the Writing Project? Unimpressed with the quality of the workshops, or already expert in the practices? Pressed by the demands of too many projects, or of too burdensome a teaching load? Committed to other activities that required time, thought, and energy? Not persuaded that participation would make a difference to the students they taught? Discouraged by failures of administrative leadership? Truly discouraged about teaching?

Here we have a tension between institutional imperatives and individual prerogatives, between the conditions necessary to attempt systemic change and the conditions that engage individual teachers in their work. At best, these are in harmony; at the least, we must learn the sources of conflict between them. We will be better served by knowing the grounds on which teachers choose to participate or not. As a context for professional development, reform movements place a premium on institutional perspectives. They may absorb all of the resources available for teachers' professional development, leaving little in the way of subsidy for individually inspired intellectual pursuits that may also, in quite different ways, make a difference to the character of schooling.

In any event, the complexities and tensions illustrated here are not resolved by any simplistic distinction between voluntary and mandatory occasions of professional development. More productive will be careful consideration of teachers' professional obligations and opportunities, of the balance and tension between individual latitude and collective endeavor, and of the resources and rewards devoted to each.

Problems of "Fit:" Professional Development Models and the Task of Reform

Without becoming preoccupied by barriers to reform, we might highlight five issues that states and localities confront in matching professional development to the challenges surrounding systemic reform.

Innovation on the margins

The training paradigm dominates the world of teachers' professional development. Short-term skill training workshops far outnumber teachers' study groups and well-con-

ceived teacher research. But the training paradigm has also come under assault: Critics charge that most training places teachers in passive roles as consumers of knowledge produced elsewhere, that the "workshop menu" is fragmented in content, form, and continuity—at precisely the time when teachers are confronted with the challenge of redesigning the way we do schooling (Little, 1989; Moore & Hyde, 1981).

Alternative approaches of the sort described above have gained the admiration of teachers, administrators, school boards, and state policymakers. Some, to be certain, have grown in stature and reach over the past decade. The history of the Bay Area Writing Project (BAWP) is a case in point; the BAWP model now guides a large number of local and regional projects in many states, and serves as the basis for comparable projects in math and science. It has attracted state and local district funding.

On the whole, however, innovative approaches to teachers' professional development—those that correspond most closely to the principles outlined above—remain small in scale and number. Most have been supported with private dollars (foundation and corporate funding) and have made relatively little impact on the configuration of publicly supported professional development. Partnerships have formed between individual activists in universities and schools or districts, or between individual consultants and schools, or between departments of education and local schools. In large institutions, however, multiple partnerships may operate in ignorance of one another's efforts or in pursuit of quite different or even conflicting goals.

Lord (1991) maintains that the subject matter collaboratives have "magnified the impact of local resources—both human and financial," but provides no detail (p. 1). Meanwhile, the risks associated with moving from the margins to the center are well known: teacher-centered programs such as the Bay Area Writing Project or the Los Angeles Educational Partnership's teacher networks risk bureaucratization when they are absorbed within district structures.

The limitations of packaged knowledge an standardized programs

Given the option, district and scho administrators say they will choose a wel packaged program of staff development (Li tle et al., 1987). Packaged programs have a understandable appeal. They are readily d fended, managed, and evaluated. Most di trict-sponsored staff development is oriente toward the acquisition of specific knowled and skill; assessing impact, though it is rare done, is relatively straightforward (especial if centered on changes in observable teach behavior).

Alternative approaches, by comparison are conceptually and pragmatically messie The main benefits that participants deri from teacher networks, study groups, curri ulum experiments, and the like may be mo broadly intellectual, motivational, and at tudinal. By acknowledging the importance teachers' intellectual curiosities and capac ties, and by crediting teachers' contributio to knowledge and practice, such approach may strengthen the enthusiasm teache bring to their work and the intellectual be they display in the classroom. Over the lo run, teachers who participate in experienc of this sort might be expected to show high rates of classroom innovation and to inspi greater enthusiasm for learning on the part their students. Nonetheless, appropriate co parisons with conventional staff developme are likely to prove very difficult. This is due part to differences in program aims, conter and format, and in part to the difficulty tracing the crucial longer term consequenc for individual teachers.

The proliferation of classroom- and scho based studies over the past 2 decades has f the organized professional development ma ketplace. "Research says" is a comm preface to many workshop presentations a exercises, serving as a warrant for reco mended practice. But "research says" b increasingly become a means for exercisi institutional authority rather than for infor ing teachers' judgments or framing their o inquiries. Teachers are typically less well p sitioned than district specialists or outsi consultants to invoke research (or challen it) as a warrant for action—they have l

routine access to sources of research, less time to read and evaluate it, and less familiarity with its arcane language.

What is inevitably hidden in the effort to translate research are all the ways in which the research findings conflict, or are limited by design flaws, or reflect particular conceptions of the phenomena under study. What is also missing is an invitation to teachers to act not only as consumers of research but also as critics and producers of research—to be participants in a more visible and consequential manner. An alternative to the formulation "research says," reads something like: "The way this question has been framed in most research is. . . . " Or: "There are three main approaches to this problem in research thus far. Here's what each has produced. . . . " These formulations leave open the possibility that the available research knowledge is incomplete and that there is room for discovery. They neither romanticize teachers' knowledge nor unduly privilege researchers' claims.[3]

The status of the knowledge base in support of systemic reform is uncertain. Some argue that the base is strong, others that it is more hortatory and ideological than it is theoretically coherent or empirically defensible. Advocates of reform argue that we know enough to make considerable difference in the ways that students experience school and the benefits they derive from schooling. Whatever the strength of that claim, it also seems certain none of the knowledge we assert will be adequate to account for the complexities of any specific context, and that there is no substitute for local invention and inquiry. These circumstances prompt various responses to the burgeoning teacher research movement (not the first such movement in this century). In recent symposia on the subject, debate revealed widely diverse and competing views about teachers' preparation to engage in research, the nature of research topics and methods, conventions associated with legitimation of research, and issues surrounding the political control of research agendas and products (see Hollingsworth & Sockett, in press).

Phillip Schlechty is fond of observing that we are still confined by unworkable conceptions of school and school improvement, much as if NASA had decided that we could get to the moon by funding improvements in the internal combustion engine.[4] In the allocation of professional development resources, we find a tremendous reliance on research-based solutions, on being able to give assurances of certainty. Our own voyage to the moon may require that we abandon our reliance on the present base of consumable research and expand our support for arrangements for teachers' involvement in the explication, invention, and evaluation of local practice.

The dominance of training over problem solving

States and local school districts have learned—in part, anyway—the lesson of the implementation problem and the importance of adequate local support. In the late 1970s, one could reasonably charge that "many . . . education reform efforts fell short primarily because planners seriously underestimated teacher training needs" (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1979, p. 69). An adequate supply of well-conceived training opportunities seemed a major contributor to implementation success. More than a decade later, we boast a more sophisticated understanding of the implementation problem, casting it as a complex interaction between external policy variables (clear statutes, effective authority, and the like) and the micro-contexts shaped by individuals' and groups' commitments, histories, and politics (McLaughlin, 1987, 1990; see also Ball, 1987). Our conception of implementation has evolved "from early notions of implementation as transmission or as a problem of incentives or authority to conceptions of implementation as bargaining and transformation" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 175). Looking back at the celebrated Rand Change Agent Study (1973–1978) from a vantage point of nearly 15 years, McLaughlin (1990) expresses a certain skepticism about the power of policy mandates, especially those that take the form of special projects aimed at "discrete elements of the education policy system" instead of embracing the systemic nature of problems and the systemic character of local practice (pp. 14–15).

But districts' strategies for reform, at least with regard to teachers' professional development, do not appear to capitalize fully on what we have learned about the importance and variability of local contexts and about the transformational nature of reform. In-service activities tend to be linked to special projects or to discrete components of reform and to embody a relatively traditional conception of classroom experience. The most sophisticated of these make some provision for follow-up in the form of classroom consultation and coaching.

The training-and-coaching strategy that dominates local professional development has much to recommend it when considered as a balanced part of a larger configuration, and when linked to those aspects of teaching that are properly rendered as transferable skills. But the training model is problematic. The content of much training communicates a view of teaching and learning that is at odds with present reform initiatives. It is not at all clear, for example, that any form of training is adequate to develop the substantive conversation that Newmann (1990) envisions (see also Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990). Nor is the content of training set against the content of local belief, practice, and policy in any meaningful and detailed way. In addition, principles of good training are frequently compromised in practice. In particular, schools and districts demonstrate far less capacity for classroom consultation and support than is required by the training and coaching model. Those persons typically designated as coaches or mentors are far outnumbered by their clientele of regular classroom teachers. They are further constrained by school workplace cultures that perpetuate a norm of privacy and constrain advice-giving (Little, 1990b). Finally, to attain results from the training/coaching model requires a consistency of purpose and a coordination of effort that is not the norm in many districts. Rather, districts parade a litany of short-term goals in their response to various state mandates and incentives, local constituencies, or the individual enthusiasms of superintendents, school board members, or others.

Having launched such criticisms, I want to reiterate that the skill training and coaching model to which so many districts seem wedded has demonstrated consistent results in those cases where training content can be represented as a repertoire of discrete practices, and where classroom performance is oriented toward specified student outcomes. At their best, local activities incorporate the wealth of research on effective training and support that we can trace to the various implementation of innovation studies and to studies of specific professional development ventures (Guskey, 1986; Romberg & Price, 1983; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Smylie, 1988; Sparks, 1986; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990). Nor are these remarks in any way meant to impugn the knowledge, skill, thoughtfulness, or good intentions of those persons designated by local districts as staff development specialists, coaches, mentors, and the like. Rather, the aim is to record the dominance of the training model, the possibilities it offers, and the constraints on its effectiveness.

Conceptions of cost or investment

Policymakers require a way of making sense of costs—or more persuasively, investments. This note centers on issues surrounding the allocation of discretionary resources—the monetary expenditures that typically come to mind when persons consider staff development budgets. Direct monetary expenditures includes only those costs directly and necessarily associated with program operations; these include staff salaries, workshop presenters, substitutes, and facilities. (For a broader conception of investment and its relation to policy considerations, see Little, 1992b and Stern, Gerritz, & Little, 1989.) One straightforward way to compare costs is to divide the direct monetary expenditure by the number of actual participants to arrive at a per participant cost. By this calculation, the per participant cost of some special projects may exceed $2,000.

How does this figure compare with the average per teacher investment in professional development? In relative cost terms, institutes and retreats are an expensive venture; ongoing local study groups and after-school workshops are not. The average per teacher investment of direct monetary expenditures in California in 1985–1986 (the

only year for which such estimates are available) was approximately $900 (Little et al., 1987). That is, the total annual professional development of the average California teacher was subsidized by approximately $900 in public monies over a single fiscal year. A program that invites 25 teachers to a retreat for 5 days will invest more than 1½ times the resources per participant in 3 to 5 days than local districts typically invest in an entire year of a teacher's professional development.

The "average teacher" figure is, of course, something of a fiction; resources are not distributed uniformly. Experimental programs typically invest higher amounts in smaller cadres of teachers. The most prominent example in California at present is the California Mentor Teacher Program, which allocates approximately $6,000 per year to each teacher selected as a mentor. The mentor program's per participant investment is thus nearly 7 times the average per teacher expenditure. (Two thirds of that allocation goes directly to the teacher as a stipend; the remaining one third is allocated to the district in support of the mentor's work). The program reflects an implicit policy wager: that concentrating resources on fewer than 5% of the state's teachers will yield benefit for the remaining 95% (see also Little, 1990b). The legislative intent attached to the mentor program outlines a set of obligations to beginning teachers, experienced teachers, and curriculum development; to the extent that mentors meet these obligations, they generate a ripple effect that lowers the per participant cost. That is, to the extent that the effects extend beyond the individuals who are the primary participants, the per teacher cost is appreciably lower than the per participant cost.

Investments beyond the ordinary (that is, narrow concentrations rather than broad distribution of resources) are more defensible if they can meet one of three criteria: (a) They can be credibly tied to a ripple effect (so that per teacher cost is demonstrably lower than per participant cost); (b) one can claim that the direct individual benefit of this specific program is far more certain than the benefit linked to conventional funding; or (c) the program contributes in demonstrable ways to increased organizational capacity in ways that transcend the impact on those individuals who participate directly in the program.

The state and other players

When we consider levels of policy intervention and influence, we quickly find the state and the district to be the most prominent players in defining and promoting reform and in sponsoring formal occasions of professional development. In the past decade, states have assumed greater prominence in shaping reform initiatives. This is not to say that state policy offers a coherent vision of the fit between teacher policy and various reform ventures (Little et al., 1987). Nor is it clear that state agencies and legislatures have given much consideration to the various possible forms that a state presence might take—though in some of the more policy-active states, such as Connecticut, Kentucky, California, and Oregon, the traditional impetus toward regulatory control is increasingly tempered by a role centered around the supplying of information and incentives for local experimentation.

