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Manual for the CIJE Study of Educators. Staff meeting materials, August 1995.

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TO: CIJE TEAM

FROM: GAIL DORPH AND ELLEN GOLDRING

RE: AUGUST 24TH STAFF MEETING

ENCLOSED YOU WILL FIND AGENDA AND READINGS TO HELP FRAME OUR DISCUSSION. LOOKING FORWARD TO SEEING YOU AT 9:30 AM ON AUGUST 24 AT CIJE OFFICE IN NY.

STAFF MEETING: AUGUST 24, 1995

9:30 - 4:30

The purpose of this staff meeting is develop CIJE's response to the leadership study. We will focus particularly on educational leaders in schools, such as principals, vice-principals etc. We will review what is happening in the field of general education (both in public and private education) and juxtapose this with findings from the MEF report on educational leaders and results from a review of programs offered by Institutions of Higher Jewish Learning.

Enclosed are a number of readings. These will help us familiarize ourselves with some of the issues facing the field.

AGENDA

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

A. Do such standards exist in the field of Jewish education?
B. How do the leaders in the LC's compare to these standards?

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

A. What are some of the major design and curricular issues that serve as the framework for these programs?
B. What are some of the differences between training and development programs for teachers and leaders?
C. What programs exist for educational leaders of Jewish schools?

III. CIJE's Response to Study of Educational Leaders

A. Are there standards that we want to articulate and advocate?

-- What is the focus of the content of the standards?

B. What kind of programs does CIJE want to:
Shape?
Invent?
Implement?

--What is the focus of the content of the programs?

C. Do our responses to the above questions vary according to the settings in which Jewish ed takes place?

D. How do we respond to local needs:
--Planning in response to LC's local community reports on educational leaders and furthering personnel action plans.

E. How do we respond to national needs?
--Are we going to work through institutions (i.e., impact the design of certification programs at JTS)?
-- Are we going to create a center for leadership training for senior personnel/or even not so senior personnel?
--Given the lack of pre-service training, do we focus on in-service?

IV. NEXT STEPS:

A. Discussion Paper on Leadership: How are we going to use it?

B. Policy Brief:
--Is there going to be one?
--What's going to be its take?
--Time frame
--Audience

C. If we intend to move ahead with this agenda, what would it take?
-- For example, advisory committee to deliberate on implementation of this agenda (that is, in the same way we brought in an advisory group to work with us on prodev, shouldn't we be "taking in an advisory group" to deliberate with us?)

D. Workplan to move it ahead

V. MEF WORKPLAN -- 1995-96

A. Manual --what's left to be done

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

NPBEA
National Policy Board for Educational Administration

STANDARDS

The Licensure of School Administrators: Policy and Practice

AN ISSUE PAPER BY:

CARL R. ASHBAUGH
KATHERINE L. KASTEN

JUNE 1992

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

> Current licensure procedures do a great disservice because they propose to designate individuals particularly suited by character, intelligence, and skill to administer schools; but that claim is indefensible (*National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration*, 1988, 21).

Policies related to licensure of school administrators have a number of purposes. The report of the National Commission on Excellence In Educational Administration (1988), cited above, noted a disparity between what licensure procedures appear to do and what they actually accomplish. By establishing standards for the licensure of professionals seeking to practice in a variety of professions, states exercise a crucial function. Consumers are protected from harm by unscrupulous, poorly prepared, or incompetent practitioners.

Given these purposes, states might use one or more policy instruments such as mandates, inducements, capacity building, and system-changing (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). For example, state control over preservice training and certification is generally exercised in a set of mandates that detail the requirements for licensure. Performance accountability systems, such as merit pay systems and evaluation and supervision procedures, might be implemented as mandates or inducements. Professional development involves capacity building. State efforts to change teacher role definitions in initiatives such as career ladders and mentor teacher programs are system-changing mechanisms.

During the 1980s, states focused much of their efforts on measures to enhance the preservice training and licensure for teachers and administrators—mandates in the area of personnel training. In a mid-1980s national survey, 46 percent of the responding state certification officers indicated that state licensure requirements for school administrators had been revised at least once and 62 percent reported that some type of revision was under consideration (Gousha, LoPresti, & Jones, 1988).

States have used the modification of licensure specifications as a primary instrument for ensuring the quality of educators who practice within the state. They have also taken more control relative to institutions of higher education and school districts in detailing the policies to receive and maintain some form of educational licensure.

In an analysis of policy issues in teacher education, Mary M. Kennedy (1991) noted three problems related to teacher quality: the problem of representation, constructing a teaching force that represents the diversity

of the students being served; the problem of ability, ensuring that teachers have a certain level of intellectual ability; and the problem of improved practice, ensuring that professionals are capable in the classroom. Kennedy argued that policies designed to address one problem may or may not be relevant to addressing another. Policymakers often assume, for example, that problems related to performance can be solved by policies related to selection. Similar confusions are evident in the licensure of school administrators.