On the whole, however, states and districts have been relatively slow to reshape professional development in ways that respond to the complexities and ambiguities of reform. Much reform legislation reflects a tension between incentives and control, between provisions that expand teachers' leadership opportunities (e.g., California's mentor teacher program) and provisions that tighten external controls over teaching and teachers (e.g., new credentialing requirements or curriculum standards). On the whole, the incentives are attached to small, voluntary, and peripheral activities, while the controls embrace the entire teacher work force and shape more central aspects of their work. In this asymmetry between support and control we may find some evidence of a pervasive skepticism among policymakers about teachers' capacities and motivations, and thus a certain reservation about professional development strategies that measurably expand teachers' collective autonomy.

Meanwhile, the responsibility and resources for teachers' professional development have for several decades (since the mid-sixties' federal social reform legislation)

resided primarily with districts—that is, with the employing organization.[5] The shift to the school site brings control over resources closer to the classroom and increases the possibility that content and context might be more closely joined. Altogether, the profoundly local character of much reform activity would seem to offer substantial opportunity to create and support alternative modes of professional development—those that enable local educators to do the hard work of reinventing schools and teaching. But there is no guarantee of that. If the established marketplace of training options fits poorly with the demands of reform, it nonetheless fits reasonably well with bureaucratic structures of accountability (by providing a record of participation). If a menu of workshops fits poorly with the long-term vision and capacity required by genuine reform, it responds well to the short-term incentive structure and resource allocation scheme. Finally, staff development at the local level, despite the pervasive rhetoric of change, serves in large part as a vehicle of organizational maintenance—a point worth remembering in the surge of interest toward reform (Schlechty & Whitford, 1983).

States and districts have emerged as the most visible and powerful players on the reform landscape. Less visible but potentially influential in achieving the fit between reform requirements and teachers' professional development are the various professional associations (teachers, administrators, other specialists, and school boards) and organizations representing business and industry. Foundations have been active in the support of various reform efforts, including those devoted to teachers' professional development, but it is only very recently that they have begun to join directly with states in pursuit of a reform agenda (Lagemann, 1992). Of particular interest and import is the increasingly powerful influence exerted by teachers' subject matter associations (perhaps most prominently, NCTM) in shaping reforms in curriculum, assessment, and standards for teacher certification. Yet the place of subject matter associations in the lives and careers of teachers, and especially in preparing them to engage meaningfully and productively in reform, remains largely unexamined in the research and policy literature; recent case studies of the various mathematics collaboratives may signal a shift (Lord, 1991; Salmon-Cox & Briars, 1989). On the whole, however, available evidence suggests a weak connection between those subject associations and the main providers of professional development (the districts, private vendors, and universities).

The disposition of the unions toward these major reform initiatives—and particularly any response they may have made in the form of teachers' professional development—is largely undocumented. In interviews with union leaders in 30 California districts, conducted in 1986 (Little et al., 1987), we found that most locals concentrated on constraining administrators' access to teachers' time for purposes of school- or district-initiated staff development. We found no examples of a more affirmative or proactive involvement in substantive programs of teacher development although some promising exceptions have emerged since that study was completed, for example, in the form of the policy trust agreement projects established in California (Koppich & Kerchner, 1990). Nor do we know much about the relative salience of the union compared with other sources in shaping teachers' response to or involvement in reform initiatives (Bascia, 1992). One is struck by some countervailing currents. First, the unions have responded to escalating pressure to balance a concern with personnel issues (compensation and other conditions of employment) with responsible attention to matters surrounding professional practice. Second, the unions have become more frequent and prominent players in shaping the reforms in teaching at the state or national level—most often those having to do with the preparation and licensure of teachers. Their involvement at the local level is less clear, and certainly more uneven. Among the issues most germane to the major reforms discussed here are perceived constraints on teacher autonomy with regard to curriculum and instruction, and challenges to the deep-rooted egalitarianism of teachers that arise in various career ladder and mentorship schemes.

We thus have multiple players and multiple levels of policy and practice. Two major questions seem germane. First, what fit between reform and professional development is best achieved at each level or niche in the policy system, and through what policy mechanism? To what extent does policy making in each arena rely on regulation or persuasion? Second, in what ways and to what extent are the various policy orientations congruent or in conflict? For example, university faculty have maintained an avid interest in the development of state curriculum frameworks—yet university admission requirements have also been said to exert a "chilling effect" on innovation in the K–12 curriculum (Grubb, personal communication, 1992). That is, colleges and universities may simultaneously foster and impede reform. At the local level, a district's interest in comprehensive restructuring may operate to displace small, vital pockets of initiative by teachers in individual schools.

The School Workplace and Teachers' Opportunity to Learn

Concentration on formal programs of professional development tends to obscure issues of obligation, incentive, and opportunity in the salaried workday and work year. Investigation of teachers' instructional assignments, ratio of in-class to out-of-class time, and school-level affiliations (departments, grade levels, friendship nets) provides us both with a perspective on *motivation or pressure to learn* and with a description of those *opportunities to learn* that are embedded in the social organization of schools (Little, 1990a; see also Glidewell, Tucker, Todt, & Cox, 1983; Hargreaves, 1990; Smylie, in press).

Teachers' central reasons and opportunities for professional development begin with the teaching assignments they acquire, the allocation of discretionary time, and other work conditions encountered day by day. They begin, that is, with a teacher's experience of what it is to teach and to be a teacher—in general, and in particular circumstances. To some large degree, it is only in relation to the daily experience of teaching that one can anticipate the contributions of more structured opportunities that range from independent reading to formal course work, conference attendance, skill training workshops, leaves or sabbaticals, participation in committees or special projects, and scheduled consultation with colleagues.

Reform movements tend to orient us toward an institutional (and largely functionalist) perspective. By this perspective, the schools' capacity for supporting the professional development of teachers is expressed in a system of obligations, opportunities, and rewards. Teachers' obligations for professional preparation and development reside formally in certification and recertification requirements, teacher evaluation standards, and other personnel policies and practices. They are communicated informally by institutional norms regarding teachers' performance.

In according precedence to the institutional and collective view, however, the language of reform underestimates the intricate ways in which individual and institutional lives are interwoven. It underexamines the points at which certain organizational interests of schools and occupational interests of teachers may collide. Critics of reform movements stress the tendency to "de-skill" teaching and a corresponding tendency to legitimate institutional surveillance and coercion under the rubric of "vision" and "instructional leadership" (Carlson, 1992; Hargreaves, 1992). Carlson describes the principled opposition mounted by a teachers' association to the "specter of standardization" they detected in basic skills reforms built around programmed materials, prearranged objectives, and batteries of standardized tests (p. 113). Smylie and Smart (1990), examining sources of support for and opposition to merit pay and career ladders, note that "the primary beliefs and assumptions that guide the development of relationships among teachers include norms of independence and professional equality" and find it naive to suppose that such programs will generate widespread support unless they resolve "social and normative incongruities" (pp. 152, 153). Each of these cases is consistent with the observation that members of an occupational community may find that "what

is deviant organizationally may be occupationally correct (and vice versa)" (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984, p. 291).

As the arena in which teaching traditions and reform imperatives confront one another most directly and concretely, the school workplace is both the most crucial and the most complex of domains in which we play out the possibilities for teachers' professional development. Teachers' motivations, incentives, and frustrations come foremost from the immediacy and complexity of the classroom: teachers' responses to the students they teach and the circumstances in which they teach them. Idiosyncratic classroom realities may take precedence over broader institutional interests, leading teachers to protect a "strategic" or "elective individualism" (Hargreaves, 1993; see also Flinders, 1988). The impetus to protect one's autonomy may be intensified by various circumstances surrounding collegial and institutional life—the norms underlying peer acceptance and admiration, and the fabric of relations between teachers and administrators. The Academics and Coaches who make up the dominant cliques in Bruckerhoff's (1991) social studies department at Truman High express quite different teaching priorities, but they have in common their selective resistance to administrative pressures. Clearly, taking the workplace seriously requires more than shifting staff development resources and activities to the school site.

Conclusion

Five streams of reform present a challenge of considerable complexity, scope, and ambiguity. Yet the present pattern of professional development activity reflects an uneven fit with the aspirations and challenges of present reform initiatives in subject matter teaching, equity, assessment, school organization, and the professionalization of teaching. Much staff development or in-service communicates a relatively impoverished view of teachers, teaching, and teacher development. Compared with the complexity, subtlety, and uncertainties of the classroom, professional development is often a remarkably low-intensity enterprise. It requires little in the way of intellectual struggle or emotional engagement and takes only superficial account of teachers' histories or circumstances. Compared with the complexity and ambiguity of the most ambitious reforms, professional development is too often substantively weak and politically marginal.

Professional development must be constructed in ways that deepen the discussion, open up the debates, and enrich the array of possibilities for action. Ground for optimism resides in those innovations on the margin that embody principles consonant with the complexity of the reform task and with the capacities and commitments of a strong teacher work force.

Notes

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[1]Such descriptions may be in the making. For example, see Fine (in press), Evertson and Murphy (in press), and Murphy (1991).

[2]Throughout these examples are references to teachers' own research and to teachers as researchers. In some important respects, teachers' expanding presence as a distinct community of educational researchers has taken on the character of a movement. Teachers' research—as an intellectual and political enterprise—has been the focus of recent AERA symposia, the subject of a forthcoming NSSE volume (Hollingsworth & Sockett, in press), and a means for investigating the nature of professional community among teachers (Threatt et al., in press).

[3]On the problems of the former, see Buchmann, 1990, and for an example of a challenge to researchers' privileged standing in the reform discourse, see Nespor and Barber, 1991.

[4]I have recalled this example from various speeches, but Schlechty (1990) elaborates the basic argument.

[5]The steady shift away from participation in university course work and toward district-centered activity can be attributed only in part to changes in the age distribution of the teacher work force. Over the past 2 decades, formal staff development has become district business, conducted largely by specialists located in a district's central office (Moore & Hyde, 1981). Teachers are more likely to choose from a menu of district-sponsored

workshops than they are to receive release time or other individual subsidies to attend conferences hosted by subject area associations or institutes sponsored by universities (Little et al., 1987).

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Seductive Images and Organizational Realities in Professional Development

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This article is an exercise in healthy skepticism. Findings on effective staff-development programs, reported with some enthusiasm and confidence,[1] have been subjected to a closer look. The enthusiasm survives; the confidence has been tempered.

Studies of effective professional-development programs have proliferated in recent years, spawning a host of compelling images: collaboration, cooperation, partnership, mutual adaptation or accomplishment, collegiality, and interactive development among them.[2] Such images are seductive, creating a vision of professional work and professional relations at once intellectually stimulating, educationally rigorous, and professionally rewarding. On closer examination, however, conditions that are powerful enough to introduce new ideas and practices in classrooms and to sustain "collegial" relations among teachers require a degree of organization, energy, skill, and endurance often underestimated in summary reports. A closer look reveals the challenges of organization and leadership and uncovers the strains that accompany (and perhaps yield) the triumphs.[3]

This article is adapted from "Designs, Contexts and Consequences in the Real World of Staff Development," a paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 1984. The work on which this article is based was supported by contract no. 400-79-0049 from the National Institute of Education to the Center for Action Research, Inc., Boulder, Colorado. The views reflected herein do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Institute of Education, and no official endorsement should be inferred. This article draws on interview and observation data collected in three elementary and three secondary schools in a large urban school district. The study was conducted in collaboration with the district's Office of Staff Development. Schools were selected on a combination of success criteria and involvement in district-sponsored staff development. Taped interviews, informal conversations, and direct observations were conducted with more than one hundred teachers, all administrators and all (assigned) district staff developers.

TWO PROGRAMS: A TALE OF TORTOISE AND HARE

A comparison of two staff-development programs illustrates the organization, initiative, and skill required to achieve collaborative, rigorous programs of effective professional development. The two programs had certain characteristics in common. Both were designed with care, thought, and imagination by the same district specialists, all of whom had reputations as masterful classroom teachers. Both programs began with a focus on ideas derived from research on effective teaching that were considered to be worth testing in practice. (Basically the programs combined principles of mastery learning and interactive teaching, with an element of proactive classroom management.) Both programs were introduced by well-conceived and well-conducted training sessions in which staff developers themselves employed the practices they expected teachers to use. Both provided teachers with a notebook of reference materials that paralleled the training sessions. Both required participation by faculty groups or teams and both provided time during training for group discussion, planning, and problem solving. Finally, both programs received enthusiastic evaluations from participants.

Three years after the programs were launched, one had produced widespread implementation of new practices, renewed professional commitment among experienced teachers, enduring habits of professional development in participating schools, and changes in the routine organization of school life ranging from time schedules to job postings. The other program continued to get good marks from its participants long after they had *ceased* to think about the ideas to which they were introduced or to use the recommended classroom practices. As an in-service program, the latter program was better than most in the eyes of teachers. As a meaningful contributor to a professional repertoire, it was virtually inconsequential. The similarities in the two programs are substantial, but the differences are critical and merit close attention (see Figure 1).

COLLECTIVE PARTICIPATION: WHAT'S A GROUP FOR?

Acting on the premise that influential programs of staff development require the interest and participation of a "critical mass" of staff, designers of both programs set a criterion level for school participation: one-third of a secondary school faculty and three-quarters of an elementary faculty. In the less successful program, teachers were asked to participate in *training* as a group. In the more successful one, teachers and principals were asked to participate in *training and implementation* as a group; in effect, the school staff made a commitment to work with the district in a test of promising ideas that involved training as one of several activities. Teachers at one elementary school placed considerable weight on their collective commitment to the pilot program in accounting for its success:

Figure 1. Designs and Consequences in Two Professional Development Programs

Program Characteristics	"Pull-out" Program with Classroom Follow-up	Long-term School-based Pilot Program
Designs:		
Focus	"Mastery learning" and interactive teaching	"Mastery learning" and interactive teaching
Skills Training	Training modeled expected practices, supplied clear materials, provided for group discussion	Training modeled recommended practices, supplied clear materials, provided "application" time each session
Collective Participation	School-based groups recruited for training only	School-based groups recruited for training and implementation
Collaboration	Trainers receptive to teachers' suggestions for revising training	Invitational process for site selection, collegial team work for implementation. Staff developers and teachers discover together how to implement ideas in practice
Time	Five-day and eight-day training cycles, with one or two classroom visits	Three-year commitment; weekly in-service and curriculum planning sessions
Leadership	Principals agree to teacher release time	Principals take direct, active leadership role in implementation
Consequences:		
Evaluation of training	Positive	Positive
Implementation	Low, uneven	High

> I think that it would be a disadvantage not to have the whole school behind the project. . . . I don't see how a few people . . . in one school can have much impact on the whole school. (Teacher)

Admitting that there were some variations in interest and enthusiasm, the participants describe a situation in which persons have some latitude to recruit others in the name of professional growth and school improvement.

> I'm not enough of a dreamer to think you're going to get a whole faculty behind something without a little coercion, a little polite coercion. And if you don't do that you don't ever have any growth in your faculty. (Teacher)

The argument can be made, of course, that professional growth is principally a matter of individual preference and skill, and that school improvement is the cumulative effect of many individual efforts. Certainly that is an argument advanced by many teachers, backed by their own stories of learning to teach through a combination of trial and error, luck and persistence. Teachers in all six schools described their isolated experiments with ideas "picked up" in classes, from reading, from other teachers, or by dint of their own imagination.

Nonetheless, teachers' accounts and our observations also suggest some limits to that argument. First, teachers have few opportunities to watch each other at work, and tend to form impressions of each other's competence from students' comments and from casual glances through classroom doorways. The criterion for "good teaching" is often no more than the sense that things are "going well" in the classroom. If trying a new approach requires a disruption in established routines, if it will thereby create the appearance of floundering and place teachers at risk of being judged negatively by colleagues, teachers may be less likely to make the attempt. The more complex and unfamiliar a practice, and the greater a departure it requires from past practice, the more likely it is that teachers will indeed struggle with it. Teachers in one school reported that "it's hard to keep a theory in your head" when embroiled in the day-to-day press of classroom life, even if one admires the theory and wants to test it in practice. A group of implementers may offer a combination of technical advice (problem solving), moral support, and tolerance for mistakes.

Second, new practices may require time-consuming study and preparation even before they can be tested in the classroom. A teacher left to rely on individual preference and skill many reasonably choose to avoid a new practice rather than take the chance that a substantial investment of time and thought will not pan out. If the experiences in these schools serve as evidence, practices that have resulted in greater student achievement and classroom order have required precisely that kind of extensive thought and preparation; without denying the attractiveness and occasional utility of "tricks," "little hints," and ready-made materials, these teachers trace their most impressive accomplishments to more complex undertakings that stretched the limits of their knowledge and experience. Collective participation on some scale (even four members of a single department or two-person grade level teams) eased the burden. Teachers describe group discussions of ideas, shared work in preparing written materials and designing lessons, and collaborative review of progress.

Finally, some practices that teachers have found to be effective over time may show those effects only when used on a large enough scale to alter the entire pattern of teaching and learning in a building; sporadic, isolated attempts in individual classrooms may seem not to "work" when they simply have not been tested on a scale large enough for their virtues to become evident.

Practices of this sort are beyond the power of a single teacher either to sustain or to alter; they draw their influence from collective participation.

COLLABORATION: THE INTERACTION OF PEOPLE AND IDEAS

Three provisions for collaboration among staff developers, principals, and teachers helped to ensure that a collection of bodies would become a group whose members shared equally in the obligations and the risks, invested equally in the hard work of applying ideas in practice, and were credited equally with the accomplishment.

A Four-stage Negotiation with Pilot Schools

In preparing for a pilot program, district personnel constructed a four-step negotiation with schools to ensure clear agreement that the ideas were promising and plausible (worth implementing), that teachers would implement the ideas collectively over a long enough period to see effects, and that a working partnership would be forged among teachers, principal, and district personnel. The terms of participation in the project reflected certain "working hypotheses" on the part of staff developers about the conditions (time, collective support) required to understand, test, and institutionalize ideas that were both unfamiliar and complex.

In a first step, the program's designer and coordinator presented the project in broad outline to a meeting of all elementary school principals, with an invitation to declare interest. Principals who were interested on the basis of that first presentation were invited to a second meeting, where the terms of participation were elaborated further. One condition was an agreement by principals to participate in training and eventually to displace the district consultant as instructor and resource person in the building. That provision was designed to improve the prospects that any changes in teaching practice would endure; it nevertheless had the effect of narrowing the field drastically.[4]

> Well, as I remember, when we met with the coordinator four years ago and she talked about this, she mentioned the fact that when the principal gets involved, it isn't just a matter of sitting through the in-service with the faculty and participating that way. Your involvement had to be a lot deeper and . . . there was lot of training and background that went into it, even, before you began working with the faculty. . . . There were a number of principals that showed an interest until she made that statement and then it kind of cleared the field, really and truly. She was looking for five schools and she almost didn't get five schools because there were not five people who were willing. Because she was very, very clear about the amount of time it was going to take. As I look back on that first year, it did. (Principal, Westlake Elementary)

A third step required the principal to confirm agreement with at least 75 percent of the faculty before committing the school to participation. Teachers and principal at one elementary school trace their decision to participate to a combination of the principal's stand on the program and the faculty's own disposition to explore promising new ideas:

> I told the faculty that I'm willing to be involved if you are. I'm willing to spend the time, I'm willing to commit myself. (Principal)

> Four years ago, when we were deciding about this, the whole staff sat down and talked about it. It was put to a vote. . . . We voted as a faculty and it's been great. Not everyone goes along wholeheartedly but everyone would have to admit they've learned something. (Teacher)

In a fourth step, entire faculties of the proposed pilot schools met to hear a description by district personnel of what would be expected over the three-year tenure of the program:

> We had an opportunity . . . the five schools that were selected had an opportunity to meet one entire afternoon with the coordinator. And she discussed with them in detail the proposal, the amount of time and commitment that it would take. And they had a chance again at that time, at that point, if they wanted to, to withdraw. And there was one school that did withdraw . . . because they didn't have the support of the faculty. (Principal)

As might be expected, no negotiation procedure, no matter how stringent, is sufficient to anticipate the actual time required, the actual dilemmas faced, the nature and pace of observable progress. Still, the original negotiation forestalled the kind of resistance or indifference that might have emerged had the district left the terms of participation unclear in the hopes of attracting schools more readily.

The persuasiveness of this negotiation rests on shared agreements (clarity) of three sorts: agreement about the promise of the program ideas, agreement on the nature of the roles and relationships required of teachers and principals, and the adequacy of the description to reflect an actual sequence of implementation. For the mastery learning project, the ideas were powerful enough on their face to attract nearly half the elementary school principals. The role envisioned for principals, however, was apparently enough of a departure from the role that was being then enacted by most principals to discourage their participation. Good intentions and "receptivity" apart, teachers and principals may resist program opportunities that represent radical departures from their view of what being a teacher or being a principal permits or requires.

Professional Relations

At stake in staff development are basic rights to the description, analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of classroom practice. Teachers' favorable and unfavorable judgments about staff development revolve precisely around the issue of teachers' rights to propose or share in such analyses and around their obligation to accept the analyses (and advice) of others. The salient point here is not whether a description is recognizable (i.e., demonstrates familiarity with the real world of classrooms), or an analysis accurate or plausible, or particular advice pleasing to the teacher. Those are separate, if important, matters. The point here is whether the interaction called "staff development" is conducted in ways that are properly reciprocal, calling for shared aims and collaborative effort among fellow professionals.

In this program, teachers and staff developers alike found their views mutually valued, sought, credited, and tested. The issue for teachers and for programs of staff development is how such reciprocity was established as the basis for shared work, and was confirmed in the course of routine interaction. Several contributors seem likely.

First, all parties were explicitly invited to act as knowledgeable contributors. The district consultant was expected to combine classroom experience with "theory" to provide an initial introduction to new ideas, and to advise teachers as they prepared curriculum units and materials. Teachers were expected to contribute knowledge gained from close observation of present practice and from efforts to apply new ideas to actual classroom situations. The principal was expected to contribute knowledge gained from observation of classroom practice and from additional readings of theory and research. Working as a group, they discovered and resolved the problems of instrumentality, congruence, and "cost" that Doyle and Ponder[5] and others have associated with teachers' decisions whether to introduce new principles and practices into the classroom.[6] The task was sufficiently complex to make collaboration sensible and fruitful.[7]

Program implementation became an enterprise in which teachers, principals, and staff developers discovered what it meant to move from general ideas on paper to specific applications in classrooms. Over time, the ideas evolved and took shape in numerous concrete ways in an instance of what Bird (in his article in this issue) characterizes as "mutual accomplishment."

Thus, collaborative arrangements between staff development and schools offer the opportunity to demonstrate reciprocity among fellow professionals, to develop clearly known and shared aims, and to establish trust by building a history of predictable performance.

Second, time for shared work was allotted in the weekly schedule. The district consultant visited the school at least once a week. Periods of "instruction" were structured to introduce new elements of theory; to permit

questions, comments, observations, and problems raised by teachers; and to organize a period of group work to connect theory to practice. Knowing that the principal was devoting yet another morning each week to studying with other principals, teachers willingly spent additional afternoons after school working on materials.

Third, decisions about the focus and scale of curriculum units emerged out of teachers' analysis of core topics and critical skills at each grade level.

Finally, criteria for classroom observation emerged out of the shared discussion of theory and practice, were agreed upon in advance, and were specified at a level of detail that made all parties comfortable about what might be important to notice. Observers used anecdotal records to capture as faithfully as possible all that was said by teachers and students; these notes served as evidence around which teachers and principal or consultant would organize conference discussions. Support for implementation included an element of what has since come to be termed "coaching."[8]

Time

Learning to teach is, according to one teacher, like learning to play a musical instrument. Beyond the wish to make music, it takes time, a grasp of essential patterns, much practice, tolerance for mistakes, and a way of marking progress along the way. In the more successful of the two programs, a major contributor was the organization of time. While the less successful program relied on a "pullout" training session of several days, followed by one or two classroom visits, the more successful program organized before-school sessions every Wednesday morning for more than two years. Each session consisted partly of new material introduced by the resource consultant, the principal, or—in later stages—teachers, followed by group work on curriculum in grade-level teams. *Frequency* of involvement was high: the sheer number of opportunities that teachers had to work on ideas and their application in classrooms. Extended *duration* provided for gradual and incremental command over a set of ideas and cumulative discovery of the ways that they could he applied in classrooms:

> Whenever a basic idea was presented, people would ask, "Now, how are we going to apply this?" (Teacher)

The first six months, according to teachers, were slow and clumsy on all sides. Teachers were uncertain of how to make sense of what they were hearing; staff developers and principals were learning from and with teachers which advice was sound and which was off the mark. Teachers commented:

> You couldn't do it otherwise. . . . You have to get far enough into it to see the advantage.