The purposes of this study were twofold: to describe current, widely varied state practices in the licensure of school administrators; and to identify salient policy issues with attention to recommendations for best professional practice, including those in reports issued by the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (1988) and the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (1989, 1990).

METHODOLOGY

Our primary source of data was the report *Teacher Education Policy in the States* (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, December 1990). This document reports the results of a biannual survey conducted by the AACTE State Issues Clearinghouse, established to monitor and analyze state reform and supported by AACTE and the Ford Foundation. In 1990, a section on administrator licensure was included in the survey for the first time. Data described in this section of the survey were generated in response to a rather general question posed to representatives of state agencies. Data were available for 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Limitations in the data constrained our analysis. Because specific questions were not asked and discrete categories were not used for reporting responses, responses were given based on the respondent's personal understanding of the questioner's interests and intents. Comparisons using the data are thus problematic. Absence of information about a specific state's requirements, for example, does not mean that the state does not have requirements in that area. In analyzing the data, we sought to identify patterns of responses. Thus, while we cannot speak with absolute assurance about the requirements within a specific state, our generalizations about the 51 reporting units are reasonably accurate. Moreover, our major concern was with those policy issues emerging from composite state licensure requirements, not with the exact requirements of a particular state. Readers interested in a more detailed treatment of requirements for administrative licensure in specific states are encouraged to consult the publications of the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC).

To compare the requirements of the reporting units, we selected common points of comparison—for example, entry-level requirements, minimum requirements, or maximum requirements. We know that, in most states, a local district has the option to require that its principals meet more than minimum licensure requirements. Alaska, for example, has a principal's license, but state standards indicate that principals are only required to hold a teaching license. The data do not indicate the type of license required for principals in most Alaskan districts. Our analysis may not, then, always reflect the modal requirements in effect in a given state.

States vary in the kinds of licenses they require. A few states require specific licenses for a broad array of administrative positions. Michigan, for example, has specific licenses for elementary and secondary administrators,

superintendents, central administrators, and chief school business officials. Administrative credentials available in Indiana include director of reading, director of school services, director of vocational education programs, and director of special education programs. By contrast, Alabama now requires a single, generic administrator certificate that covers all school administrative positions. Most states prescribe licensure requirements to cover two general classifications—building-level or district-level positions. We chose to focus our analysis on the license most commonly in use at each of these levels: the school principal and the superintendent. We analyzed the data available by comparing licensure requirements for these two administrative levels across a number of dimensions.

LICENSURE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Forty-one of the 51 reporting units require some type of licensure specifically for the principalship. Of the 10 states not requiring a specific principal's license, nine require generic administrative licensure. In the 10th state, Alaska, principal licensure is discretionary. Within the group of 41 reporting units that require a principal's license, 15 stipulate a principalship endorsement in addition to a generic administrative license. The remaining 26 states have a specific license designated for the principalship, rather than an endorsement on a generic administrative license. Another distinction within the 41 reporting units is that 26 designate a level for the principal license, usually elementary or secondary. The other 15 have a general license for principals or a general principal endorsement that permits the holder to administer at all grade levels.

For individuals to qualify for the initial license, most states require a master's degree (n=36) or a master's degree plus additional graduate credit hours (n=3). In 10 other states, some graduate credit is required, and one state requires no graduate credit (Alaska). Although most states do not stipulate an academic major for the master's degree, many states (n=30) require that holders of the license complete a specified number of graduate credit hours in the field of educational administration or some other coursework related to the desired license.

Due to uneven reporting, we can only offer the most tentative descriptions about the extent to which states specify the content of graduate studies required of those seeking to qualify for a principal's license. In 23 of the reporting units, the state specifies the content of graduate studies. For 10 of the units, descriptions of the required content areas for graduate study were available. Twelve additional states reported using program approval as the means through which they will agree to license applicants recommended to them from an institution of higher education. Although we cannot be certain of the degree to which these states dictate the content of administrator preparation programs, we can infer that some level of state control is present.

In the 10 reporting units for which some information was available about the content of academic preparation required for the initial license, 22 different content areas were identified. Only three content areas

(administration and leadership, curriculum, and supervision of instruction) were requirements in at least five states. Three other areas (personnel, law, and education of special populations) were listed as areas of content in at least three states. Other areas of content were required in one or two states. This situation suggests that the states do not agree on the appropriate knowledge base for the principalship.

One-third of the reporting units (n=17) require a clinical component as part of initial licensure. States use a variety of terms to describe this clinical component: internship, field experience, practicum, and clinical experience. We are unsure from the data whether these experiences are operationally different, as the use of different terms or descriptors would imply. In several states, on-the-job experience can be used to satisfy the internship requirement. In other states, the completion of a clinical or field experience is apparently required as part of a university-based preparation program.