> Units were horrendous headaches to prepare at first. Everyone was new. . . . It was a little easier in the second year and even easier in the third.
>
> It's difficult at first because it's complex.
>
> We spent the first year proving it to ourselves. It took a while . . . not that they moved too fast but that it was all new material.
>
> Give yourself time to see it work. You'll be frustrated at first because it will seem overwhelming. If you'll go step by step and give it at least six months, give it a chance and don't take shortcuts . . . then you'll be convinced.

Such comments, together with other observations of both programs, call into question approaches characterized as "minimal intervention," even when supported by well-designed materials and thoughtfully conducted training sessions.[9]

PROJECT LEADERSHIP AND THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE

The crucial role of building principals was acknowledged by both programs. Principals were approached first for discussions of the underlying ideas, and their cooperation was sought in recruiting interested faculty members. In only one of the two programs, however, were the principals explicitly required to assume a more direct leadership role in regard to the project, and supported in doing so. In the pilot, principals were expected to learn the theory and practice of mastery learning. They attended weekly in-service sessions conducted by the district consultant. These weekly sessions, as described by teachers and principals, served several purposes. First, the principal became increasingly knowledgeable about a specific set of concepts and practices. Because he was knowledgeable, he was a fair and helpful judge of classroom instruction. He was able to recognize progress in teachers' efforts to implement new ideas, and was a reasonable judge of requests for materials, released time, or other assistance. In the words of one teacher: "The principal has been the mainstay here—he knows the program and can answer teachers' questions."

Acting as a resource person to teachers over a three-year period, the principal:

> Attended in-service sessions and read relevant materials that equipped him to assist teachers in implementing the recommended ideas and methods.
>
> Conducted in-service sessions for teachers in a fashion that combined theory, research, and practice.
>
> Gave advice on curriculum units and ideas for course materials.

> Observed in classrooms often enough to make feedback useful and to recognize and credit teachers' accomplishments.
>
> Spent time in a weekly workshop conducted by teachers.

From the point of view of one elementary school principal, direct involvement in the program exemplified a shift from a "gatekeeper" stance to a "change-agent" stance; he attributed the change in part to his reading of the results of the Rand Corporation's "change-agent" study.[10] In the five years prior to the pilot project, this principal increasingly engaged in actions that could be viewed as assisting or promoting change (rather than merely permitting or approving it). The gradual development of that role is reflected in Figure 2. In secondary schools, school size and curriculum complexity may make this scale of direct involvement difficult; principals are confronted with establishing a structure of leadership in which selected teachers, as department heads or team leaders, can take the initiative in matters of curriculum and instruction.[11]

CONCLUSIONS, DILEMMAS, AND CHALLENGES

On the evidence, some strategies more than others appeared promising over a range of relevant goals (improvement of teachers' competence, confidence, and commitment; implementation of school-based improvements in instruction or curriculum; balancing the need for stability against the demand for change; and the like). Researchers concluded that staff development is most influential where it: (1) ensures collaboration adequate to produce shared understanding, shared investment, thoughtful development, and the fair, rigorous test of selected ideas; (2) requires collective participation in training *and* implementation; (3) is focused on crucial problems of curriculum and instruction; (4) is conducted often enough and long enough to ensure progressive gains in knowledge, skill, and confidence; and (5) is congruent with and contributes to professional habits and norms described elsewhere as norms of collegiality and experimentation.[12]

Together, these program elements constitute a set of design characteristics. These are complex conditions; each contributing factor also poses certain dilemmas for those who design, conduct, and participate in such efforts. Some of the dilemmas associated with program elements have been displayed in Figure 3. Others, associated with the place of such programs in district initiatives, include these:

Staffing

The successful program required a disproportionate concentration of staff resources on a five-school pilot program. Although the budget for the program was hardly exhorbitant ($40,000 in federal funds during the year of

Continued on page 41

Figure 2. An Emerging Role of Principal in Staff Development

Time Period	Nature of Principal's Behavior	Role "Image"
1960s	"Coordination" of Title I projects —approve ideas —proposal preparation —negotiation of funds —general supervision of project directors	Principal as "gatekeeper"
1973–1974	Participant in collective in-service in response to state legislation —approve ideas —prepare proposal —participate in (sit in on) teacher training	
1974–1975	Participant in in-service; observer of teachers CARE program —approve idea —approve teacher release time —sit in on teacher training —attend principal training —observe teachers in classroom —hold conferences with teachers	
1975–1976	Precision teaching —approve teacher-initiated idea —approve released time for team of teachers —encourage trained teachers to train others —sit in on training ("sharing") session conducted by returning teachers	
1976–1980	Mastery learning: instructor/consultant/ "resource person" —approve and promote idea —seek group commitment to in-service —attend principal training —attend teacher training —conduct teacher training —attend teacher-conducted training as participant —observe and critique classroom performance —rearrange schedules to permit joint work among teachers —arrange released time for teachers —report relevant research to teachers —encourage teachers to serve as consultants to other schools	Principal as change agent

Adapted from J. W. Little, *School Success and Staff Development* (Boulder, Colo.: Center for Action Research, Inc., 1981), Appendix A, p. 40.

Figure 3. Dimensions of Influential Staff Development

DIMENSIONS	CONTRIBUTIONS	DILEMMAS
FOCUS	Permits concreteness and "practicality" that in turn permit useful assistance	Practicality may win out over relevance or defensibility
	Contributes to a shared language for describing, analyzing, and refining teaching practices	Guiding principles may be compromised too casually in the search for practical "adaptations"
	Permits teachers or schools to try out a set of ideas on a large enough scale, with enough concentrated effort, to test their effects	Choice of promising focus may be limited by ambiguous or conflicting research, by prevailing district priorities or circumstances, by existing patterns of practice
	Permits more rigorous evaluation of the relative influence of staff development	Good ideas may go unmatched by powerful program or evaluation design, leading people to say, "We tried it and it didn't work."
ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION Model in training the practices you expect teachers or principals to use on the job	Increased credibility of claims that the ideas are effective and practical	Persons will not notice modeling unless it is explicitly stated
	Increased confidence through experience and observation	A performance that is too smooth and polished may discourage persons and may erode rather than build confidence
	Participants offer more thoughtful and precise evaluations of training	All aspects of intended practice must be modeled—demands for preparation time, skill, imagination, and good will

Figure 3. Dimensions of Influential Staff Development (*continued*)

DIMENSIONS	CONTRIBUTIONS	DILEMMAS
Introduce new ideas in sequence Demonstrate, illustrate what ideas look like in practice Provide opportunities for actual practice Provide feedback on performance	Cumulative, progressive command over new ideas and practices; increased willingness to try new ideas in practice	Time constraints, and the temptation to "cover" more than can be mastered through practice in a single session The prevailing view that how one teaches is a matter of "just style" Overcoming the relative isolation of the day-to-day work situation, in which exposing one's ideas and practices to others is rare and "threatening"
TIME		
Frequency	Greater command and confidence with more opportunities to discuss, practice, observe, reflect	If not seen as useful, more contact likely to erode commitment rather than build it
Duration	Opportunity for progressive gains over time—cumulative, incremental increases in knowledge, skill, and confidence	Effect relies on increasing expectations over time—escalating stringency and comprehensiveness Problems of bringing new people in as experienced innovators gain understanding and skill—"creeping exclusivity" Limited resources—people "spread thin"

Figure 3. Dimensions of Influential Staff Development (*continued*)

DIMENSIONS	CONTRIBUTIONS	DILEMMAS
ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS		
Collective involvement	Relevance more assured when "we're all in it together" Opportunity for moral support and technical advice from colleagues Tolerance for struggle with new ideas and practice New ideas tested on a large enough scale to witness effects and to work through problems of implementation Strengthens habits of shared work and problem solving—builds a faculty that is capable of designing and managing improvement	A collection of bodies is not a group: mere exposure to training as a group is insufficient. Effect requires group identity (and interaction) for purposes of implementation Terms of group involvement in early stages must be negotiated in a manner that preserves underlying principles, establishes role expectations, and accommodates local realities without "pulling punches." The temptation will be to emphasize the attractions and downplay the hard work in an effort to attract participants Schools that have had previously successful group involvement with staff development are more likely to accept the terms—the problem of creeping exclusivity
Collaboration	Opportunity to build known and shared aims Opportunity to build trust by demonstrating reciprocity, deference	"Imposed" programs limit the opportunities for collaboration Existing norms limit persons' skill and willingness to act reciprocally (e.g., by giving specific feedback on performance)
	Opportunity to develop a shared language for describing, analyzing, and refining practice (i.e., opportunity to be useful to one another)	The closer people move to the building and the classroom, the higher the risk to self-esteem and professional standing (high gains, high demands)

Figure 3. Dimensions of Influential Staff Development (*continued*)

DIMENSIONS	CONTRIBUTIONS	DILEMMAS
	Opportunity for observing and assisting actual practice (e.g., "coaching") Builds faculty morale and sense of individual and group efficacy over time	Coaching is a potentially powerful practice that violates equally powerful and entrenched norms—it is viewed as useful when it happens but happens only when actually structured by someone with influence Hard for newcomers to join—the language and practice are too sophisticated; "closed" collegiality and creeping exclusivity
SETTING: THE WORKPLACE		
Consistency with expressed values and priorities of building and district	Relevance —professional development is an obligation of the job; participation is rewarded —participation in specific programs is credited and protected Tolerance for struggle Access to resources Rewards for demonstrable success	Multiple and sometimes conflicting priorities Values reflected in teacher contracts Multiple sources of influence over resources and rewards Sheer complexity of groups, interests, and circumstances may place limits on tolerance Success is rarely measured in ways that are programmatically or politically powerful The more complex the practices, the more time it will take and the more difficult it will be to achieve and demonstrate an effect
Norms supporting collegiality among teachers	Extended staff resources—more minds and bodies to concentrate on applying ideas in practice Prospects for "polite coercion" in the face of promising ideas or compelling circumstances Prospects for continuity (life after funding)	Critical practices of collegiality are the exception rather than the rule and may have to be built (rather than simply built upon) by staff development (talk about instruction, observation, shared planning and preparation, reciprocal teaching, or coaching)

Figure 3. Dimensions of Influential Staff Development (*continued*)

DIMENSIONS	CONTRIBUTIONS	DILEMMAS
Norms supporting the routine examination, evaluation, and refinement of practice	Habits of careful scrutiny that separate judgments about practices and consequences from judgments of personal worth	This perspective is in competition with the views that "teaching is a matter of style" and "you don't interfere with another teacher's teaching"
Role of the principal in stimulating, strengthening, sustaining collegiality and continuous improvement	Rights of initiative ("it comes with the territory") Tactics of leadership —announcing expectations for collegial and experimental work —modeling collegial and experimental work —sanctioning teachers' efforts —defending and protecting new efforts against internal and external strain	These are not the practices for which principals are typically selected, prepared or rewarded
FOUR RULES OF THUMB AND A SPECULATION	Four rules of thumb for teachers and staff developers: If you want it, say it If you want it, teach for it If you want it, organize for it If you want it, reward it	And a speculation about what difference it makes: There's no such thing as an "ineffective" or neutral piece of staff development. Every exposure to staff development will either build commitment to professional improvement or will erode that commitment

the study, in a total district budget of more than $200 million), it permitted a single resource coordinator to be assigned full-time to the project. During the same time period, each of the remaining eleven members of the district's staff-development office was charged with organizing minicourses, conducting workshops on a variety of topics, and serving as the assigned resource person for twelve elementary and secondary schools. Their influence was predictably diffuse.

Budget

The successful program was funded with federal dollars as support for desegregation; in this, as in programs described by others,[13] a shift in federal dollars or priorities will jeopardize the project. (That is, although the practices survive in the pilot schools, there is no basis of continued support and expansion.)

Exclusivity

The invitational procedure by which the district's one hundred elementary schools were narrowed first to fifty interested candidates and finally to five selected sites created conditions powerfully conducive to success. On a pilot basis, such a procedure was substantively warranted. Nonetheless, it also permits (even requires) selecting out 95 percent of the district's schools. The district risks a form of "creeping exclusivity" by which the bulk of program resources are devoted to the most sophisticated, most energetic faculties. To maintain an invitational procedure over time would thus require that a district develop a program of preparation that would equip interested schools to compete successfully for participation in the program.

Principals

The successful program was heavily reliant on the direct involvement of building principals, who participated in principals' training sessions, helped to conduct in-service sessions with faculty, joined planning sessions with teachers, observed in classrooms, publicized teachers' accomplishments, organized schedules and other aspects of school work to facilitate teachers' work with one another, and protected teachers against other demands and distractions. In this manner, the program built an enduring system of support that went well beyond the delivery of good skills training.[14] Such a pattern of leadership, however, also calls for practices for which most principals are neither prepared, selected, nor rewarded.[15]

Teachers as Colleagues

The successful program rested on long-term habits of shared work and shared problem solving among teachers. Such patterns of mutual assistance, together with mechanisms by which teachers can emerge as leaders on matters of curriculum and instruction, are also atypical.[16] According to one review, work teams among teachers have proved relatively unstable, particularly in the absence of an explicit "policy of teaming" on the part of building principals.[17] The very success of the pilot project described here calls attention to the character of professional work in schools and the degree to which "reflection-in-action"[18] might be made an integral part of teaching.

The "Fit" or Integration of Staff Development

A fit of staff development with major lines of program development and authority is argued to be both critical and problematic. In tracing the human and material resources devoted to staff development in three districts, Moore and Hyde found staff development was politically weak and programmatically marginal, in spite of higher-than-predicted allocations of money and time.[19] Responsibility for staff development is often widely diffused, low in the bureaucratic hierarchy, and isolated from major initiatives in curriculum and instruction.[20] In many urban districts, the main contribution of staff development in recent years may have been "to keep things from getting worse"[21] by introducing a measure of stability in times of rapid change. There is no evidence that the projects described here were any more centrally connected to the structures of power and policy, nor any less vulnerable to shifts in budget priorities, than the projects described in other studies.

In effect, we are confronted with a tremendous problem, or challenge, of organization, leadership, and scale. It is simply implausible that a small cadre of staff developers in any district will add measurably to the general fund of teachers' knowledge, skill, and enthusiasm, or that programs of the sort just described could be mounted by a district on a scale large enough to exert widespread influence. The lessons are of a different order of magnitude; the guidelines generated by these program examples are properly seen as guidelines for the organization and leadership of professional work in the day-to-day work of teaching.

Notes

1 J. W. Little, *School Success and Staff Development: The Role of Staff Development in Urban Desegregated Schools* (Boulder, Colo.: Center for Action Research, 1981).

2 P. Berman and M. W. McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. VIII: Implementing and Sustaining Innovations* (Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, 1978); W. J. Tikunoff, J. B. A. Ward, and G. A. Griffin, *Interactive Research and Development on Teaching*, Executive Summary (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory, 1979); Little, *School Success and Staff Development;* G. A. Griffin, A. Lieberman, and J. Jacullo-Noto, *Interactive Research and Development on Schooling, Final Report of the Implementation of the Strategy* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1982); and T. Bird, "Mutual Adaptation and Mutual Accomplishment: Images of Change in a Field Experiment," *Teachers College Record* 86, no. 1, (Fall 1984): 68–83.

3 J. Lanier, "Tensions in Teaching Teachers the Skills of Pedagogy," in *Staff Development: Eighty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, ed. G. Griffin (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983).

4 A negotiation sequence aimed at clarity of understanding does not ensure "receptivity" to a program of staff development. The experience of the mastery learning project is evidence that making an idea clear may serve to *discourage* persons from participating in a collaborative venture. The negotiation does have the virtue of revealing the limits and possibilities of shared work in advance of an agreement to proceed, thus making subsequent steps less tenuous.

5 W. Doyle and G. A. Ponder, "The Practicality Ethic in Teacher Decision Making," *Interchange* 8, no. 3 (1977–1978): 1–12.

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

MINUTES:	COMMUNITY CONSULTATION MEETING
DATES OF MEETING:	MARCH 7-8, 1995
DATE MINUTES ISSUED:	APRIL 10, 1995
PARTICIPANTS:	Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen, Gail Dorph, Alan Hoffmann, Barry Holtz, Nessa Rapoport, Ina Regosin
COPY TO:	Morton Mandel, Virginia Levi, Janice Alper, Marci Dickman

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AGENDA

Wednesday, March 7

Personnel Action Planning in Communities: Reports
- Ruth Cohen -- Milwaukee
- Steve Chervin -- Atlanta
- Chaim Botwinick -- Baltimore

"Best Practices" In In-Service Education in General Education
- Gail Dorph

Map of Current In-Service Opportunities with Reference to Best Practices Information -- Barry Holtz and Gail Dorph

In-Service Education in our communities in the Year 2000

Thursday, March 8

Denominational Presentations
- Robert Hirt and Alvin Schiff -- Yeshiva University
- Kerry Olitzky -- Hebrew Union College
- Robert Abramson -- United Synagogue
- Aharon Eldar -- Torah Department of WZO

Discussion about Communal Needs and Institutional Resources

Debrief: Where are we now? Next Steps

Wednesday:

Personnel Action Planning in Communities: Reports

Milwaukee: Ruth Cohen

The first major initiative in Milwaukee's personnel action plan has been the decision to create a local/regional opportunity for its educators to gain a masters degree in Jewish studies with a concentration in education. Milwaukee has submitted a grant to the Bader foundation to partially fund a masters program that will be run by the Cleveland College of Jewish Studies. The program will include some courses in Milwaukee taught by Cleveland College faculty, video-conference courses, and summer courses in Cleveland at the college. The program will be housed at MAJE (the Milwaukee Association for Jewish Education) which will also coordinate and co-staff the internship program.

Ruth described the process by which this initiative moved through the Milwaukee system. A personnel action team reviewed the results of the educators' study and devoted much time to a variety of issues. It focused on the Cleveland College option as it seemed a very substantive way to begin. After several meetings with Lifsa Schachter (by the committee, by Milwaukee's core planning team), after experiencing the video-conference technique and after Ruth Cohen and Ina Regosin visited the Cleveland College, the personnel action team wrote up the proposal as their recommendation. The recommendation went to the Lead Community Initiative steering committee which voted on four different proposals made by different action teams that grew out of Milwaukee's strategic planning process. The Cleveland College Proposal being only one of them.

Ruth also described three other initiatives that came before the steering committee (one on teen programming that was returned to committee; one on funding family educators that has been submitted for joint funding by private grant and federation funding; one for a feasibility study of a day school high school that was also recommended for funding)

There are also seven teams (2 congregations, 4 day schools, JCC camping division) participating in a series of four seminars which are part of the goals project. In addition to the planning meetings, Dan Pekarsky has done one seminar and the next one is scheduled for next week.

Milwaukee is now trying to decide how to move the personnel planning process forward.

Atlanta -- Steve Chervin

Steve indicated that positive progreess is being made in terms of developing a personnel action plan, but that the issue of mobilizing community support and funding has proven more difficult.

The Harvard Goals Seminar has served as a catalyst for the personnel action planning process. The group from Harvard has met 2 -3 more times. They have developed the case story method and taught it to their colleagues who did not participate in the seminar. They are also exploring ways of using it at the annuyal teachers' conference.

The principals' councils have become the lynchpin of the personnel planning process. Steve described how he and Janice Alper, the director of JES (Jewish Education Services) have planned and "driven" this process together. Each council will create a comprehensive plan for its own institutions

In the day school principals council, the group has reviewed current offerings. None are based in school improvement models, none are teacher driven, for the most part they are voluntary not mandatory.

As a next step, they have decided to hold a "town hall meeting" for all day school teachers. It is scheduled for April 3 for two hours after school. They expect to draw a large turn-out from the 50-6- potential teachers. Three questions are on the docket:

1. What do you see as your needs for professional development?
2. What do you see as the schools' needs for professional development?
3. What are the next steps that you would like to see?

One of the ideas that Steve and Janice have in mind is the development of a day school teachers' council.

In the EDC (the supplementary schools' principals council), they have begun to survey the teachers in terms of areas of interest while at the same time addressing the issue of minimum standards with the principals and rabbis. When the latter group was asked about minumum standards: that is, what do teachers in your school need to know in order to teach? what are the domains of knowledge and at what level of expertise does this knowledge need to be held, they responded that they could not respond to the question without first revisiting the area of knowledge for what -- that is the goals question. A March 23 meeting is planned for rabbis and educators to begin dealing with this issue.

The early childhood educators council will also deliberate this issue in terms of early

childhood. They are at a more preliminary stage.

Steve then raised nine areas of ambiguity and tension with regard to our other agenda, i.e., mobilizing community support.

1. The relationship between the CJC (council for Jewish continuity) and the regular planning and allocations process of the Federation.

2. The relationship between CJC and the central agency (JES).

3. Steve's job, a department in federation

4. Planning for the new high school

5. Multiple capital campaigns going on in the community

6. Campaign assignments with educational agencies

7. Funding for the CJC, an off-the top of the campaign allocation?

8. Competing campaigns in terms of federation issues

9. The emerging need to orient educational programming toward supporteing fund-raising objectives, i.e., as a campaign tool

Given the lack of clarity in terms of funding, the community is unable to provide concrete answers to problems.

Baltimore --Chaim Botwinick

In Baltimore, a planning group mainly comprised of Jewish education professionals, representing all settings and denominations was formed with Chaim and Marci as its co-chairs. After its first meeting the group divided itself into three small workgroups according to setting: day school, early childhood, and congregational schools.

The issues that emerged from the day school group's first meeting were: the establishment of a kuppah for professional development, videotaping of microlessons, mentorship, scholar-in-residence program and the establishment of a staff development institute for day school teachers.

Chaim also described a program initiated and funded by the Children of Lyn and Harvey Meyerhoff Foundation called: Breishit: In the Beginning, Machon L'Morim for

Jewish Early Childhood Educators. This is a program geared to the enhancement of the Jewish content of early childhood programs in a limited number of settings. It is a two year initiative designed for both teachers and directors of these institutions.

Additionally, the task force on educational personnel of CAJE (Center for Advancement of Jewish Education of The Associated) recently developed a proposal for communally funding of benefits for educators. Chaim has been involved with gathering information for the committee. Hopefully, he will be able to share both the process and the outcome at one of our future meetings.

"Best Practices" In In-Service Education in General Education
Gail Dorph

Gail then shared a working paper which synthesized recent work in general education that had specific implications for the development of in-service initiatives at the communal level. The document is attached. The discussion particularly focused on the summary section of the paper: Conditions Necessary for Learning to Teach in New Ways and Principles Against which Professional Development Opportunities may be tested.

Map of Current In-Service Opportunities with Reference to Best Practices Information -- Barry Holtz and Gail Dorph

Gail and Barry then shared a planning guide (enclosed) which could help communities chart their present in-service offerings. As an exercise, we walked through several communal examples using the chart to both test its usefulness and workability. Participants were asked to take the in-service maps that they had created for the current seminar and "plot" them into the chart for our next session. (yet to be scheduled)

Additionally, everyone was encouraged to think about how to use the chart and the summary in the current process in which communities are engaged. This could serve to raise the level of discourse and provide an impetus for thinking about the personnel action plans as opportunities to try out initiatives different from those which currently exist.

Thursday:

Denominational Presentations and Discussion

The morning began with four presentations: two from denominational representatives who are university based--Robert Hirt from Yeshiva University and

Kerry Olitzky from Hebrew Union College-Jewish Institute of Religion-- and two from denominational representatives who are based in service-delivery positions-- Robert Abramson from United Synagogue and Aharon Eldar from the Torah Departmer of WZO.

Bob Abramson described two programs that United Synagogue's Department of Education runs: a school based program for supplementary school educators (U-STEP--United Synagogue Teacher Education Program) and a peer leadership program for day school administrators (PAL-- Peer-Assisted Leadership).

U-STEP is a 12 hour per year two year program designed together with synagogues for the professional development of their elementary school staffs. Its strengths reside in: its on-going nature; bringing together whole faculties (including the principal) of institutions; United Synagogue supplied teachers who are experienced Jewish educators; and a curriculum designed to have realistic classroom implications. United Syngagogue provides the teachers for the program. Synagogues provide transportation and room and board.

PAL is a program that has been developed with Far West Laboratories and funded by the Wexner foundation. It includes an intensive three day preparatory program, 6 days of paired principals visiting each other using techniques that they have been taught, and a concluding three day retreat to process the themes and issues. The program has been very successful in terms of the three cohorts of principals who have participated. There is now discussion of how to continue to develop this program once grant monies have run out.

Aharon Eldar described the approach of the Torah Department of WZO with regard to In-Service education particularly in Orthodox day schools. The faculty of the Torah department includes a cadre of Israel based educators who have been "shlichim" and Torah department teacher-shlichim who are in the states.

He described three models with which they are currently working. All are based in the commitment to only work with schools who are prepared to hold on-going seminars during a given academic year.

1. Three one-week seminars on the same subject which will be determined by the school and Torah Department together.
2. 4-5 meetings a year in one school on one topic
3. On-going school seminar in which Torah department faculty participate several times a year.