The majority of reporting units require teaching experience as a prerequisite to licensure. Of the 45 states that require teaching experience, 15 stipulate that the experience must be gained at the level of the license sought. Twenty percent of the states permit substitution of some other professional experience to satisfy the teaching requirement.

To secure principalship licensure, some states require that candidates take an examination. Twenty percent of all reporting units require that candidates for licensure pass the specialty area test of the National Teachers Examination. Four states have developed their own examinations for applicants for a principal's license.

States have established terms of validity for their licenses. In four states, the initial license is permanent. Forty states grant an initial license for some limited term and then require the holder to either renew or upgrade within a specified period of time. In five of these states, upgrading the license will ultimately lead to permanent licensure. In 14 other states, upgrading results in a term license. Altogether, 41 states do not offer permanent licensure and license holders are required to renew their licenses through a process that typically includes some combination of professional experience, graduate study, performance assessment, and professional development. The requirements for upgrade and renewal are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Requirements for Principals to Upgrade or Renew Licenses

Requirement	To Upgrade Licenses (states)	To Renew Licenses (states)*
Graduate study	6	5
Position experience	7	7
Graduate study and experience	6	5
Graduate study or experience	—	2
Graduate study or professional development	—	7
Experience or professional development	—	2
Professional development	—	10
No requirements specified	—	4
TOTAL STATES	19	42

*Although Pennsylvania grants permanent licensure, holders are required to take six hours of graduate credit every five years. Pennsylvania's requirements are included here.

In those states that offer differing grades of licensure, graduate study at an institution of higher education and professional experience are the exclusive requirements for upgrading a principalship license. This means that the mechanisms for upgrading licenses, although specified by the states, rest with postsecondary institutions and school districts. States might control the nature of these academic and professional experiences by defining required areas of graduate study and mandating specific professional experiences; for example, six states require those who upgrade a license to successfully complete beginning administrator programs or performance assessments, and in at least three states, the content of coursework is specified.

In contrast, states sanction a wider array of options for license renewal. Professional development and professional experience are more frequently required than graduate study. States apparently exercise less control over the professional experience required to renew a license than they do for upgrading a license. That is, states may specify a number of years of experience required for renewal but typically do not specify the content of that experience. In 19 states, professional development is either a requirement or an option for license renewal. Although the data are unclear, we assume that a variety of groups might be the providers and definers of professional development opportunities: professional associations, state departments of education, local school districts, regional or intermediate educational agencies, and institutions of higher education. The state's role

in approving these professional development experiences is not clear, even though we assume that, in every case, the state education agency exercises final approval of an applicant's request for license renewal.

In summary, 41 of the 51 reporting units require some type of licensure for the principalship, with 26 states designating the level—usually elementary and secondary administration. To qualify for the initial license, individuals in most states are required to have a master's degree or a master's degree plus additional graduate credit hours. One-third of the reporting units require a clinical component for the initial licensure. The majority of the reporting units require teaching experience as a prerequisite to licensure, often stipulating that the experience must be at the level of the license sought. Twenty percent of all reporting units require that candidates pass the specialty area test of the National Teachers Examination. Four states have developed their own examinations for applicants for a principal's license. In four states, the initial license is permanent; 40 states grant an initial license for some limited term and then require the holder to either renew or upgrade within a specified period of time. Requirements for upgrade vary, but, in general, graduate study in institutions of higher education and professional experience are required. License renewal more frequently involves professional development and professional experience than graduate study. Licensure requirements for the principalship are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2: Summary of State Requirements for Principals[1]

	Specific Principal License	School Level Specified	Master's or Higher Degree Required	Clinical Component Required	Examination Required	Teaching Experience Required	License Renewal Required
Alabama				X		X	X
Alaska							X
Arizona	X	X	X	X		X	X
Arkansas	X	X	X		X	X	X
California						X	X[3]
Colorado	X	X				X	X
Connecticut	X		X			X	X
Delaware	X	X	X			X	X
District of Columbia			X			X	X
Florida	X		X		X[2]	X	X
Georgia			X	X		X	X
Hawaii	X					X	
Idaho	X	X	X	X		X	X
Illinois	X		X	X		X	X
Indiana	X	X				X	X
Iowa	X	X	X			X	X
Kansas	X	X	X			X	X
Kentucky	X	X	X	X		X	X
Louisiana	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Maine	X		X	X		X	X
Maryland	X		X			X	X
Massachusetts	X	X		X		X	
Michigan	X	X	X			X	X
Minnesota	X	X	X	X		X	X
Mississippi	X		X		X	X	X
Missouri	X	X	X	X		X	X
Montana	X	X	X			X	X
Nebraska	X	X	X				X
Nevada			X			X	X
New Hampshire	X		X			X	X
New Jersey	X		X		X		X[3]
New Mexico			X	X	X	X	X
New York				X		X	X[3]
N. Carolina	X		X		X		X
N. Dakota	X	X				X	X
Ohio	X	X	X		X	X	X[3]
Oklahoma	X	X	X	X	X[2]	X	X
Oregon	X		X		X		X
Pennsylvania	X	X				X	X
Rhode Island	X	X	X		X	X	X[3]
S. Carolina	X	X	X		X	X	X
S. Dakota	X	X	X			X	X
Tennessee			X			X	X
Texas	X		X	X	X[2]	X	
Utah			X	X			X
Vermont	X					X	X
Virginia	X	X	X			X	X
Washington	X	X		X		X	X
W. Virginia	X	X	X		X[2]	X	X
Wisconsin	X	X				X	X
Wyoming	X		X			X	X