For all these models, the "preferred" siyyum is a seminar in Israel which builds on the studies of the previous year.

In addition, the Torah department has developed a program for master teachers. This program is being run in cooperation with the Associated Talmud Torah (ATT) of Chicago. It includes two teachers from each of their affiliated schools who attend three hour seminars once a week. These seminars focus on subject matter, methodology and supervision. At the conclusion of the year of study, there is a three week seminar in Israel. There are two incentives offered: the three week seminar in Israel and increased salary on the ATT salary scale.

The formula for funding these programs is similar to that described by Abramson: Torah department supplies faculty; schools provide transportation and lodging.

Robert Hirt described Yeshiva University as a central address for Jewish education both because of the Azrieli School's interest in and commitment to in-service education and because of the network of schools and agencies that are connected to its professional group, the Educators' Council of America. He reported that the Azrieli School was very interested in meeting the needs of local communities for substantive in-service which is why he had asked Alvin Schiff to also be present at this meeting. He suggested that one very productive approach to the issue of designing in-service education opportunities in the lead communities would be for the community professionals to present the challenges that they are currently facing.

Kerry Olitzky described the organizational structure of the Reform movement in general in order to help clarify its approach to in-service education in particular. He mentioned three areas of service emphasized by the UAHC: curriculum development, producing text book literature and teacher training and development. For the most part, UAHC's teacher training is developed in concert with its regional offices. Thus, the offerings and their intensity is dependent on the way in which each region is organized.

Kerry then defined the province of the College as educational leadership development; pilot projects, such as, the development of national pilot training program for beginning teachers over Internet; summer study programs for educators at the various campuses of the college; and institutionally based pilot project such as ECE (experiment in congregational schools out of HUC-LA and family education pilot out of HUC-JIR, NY.

Discussion

After questions of clarification and explanation, the discussion turned to issues that the communities are facing with regard to development and implementation of personnel action plans. Issues that emerged included:

1. Development and implementation of induction programs for new teachers

2. Development and implementation of professional growth oopportunites for educational leaders

3. Development of supervisors and mentors who can give classroom guidance and support

4. Access to competent teacher trainers (people who are able to provide a combination of subject matter and pedagogical expertise

5. Development minimum standards for teachers in various settings
(does this include domains of knowledge, areas of competency, religious standards and commitments?)

6. Development of infrastructures to support in-service (released time for teachers, salary increments that are meaningful which are tied to on-going professional development)

7. Develop lay-educational partnerships to support professional development

Where are we now? Next Steps

In our closing session, we discussed

a. the timetable for current communal planning processes
b. the challenge of creating outcome statements for the year 2000
c. creating capacity to plan and implement inservice education programs

Everyone agreed to use the chart that Barry created to chart their current in-service offerings.

Gail brought in a suggested list of outcomes for the year 2000 for review and comment. Items included:

1. % of our teachers will hold masters degrees in Jewish education.
2. % of our teachers will be enrolled in masters degree programs in Jewish education.
3. # of central agency personnel will be qualified to and responsible for ongoing professional development programs for teachers.
4. % of central agency professional development offerings will be in the form of systematic programs that include focus on subject matter, pedagogy and classroom support.

5. % of schools will have on-going staff development built into their school programs.
6. % of schools will have an infrastructure which allows teachers to both learn new "things" and work together to plan and support each others' work.
7. % of schools will have a funded "leaad teacher" position. This person will be responsible for supporting teachers in learning to teach in new ways.
8. In our community, there will be # of teacher networks:
    a. organized according to subject matter
    b. organized according to issues of teaching and learning children of "x" age
9. In our community, there will # of "community" teachers, who will receive benefits although teaching in more than one place.
10. In our community, there will be a benefits structure for teachers teaching # hours.

One of the issues that we discussed in December and again in the course of this consultation was our communal capacity to deliver services that would be required by the creation of initiatives that go beyond that which is currently being offered. This issue was the impetus for inviting denominational presentations during the course of the current seminar.

Gail and Barry described a CIJE plan to develop a "virtual college for In-Service Jewish Education." This would mean the development of a serious cadre of trained people, Mentor-Educators, (for want of a better term) who would be able to help plan and implement programs within their own communities and perhaps even nationally. The approach that they suggested would include: identifying appropriate candidates who are currently in central agencies or schools, designing a program that would bring them together to learn about current "best-practices" in in-service education, devising strategies for them to collaborate on the integration and adaptation of the latest thinking about learning to teach and the development of new approaches to in-service education in Jewish education. We discussed this idea, and although, it was well received, we did not have enough time to discuss it at length. Gail will be back in touch with seminar participants to discuss the idea more fully and to receive "nominations" for the first cohort of mentor-educators to be recruited.

We agreed to meet again before the summer break if at all possible.

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WORKING PAPER

(CIJE--LEAD COMMUNITY SEMINAR 3/95)

WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS?
(from general education)

Research shows that the differences in teacher qualifications across schools account more than any other factor for the differences in student achievement. (LDH, 1994)

Professional development must be approached from four interconnected premises:

> *teachers are understood to have life-long professional needs and these will be met only if treated, as in the case of any learner in terms of continuity and progression;
>
> *for continuity and progression to be realized teachers' developmental needs must be assessed on a regular basis
>
> *schools devise a plan for development from which also flow needs for professional development if the school's development plan is to be implemented successfully
>
> *professional needs arising from personal sources (e.g., appraisal) have to be reconciled with school needs arising from institutional sources (e.g., a development plan) (Hargreaves, 1994)

Staff development must be grounded in the mundane but very real details of teachers' daily work lives and in a form that provides the intellectual stimulation of a graduate seminar. By intellectual stimulation, we mean engagement with the substantive knowledge to be taught and the sustained analysis of teaching as a professional pursuit. (Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991)

The most promising forms of professional development engage teachers in the pursuit of genuine questions, problems, and curiosities, over time, in ways that leave a mark on perspectives, policy, and practice. (JWL, 1993)

There is little significant school development without teacher development. There is little significant teacher development without school development. (Hargreaves, 1994)

Content

Three components need to be part of a comprehensive approach to teacher professional development in order to make a difference in teachers' effectiveness and in student outcomes:

1. Subject Matter Knowledge

In order to teach for understanding, McDiarmid, Ball and Anderson (1989) argue that teachers need a "flexible" understanding of their subject matter. They define this as the ability to draw relationships within the subject and make "real world" connections. It also means what scholars in that field do and how increase one's own knowledge. A growing body of case studies shows that teachers with flexible subject matter understandings are better able to connect students and subject matter in ways that respect both (see, for example, Grossman, 1990; Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987).

Majoring in an academic subject in college does not guarantee that teachers have the specific kind of subject matter knowledge needed for teaching. (NCRTL, 1992)

Many teachers have never had the chance to develop understandings of their subject matters that are required in order to teach for meaning.

2. Knowledge of Education (particularly including knowledge of learners and what will make subject matter meaningful to learners)

Building bridges between students and subject matter also depends on another kind of knowledge which Shulman (1986) has labeled "pedagogical content knowledge." PCK includes the most powerful ways to represent and formulate a subject so as to make it comprehensible to others. It is a melding of knowledge of students and knowledge of subject matter. To teach for subject matter understanding, a teacher must be able to view the subject through the eyes of the learner and to interpret the learner's questions and comments through the lens of the subject matter.

To foster meaningful learning, teachers must construct experiences that allow students to confront powerful ideas whole. They must create bridges between the very different experiences of individual learners and the common curriculum goals. They must understand how their students think as well as what they know. (LDH, 1993)

Teachers must combine deep knowledge of subject matter and a wide

repertoire of teaching strategies with intimate knowledge of students' growth, experience, and development.

3. Clinical Guidance in Learning to Teach

Teachers need support in their classrooms to figure out: how to synthesize new practices, how to work with their students to create community, etc..(LDH, 1990)

The National Center for Research on Teacher Learning suggests that "substantial changes in teaching practice are likely to occur only when teachers have extended, ongoing assistance that is grounded in classroom practice." (NCRTL, 1992)

Differentiation

Professional development opportunities should be appropriately designed with "the teacher-as-learner" in mind. This would include attention to:

1. **School Setting (day, supplementary and pre-school)**

2. **Students: (developmental issues, affiliation)**

3. **Teachers: Experience/background/training**

4. **Subject Matter to be taught**

Systematic Training Opportunities

1. Time

Learning to teach like learning to play a musical instrument. It takes time, a grasp of essential patterns, much practice, tolerance for mistakes, and a way of marking progress along the way. A major contributor to the success of professional development is the organizations of time. More successful programs organize regularized time involvement at frequent intervals over an extended duration. (JWL, 1986)

2. Duration

Learning new roles and new practices requires time, opportunity and mental space. Learning to teach in new ways, i.e.., transforming one's practice and roles requires considerable time and effort and seems to follow a particular process, for most teachers.

Learning to teach in new ways is developmental. The process involves not only unlearning things that teachers and others have thought were good or at least standard practice, but also figuring out exactly what these new ideas, strategies, techniques mean and look like in the classroom and school. The sequence often involves the following four stages.

*level #1 awareness
*level #2 interpretation
*level #3 understanding
*level #4 reflective self evaluation

Without adequate opportunities to learn or the support for the learning, there is no guarantee that teachers will move beyond the awareness level. (McDiarmid, 1994).

3. Experience

Experience of Teacher (Feiman & Floden, 1983) have reviewed several different approaches to staff development that support the claim that The issue addressed by these "stage theories" relates to increasing the relevance of in-service offerings for teachers.

Incentives

When a participant is selected to take part in training, either by being designated as a representative of a particular group or through a competitive selection process, the effect size was significantly greater than for all other incentives.

Other incentives that were examined that were also significant include: college credit, released time, increased pay and certificate renewal.(Wade, 1984)

Compensation

In general education teachers' salaries have improved over the last few years, but they continue to remain lower than those of similarly educated workers. Teachers' salaries vary greatly among districts and states. "Typically, teachers in affluent suburban districts earn more than those in cities...These variations contribute to surpluses of qualifies teachers in some locations and shortages in others, and they influence teacher retention, especially early in a teacher's career. Those who are better paid tend to stay in teacher longer than those with lower salaries. (LDH, 1994)

Enrollment in teacher education programs has fluctuated in recent decades as salaries for teaching have risen and fallen. When salaries are up, enrollment is up;

when salaries are down, enrollment is down. (Murnane, et. al., 1991)

Empowerment

We must create contexts in teachers' work lives that assist and sustain meaningful changes. These contexts should consist, preeminently, of engaging teachers in rigorous examinations of teaching: the concrete challenges and problems they face, the range of possible solutions, and most important, close examination of whether, over time, there is progress in addressing these challenges. (Goldenberg and Gallimore, 1991)

Successful Models Of Professional Development Using Models of Empowerment

1. Teacher Collaboratives and Networks

2. Subject Matter Associations

3. Collaborations Targeted at School Reform

4. Special institutes and Centers (JWL,1993)

Aspects of Evaluation

1. **Reaction:** assesses how the participants felt about in-service training

2. **Learning:** measures the amount of learning that was achieved

3. **Behavior:** measures whether participants changed their behavior as a result of a staff development intervention.

4. **Results:** determine whether there was an impact in the classroom, usually on students, as a result of teacher training
Wade (1984)

Leadership

In the more successful staff development model, teachers and principals were asked to participate in training and implementation as a group; in effect, the school staff made a commitment to work on the training activity.

Principals direct involvement with the professional development initiative exemplified a shift from a "gatekeeper" stance to a "change agent" stance. (JWL,

1986)

SUMMARY

Conditions Necessary For Learning To Teach In New Ways

1. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need a community of colleagues.

2. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need the support and leadership of their building principal

3. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need support in the classroom in changing their practice.

4. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need to be part of a larger learning community.

5. To teach in new ways, teachers need opportunities to develop new understandings of the subjects they teach, the roles they play in the school and classroom, and their membership in a learning community.

6. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers must be willing to assess their own practices critically.

7. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need time and the opportunity to get away physically and mentally from their daily work in the classroom.

8. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need sustained funding and policies to support their professional development.

9. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need the public and policy makers to afford professional development activities the same priority as classroom teaching. (McDiarmid, 1994)

Professional development opportunities may be tested against these principles:

*Professional development offers meaningful intellectual, social, and emotional engagement with ideas, with materials, and with colleagues in and out of teaching.

*Professional development takes explicit account of the contexts of teaching and the experience of teachers.

*Professional development offers support for informed dissent.

*Professional development places classroom practice in the larger contexts of school practice and the educational careers of learners. It is grounded in a big-picture perspective on the purposes and practices of schooling, providing teachers a means of seeing and acting upon the connections among students' experiences, teachers' classroom practice, and school wide structures and cultures.

*Professional development prepares teachers to employ the techniques and perspectives of inquiry.

*The governance of professional development ensures bureaucratic restraint and a balance between the interests of individuals and the interests of institutions. (JWL, 1993)

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consultation.

MEMO

TO: CHAIM BOTWINICK, RUTH COHEN, STEVE CHERVIN, INA REGOSIN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

CC: ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, GINNY LEVI, NESSA RAPOPORT

RE: CIJE-LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION -- MARCH 8, 9

3/3/95

Our meetings will take place at the CIJE office at 15 E. 26th St. on Wednesday and Thursday from 9:00 to 5:00.

In preparing for our meetings, I have been gathering information from general education in the arena of professional development. I anticipate using criteria such as those found here to help us think about the strengths and weaknesses of current inservice offerings and in thinking through our future plans.

I am sending this draft to you at this time even though it's not yet finished so that you can think about these areas and issues as you prepare your reports.

Looking forward to seeing you soon.

Shabbat Shalom

WORKING PAPER

(CIJE--LEAD COMMUNITY SEMINAR 3/95)

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(from general education)

Research shows that the differences in teacher qualifications across schools account more than any other factor for the differences in student achievement. (LDH, 1994)

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Majoring in an academic subject in college does not guarantee that teachers have the specific kind of subject matter knowledge needed for teaching. (NCRTL, 1992)

Many teachers have never had the chance to develop understandings of their subject matters that are required in order to teach for meaning.

2. **Knowledge of Education (particularly including knowledge of learners and what will make subject matter meaningful to learners)**

Building bridges between students and subject matter also depends on another kind of knowledge which Shulman (1986) has labeled "pedagogical content knowledge." PCK includes the most powerful ways to represent and formulate a subject so as to make it comprehensible to others. It is a melding of knowledge of students and knowledge of subject matter. To teach for subject matter understanding, a teacher must be able to view the subject through the eyes of the learner and to interpret the learner's questions and comments through the lens of the subject matter.

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2. **Duration**

Learning new roles and new practices requires time, opportunity and mental space. Learning to teach in new ways, i.e.., transforming one's practice and roles requires considerable time and effort and seems to follow a particular process, for most teachers.

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Other incentives that were examined that were also significant include: college credit, released time, increased pay and certificate renewal.(Wade, 1984)

Compensation

In general education teachers' salaries have improved over the last few years, but they continue to remain lower than those of similarly educated workers. Teachers' salaries vary greatly among districts and states. "Typically, teachers in affluent suburban districts earn more than those in cities...These variations contribute to surpluses of qualifies teachers in some locations and shortages in others, and they influence teacher retention, especially early in a teacher's career. Those who are better paid tend to stay in teacher longer than those with lower salaries. (LDH, 1994)

Enrollment in teacher education programs has fluctuated in recent decades as salaries for teaching have risen and fallen. When salaries are up, enrollment is up;

when salaries are down, enrollment is down. (Murnane, et. al., 1991)

Empowerment

We must create contexts in teachers' work lives that assist and sustain meaningful changes. These contexts should consist, preeminently, of engaging teachers in rigorous examinations of teaching: the concrete challenges and problems they face, the range of possible solutions, and most important, close examination of whether, over time, there is progress in addressing these challenges. (Goldenberg and Gallimore, 1991)

Successful Models Of Professional Development Using Models of Empowerment

1. Teacher Collaboratives and Networks

2. Subject Matter Associations

3. Collaborations Targeted at School Reform

4. Special institutes and Centers (JWL,1993)

Aspects of Evaluation

1. **Reaction:** assesses how the participants felt about in-service training

2. **Learning:** measures the amount of learning that was achieved

3. **Behavior:** measures whether participants changed their behavior as a result of a staff development intervention.

4. **Results:** determine whether there was an impact in the classroom, usually on students, as a result of teacher training
Wade (1984)

Leadership

In the more successful staff development model, teachers and principals were asked to participate in training and implementation as a group; in effect, the school staff made a commitment to work on the training activity.

Principals direct involvement with the professional development initiative exemplified a shift from a "gatekeeper" stance to a "change agent" stance. (JWL,

1986)

SUMMARY

Conditions Necessary For Learning To Teach In New Ways

1. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need a community of colleagues.

2. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need the support and leadership of their building principal

3. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need support in the classroom in changing their practice.

4. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need to be part of a larger learning community.

5. To teach in new ways, teachers need opportunities to develop new understandings of the subjects they teach, the roles they play in the school and classroom, and their membership in a learning community.

6. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers must be willing to assess their own practices critically.

7. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need time and the opportunity to get away physically and mentally from their daily work in the classroom.

8. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need sustained funding and policies to support their professional development.

9. To learn to teach in new ways, teachers need the public and policy makers to afford professional development activities the same priority as classroom teaching. (McDiarmid, 1994)

Professional development opportunities may be tested against these principles:

*Professional development offers meaningful intellectual, social, and emotional engagement with ideas, with materials, and with colleagues in and out of teaching.

*Professional development takes explicit account of the contexts of teaching and the experience of teachers.

*Professional development offers support for informed dissent.

*Professional development places classroom practice in the larger contexts of school practice and the educational careers of learners. It is grounded in a big-picture perspective on the purposes and practices of schooling, providing teachers a means of seeing and acting upon the connections among students' experiences, teachers' classroom practice, and school wide structures and cultures.

*Professional development prepares teachers to employ the techniques and perspectives of inquiry.

*The governance of professional development ensures bureaucratic restraint and a balance between the interests of individuals and the interests of institutions. (JWL, 1993)

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Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

TO: CHAIM BOTWINICK, RUTH COHEN, STEVE CHERVIN, INA REGOSIN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

CC: JANICE ALPER, MARCI DICKMAN, ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, GINNY LEVI, NESSA RAPOPORT

RE: FOLLOW UP ON MARCH CIJE-LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION

3/16/95

I am currently working on the notes of last week's consultation. In the meantime, I want to send you several things:

1. Two articles by Linda Darling Hammond that address some of the issues that we spent our time discussing, particularly the issue of building capacity.

2. The plan for a masters program in Jewish studies with a concentration in education to be run by the Cleveland College of Jewish Studies for the Milwaukee Jewish Community.

(As you remember, as part of their personnal action plan, Milwaukee has submitted a proposal to the Bader foundation to fund an MA program for Milwaukee educators that would be run by the Cleveland College ofJewish Studies.)

3. Two blank charts on which you can describe the map of current in-service offerings in your community.

In order to keep us moving forward, I am asking you to fill it out and send it back to me by the last week of April (the week after Pesah). This will give all of us a frame of reference from which to work when we meet next. Additionally, it will help us chart our progress over the coming years.

In thinking about our next meetings, there are at least three agenda items on the docket:

P.O. Box 94553, Cleveland, Ohio 44101 • Phone: (216) 391-1852 • Fax: (216) 391-5430
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1. Presentation of the findings of the study of educational leaders in our communities and the implications of these findings --Ellen Goldring will participate with us in these meetings.

2. Sharing our current in-service maps as well as our personnel proposals for the coming fiscal year.

3. Examining current programs and their implications for our personnel action plans (e.g., Melton Mini-School Pilot in Chicago adapted and modified for Jewish teachers, Induction program for new, untrained teachers in supplementary schools originally designed by JTS and New York region of United Synagogue, etc.)

4. Planning for next year

I would like to make a suggestion for meeting dates based on calendar of NY staff and Ellen's calendar (I know it is not ideal because it does not begin on a Sunday, but between our collective calendar and taking into account Jewish Educators Research Network, Shavuot, Mother's Day, Father's Day, etc...) **are May 21 and May 22. Can you please let me know if these dates can work for you?**

March 1995

What Might be Learned from the MEF materials on Community Moblization in Lead Communities for Future Work with New Communities:

1. These materials emphasize the need for community organizing expertise from the beginning of CIJE's entry into a community.

2. The issue of community mobilization as a factor of success should be an active consideration from the start of our work in a new community.

3. CIJE's outstanding "programs"--Goals, Harvard--serve in themselves as successful community mobilizers.

4. If we come into a community to do a seminar or work with an institution (Atlanta's new high school), we should think through the issue of press coverage ahead of time, in conjunction with the community/institutional leaders.

5. An issue we need to think about seriously is intra-communal communications: That is, how can as many stakeholders as possible be kept informed of the process of their own community's strategic planning and implementation for Jewish education? How can they be made to feel that their day-to-day efforts are part of a national picture of transformation? Our researchers highlighted the lack of a newsletter or communications organ as a problem in keeping people interested and motivated in the (slow) transformative process.

cc to mem 5-9-95
CK/VFL/ADH

עת לעשות
A Time to Act

CIJE Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

MEMO

TO: Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen, Ina Regosin
FROM: Gail Dorph
CC: Janice Alper, Marci Dickman, Alan Hoffmann, Barry Holtz, Nessa Rapoport
RE: NOTES FROM MARCH CIJE-LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION

4/12/95

Enclosed you will find the notes of our March seminar, the Working Paper on In-Service Education, a bibliography, and the chart we created to be used to survey your present in-service offerings. (Remember, the chart is keyed to the categories on the Working Paper). I hope that you will find the notes to be useful in your current planning process.

In May, you will be receiving your communal reports on the results of the leadership survey. I am sorry that we will not be able to meet as a collective with Ellen to discuss what we have learned as I have been unsuccessful in finding a time for us to meet again this spring. If you have any further suggestions, I would love to here them.

Meantime, I would ask each community to chart their current in-service offerings and send the charts to me. Additionally, perhaps it would be helpful if you would take the time to write an update on the planning process. I will then distribute both of these products. I would like to send these things out in the middle of May.

At this point, I am thinking that we should try to meet again toward the end of August.

Immediately after Pesah, I will be in touch with each of you to discuss CIJE's "virtual college" plan. (see page 9 of notes)

C:\CIJE\PLANS\COMCONMA.MEM

P.O. Box 94553, Cleveland, Ohio 44101 • Phone: (216) 391-1852 • Fax: (216) 391-5430
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COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

FAX COVER SHEET

Date sent: **Time sent:** **No. of Pages (incl. cover):**

To:

Janice Alper 404·607·1457
Chaim Botwinick 410·466·1727
Ruth Cohen 414·271·7081
Steve Chervin 404·874·7043
Marci Dickman
Ina Regosin 414·962·8852

From: Gail Dorph

Organization:

Phone Number:

Phone Number: 212-532-2360

Fax Number:

Fax Number: 212-532-2646

COMMENTS:

Hiya, I faxed a preliminary memo yesterday with some suggested dates for our next seminar. We're having trouble with the dates for our next CIJE-lead community consultation. I want to make three more suggestions:

May 17, 18
May 23, 24
May 31, June 1

Please get back to me before the end of the day on Friday with your availability for any or all of these times.

I think that it is important that we find the best time among these times for the most people. Otherwise, it seems as though we might not be able to meet until sometime in July or August which seems to long to wait.

CHAIM— SORRY THIS DID NOT MAKE IT TO YOU THE FIRST TIME.

COUNCIL FOR INITIATIVES IN JEWISH EDUCATION

FAXED

FAX COVER SHEET

Date sent: 9/5/95 Time sent: No. of Pages (incl. cover): 1

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- Ina Regosin 414-962-8852

From: gail dorph

Organization:

Phone Number:

Phone Number: 212-532-2360

Fax Number:

Fax Number: 212-532-2646

COMMENTS:

HIYA. HAPPY AFTER LABOR DAY!

THIS IS TO CONFIRM THAT WE ARE ON FOR A LEAD COMMUNITIES CONSULTATION ON OCTOBER 1 AND 2 IN NEW YORK. ON MY DOCKET ARE TWO SPECIFIC ISSUES:

REPORT ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP COMMUNITY REPORTS

DISCUSSION ON IMPLICATIONS OF REPORTS FOR COMMUNAL PERSONNEL ACTION PLANS

UPDATE ON TEI (TEACHER EDUCATOR INSTITUTE)

ELLEN GOLDRING WILL BE JOINING US.

PLEASE LET ME KNOW WHAT'S ON YOUR "DOCKET" SO WE CAN ADD IT TO OUR AGENDA.

9/21/95

Memo

TO: JANICE ALPER, CHAIM BOTWINICK, STEVE CHERVIN, RUTH COHEN, MARCI DICKMAN, INA REGOSIN

FROM: GAIL DORPH

CC: ALAN HOFFMANN, BARRY HOLTZ, NESSA RAPOPORT

RE: CIJE-LEAD COMMUNITY SEMINAR ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP -- OCTOBER 1, 2

We will meet Sunday morning (10/1) at my home.
588 West End Ave. Apt. 2A. Phone Number 212-769-0725.

We'll start at 10:00 am and go through the evening, thus, we'll be having both lunch and dinner together on Sunday.

On Monday, we will meet at the CIJE offices. We'll decide on our starting time before we break on Sunday evening.

We'll finish on Monday by 3:00 pm

AGENDA

Sunday

Community Updates

Among the things that you report on, please focus on status of personnel action planning process.

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Educational Leadership Ellen Goldring

Presentation of Findings

Ellen Goldring will present major findings from the Study of Educational Leaders. (In this mailing, you will find the report of the leaders in your community. Please take the time to read it through before we meet.) Her presentation will be followed by time to discuss and clarify the issues raised.

(Sometime in here, we will have a break)

An Examination of Pre-Service and In-service Standards for Educational Leaders in Public and Private Schools

An Examination of Pre-Service and In-Service Programs Designed to Meet Standards in General Education

We will then turn to the issues of standards in public and private education for both pre-service and in-service education of educational leaders. We will compare those norms and standards to the findings in our study.

Monday

Implications and Responses to Study and Norms and Standards

We will discuss the implications of these reports (and what we have seen of norms and standards in general education) for the personnel planning process in your communities and for CIJE nationally.

Update on CIJE

1. TEI
2. Best Practices Volume on JCC
3. Harvard Seminar
4. "Goals Project" with JCC camps
5. General Update on CIJE: staff and projects

SUMMARY OF CIJE-LEAD COMMUNITY CONSULTATION

DATES OF MEETING: October 1-2, 1995

PARTICIPANTS: Janice Alper, Chaim Botwinick, Steve Chervin, Ruth Cohen, Marci Dickman, Gail Dorph, Ellen Goldring, Barry Holtz, Nessa Rapoport

COPY TO: Adam Gamoran, Alan Hoffmann, Ina Regosin

Prior to the meetings. participants in this consultation received the findings of the CIJE study of the educational leaders in their own communities. These documents described the findings across the three communities as well as describing the ways in which local leadership was different from the aggregate profile. The main purpose of the consultation was to discuss the contents of these reports and to discuss their communal and national implications.

I. COMMUNITY UPDATES

We began the two days by hearing brief communal updates. Updates focused on the status of personnel action planning and the involvement of community leadership in the personnel planning process in general and the lead community initiatives in general.

Atlanta

Steve Chervin put the Lead Community project in the context of the larger Atlanta "scene." The issues he raised included:

1. Atlanta's campaign was down
2. There is concern about government cuts in support of human services
3. Federation's role in education and its relationship to the central agency
4. Fundraising for new initiatives and the relationship of that activity to the regular campaign and existing endowment operations.

Atlanta's federation has undergone a process of self-study. One of the committees that was reviewed was the CJC, the "home" of the lead community process in Atlanta. Steve alerted us to the fact that there was some discussion about the future of this committee. As part of a larger reorganization of federation operations, Steve's department was integrated into the planning and allocations department.

Janice Alper reported on several changes in the regular groupings of people who are meeting. At the beginning of the personnel action planning process, there were two groups: a day school group that included heads of schools and their lay chairs and a supplementary school council of principals. These structures have changed some: the day school presidents now meet as an independent group; the day school group now includes assistant principals; there is now an early childhood directors council; the supplementary school group has met several times with

congregational rabbis (as part of the personnel planning process). She also reported on several JES initiatives that had been well received, particularly the initiative for children with special needs. Interestingly, this initiative had been championed from its inception by lay leaders and has included lay participation every step of the way. Additionally, she has continued to meet periodically with the group of principals which attended the Harvard Principals' Institute. That group has exerted leadership in the personnel action planning process both for themselves and for the community.

Baltimore

The CIJE committee completed its work by forwarding a personnel action plan to CAJE, the federation "address" for educational planning. This plan is in outline form. The next step is for the committee on personnel of CAJE to review the recommendations and develop those initiatives that they feel merit funding. Because the next stage of this process will be handled by a standing committee of CAJE, the CIJE committee has been disbanded.

Additionally, Chaim's job has been redefined. He will no longer wear two hats, educational planner at federation and director of CJES. He will be devoting all of his energies to becoming the advocate for Jewish education at the federation. Particularly, he will be involved in a major fundraising effort on behalf of Jewish education in Baltimore. Marci has been appointing acting director of CJES and has already begun to strengthen its board through developing a retreat on the goals of the central agency. CIJE has been her partner in the planning of this retreat.

Chaim also spoke briefly about the plans to offer health and pension benefits to full time educators in Baltimore. We look forward to a more complete report of this initiative as issues of benefits are on the docket in each of the communities.

Milwaukee

Ruth Cohen reported on the beginnings of the Cleveland College of Jewish Studies program in Milwaukee. 15 participants (the maximum allowed) have been accepted to the program and four more are on the waiting list. The participants come from across movements and work settings--two coming from the JCC in Milwaukee.

She suggested three areas of this program that merit special attention as we think about the potential of this program as a pilot project:

1. The internship: One of the elements of the program is a field based internship. How will this internship be constructed? Who will be the Milwaukee team that supervises the interns in their placements?
2. Evaluation: How will this project be evaluated? What constitutes success?
3. Future of program graduates: How can Milwaukee be thinking about the graduates of this program in order to increase their benefit to the whole Milwaukee system?

In addition, Ruth reported that the teen initiative which was part of the larger Milwaukee strategic plan for Jewish education was moving forward. Two consultations, called by the JCC and involving input from Barry Chazan, lead community representatives locally and CIJE staff nationally, had taken place since our last meeting.

II. PRESENTATION OF DATA ABOUT EDUCATIONAL LEADERS FROM CIJE STUDY OF EDUCATORS-- COMMUNITY REPORTS ON THEIR EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

Ellen Goldring presented some of the data on educational leaders, particularly the data on educational background and training and professional development. The report takes a stance on defining adequate training for educational leadership positions. Its claim: one needs adequate academic background in education, subject matter content, and educational administration/ leadership. Current masters degrees in Jewish education offered by Institutions of Higher Learning in Jewish Education were counted as providing adequate background in the first two areas but not the third. Both Marci and Janice, who are graduates of the Rhea Hirsch School of Education at HUC-LA, questioned this stance. Although they agreed that this program did not meet the standards that Ellen was setting out (that is, a masters degree of 32 + hours in educational administration/educational leadership), their sense was that it had indeed supplied them with the rubrics and skills to work as educational leaders.

There were some positive surprises in the findings. A larger percentage of supplementary school principals had actually been "trained" in two out of the three areas (general education and Judaica). On the other hand, few leaders had all three components of training as defined by this study. Few educational leaders were involved in professional training. Not surprisingly, few communal opportunities for growth are actually available to them. Disappointingly, few reported dissatisfaction with the opportunities for training available to them.

The possibility of community's receiving additional data was also raised. Ellen asked that communities put their requests in writing and the MEF team would review them and respond. The issue of more specific data reported at the communal level can raise issues of confidentiality, e.g., if information is broken down by denomination and setting, there may be only one or two respondents per community in a given category.

As we went through the data, a few significant typographical errors (dealing with numbers) were brought to our attention. In addition, some suggestions were made about clarifying the presentation of certain data in chart form. Ellen said that each community would receive one more version of this report that would incorporate these suggestions.

III. EXAMINATION OF PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE STANDARDS AND PROGRAMS FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

Ellen presented information on the pre-service and in-service standards for educational leaders in public and private schools, and on the programs available in general education for educational

leaders to meet these standards.

In summary: Widely accepted standards in general education throughout the United States hold that educational leaders should have background and training in three areas: education/pedagogy, a subject matter, and administration/supervision. Preparation in education/pedagogy consists of an academic program leading to a BA or MA and a license or certification in general education. Subject matter preparation for elementary school may include a broad range of academic subjects, while high school teaching usually requires majoring an academic subject area. (For Jewish schools, the appropriate subject matter knowledge would be in a content area, such as Hebrew, Jewish history, Jewish literature, or a related field). After teaching for "x" number of years, one can then go on to gain an additional degree in educational administration and be licensed as a principal.

In order to maintain their licenses, principals like teachers are required to participate in ongoing professional development. The number of hours differs from state to state, but such requirements are standard.

The group reviewed a selection of materials on professional standards in both general and Jewish education in order to better understand the requirements (standards and norms that exist) and the content of preparation and professional growth programs. These included:

a. "The Licensure of School Administrator: Policy and Practice", by Carl R. Ashbaugh and Katherine L. Kasten;
b. "Performance Domains of the Principalship", from the National Committee for the Principalship;
c. "Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators for Elementary and Secondary School", compiled by John Tryneski;
d. "Guidelines and Requirements for Licenses" from the National Board of License for teachers and Principals of Jewish Schools in North America; and
e. selected statistics from the Digest of Educational Statistics.

These documents gave a sense of how the various states of which the lead communities are a part define their standards. Additionally, the document on domains (#b) gave some sense of the contents of educational leadership programs.

A discussion followed comparing standards and programs existing in Jewish education with those existing in general education.

Monday

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR ACTION

Monday morning's discussion focused on possible implications of the findings for action at the

VIRTUAL

communal and national level. This discussion was divided into two parts. The first asked the question: what kind of program models are available or might be created to address the lacunae in background and training of current educators. The second asked: If we had our druthers, what kinds of leadership functions would each community like to fill for which there are currently no candidates. Without a discussion that looks at leadership in at least these two ways, we felt that a plan for action would be incomplete.

A. Models

In order to begin the first discussion, Gail and Ellen outlined five models that the CIJE could pursue that would address the lack of pre-service and in-service training. They included:

1. Pre-service Programs
   a. impact what is currently occurring in schools of Jewish higher learning
   b. entice (other) universities to offer programs in Jewish educational leadership (such as the University of Wisconsin at Madison)
   c. recruit people with Jewish content and entice them to attend current leadership programs in non-Jewish universities

2. Institute Model (professional growth model)
   a. Harvard Model (subcontract out, but design content)
   b. TEI Model (CIJE also does instruction)
   c. ongoing programs

3. Principal Center Model (grassroots, resource centers)

4. Leadership Academy Model (state/district approach to professional development, tied to standards - analogue: BJEs?)

5. "Training of Trainers" Model

Participants added the following additional suggestions:

1. Distance Learning
2. Professional Organizations, such as NATE, CAJE, JEA as locus of professional development
3. Series of Retreats
4. Israel

Pursuing some of these models implies communication with current programs and offerings, whereas, pursuing other models might mean the creation of new institutions and programs. An example of the latter might be a National Center for Educational Leadership which might develop both pre-and in- service programs.

How could/should we start with a "virtual" center

7

B. New Positions

We then turned the discussion on its head by asking: What positions or functions need to be present in our communities for which there are currently too few/ or no qualified candidates. Suggestions included:

1. Specialist in pedagogy of Jewish subject matter
2. Expert on models of staff development who can work both at communal level and institutional level
3. Jewish educator on staff of JCC, JFS, JVS
4. Evaluation expert who can work at communal and institutional level
5. Grant writer at communal and institutional level

One of the interesting features of this discussion was not only the generating of domains and functions that need to be filled in communities and are, for the most part missing, but also the idea that such experts could work at both the communal and institutional level.

V. DISSEMINATION

The discussion turned to plans for disseminating these reports at the communal and national levels.
We discussed our common concerns centering on the impact of these findings on each of the communities. One of the important issues raised was the lack of opportunities for people at the leadership level to be trained.

Although there is considerable commonality between the communities in their findings, there are also significant differences when an individual communal profile is drawn. Thus, no "generic" executive summary was part of the communal reports. Ellen distributed the summary and conclusion sections of the integrated report and suggested that communities might use these to help them craft executive summaries of their reports.

Everyone agreed that the first step in dissemination of this report is to share the results with the principals themselves who participated in the study. This step would serve not only as a way of sharing information but the beginning of designing a personnel action plan to meet their needs.

Additionally, key lay leadership must be made aware of the situation and involved in thinking about what local communities can do to support lay leaders in efforts to be involved in ongoing professional growth. We decided that Gail and Alan would be in touch with each community's leadership team to discuss ways in which CIJE might be helpful in making this case and collaborating on creating such strategies.

VI. CIJE UPDATE

Barry and Gail gave a brief update of some current CIJE projects;

1. Best Practices volume on JCC's-- will be available in early 1996
2. CIJE's planning involvement in upcoming retreat for alumni of Wexner Heritage Program, taking place at the beginning of December
3. TEI -- Teacher Educator Institute (we began to discuss recruitment of candidates for next year's cohort)
4. Harvard Principal's Institute scheduled for March to include both participants from last year and new participants this year. (Fall, '96)