[1] Inclusion of a state in a column indicates that the state has this requirement for licensure. The number of times a state is listed in the table provides a rough estimate of the degree of regulation in the state.

[2] State examination

[3] Permanent license available

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LICENSURE FOR SUPERINTENDENTS

Of the 51 reporting units, 39 require a license specifically for the superintendent—either a superintendent's license (n=23) or a superintendent's endorsement on a general administrative license (n=16). (Although Pennsylvania commissions rather than licenses school superintendents, the state is included here in the analysis of prerequisites for holding office.) Of the 12 states not requiring a superintendent's license, eight states offer a general administrative license and four states require no specific license for the superintendent.

For an individual to qualify for the initial superintendent's license, most states require a master's degree (n=26) or work beyond the master's degree (n=11). In eight other states, some graduate study is required. Two states require only the bachelor's degree.

For 12 reporting units, some information was available about the content of academic preparation required for the initial license. Of the 26 different content areas described as part of licensure requirements, only three (curriculum, personnel, and business management) were requirements in at least five states. Four other areas (foundations of education, administration, policy studies, and supervision of instruction) were listed as areas of content in three states. Other areas of content were required in one or two states. This situation suggests that the states do not define a common knowledge base for the superintendency.

States differ more in the experience requirements for the initial license than they do in the academic preparation required. Of the 47 states that require a superintendent's license or a generic administrative license, three have no experience requirements. Of the 44 states that require some previous experience, 18 require both teaching and administrative experience, 17 require teaching experience only, three require administrative experience only, four require teaching or administrative experience, and two require teaching or other comparable experience. Fewer states require a practicum or clinical experience prior to receipt of the superintendent's license (n=11) than the principal's license (n=17).

As with the principal's license, some states require passing an examination as part of the licensure process for the superintendency. With the exception of two states in which an examination is required for principals' licensure but not for superintendents' licensure, states that require an ex-

amination for the principal license also require the same examination for the superintendency.

States generally require some combination of education, professional development, and experience to upgrade and renew the superintendent's license. Only six states offer a permanent superintendent's license. In two of these states, the permanent certificate is the initial certificate. In four other states, superintendents must upgrade their licenses before receiving a permanent license. In the 41 remaining states, the initial license and the highest-level license available for the superintendency have a specified validity period. The validity period ranges from one year to 10 years, with the modal state having a validity period of five years. The requirements to upgrade and renew superintendent licenses are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Requirements for Superintendents to Upgrade or Renew Licenses

Requirement	To Upgrade Licenses (states)	To Renew Licenses (states)
Graduate study	4	10
Position experience	4	8
Graduate study and experience	4	3
Graduate study or experience	—	3
Graduate study or professional development	—	4
Experience or professional development	1	1
Professional development	—	6
No requirements specified	—	5
TOTAL STATES	13	40

As with the principalship, upgrading the superintendent's license is done primarily through graduate study and experience. The only exception is one state that permits the license holder to substitute professional development credit for experience. Again, postsecondary institutions and school districts play primary roles in upgrading licenses.

States have more varied requirements for renewal of the superintendent's license. Graduate study and position experience are still, however, the primary modes of license renewal.

In summary, 39 states require a license for the superintendency. Most of these require a master's degree or additional graduate study beyond the master's degree. Experience requirements for a superintendent's license

are more extensive than those for a principal's license. Approximately one-half of the states that have a superintendent's license require both teaching and administrative experience. Examination requirements parallel those of the principalship. In most states, both the initial and the highest levels of superintendency licensure have a specified validity period. As with the principalship, movement from the initial to the highest level of licensure is achieved through graduate study and experience. Position experience, graduate study, and professional development are the means for license renewal established by most states. Licensure requirements for the superintendency are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4: Summary of State Requirements for Superintendents[1]

	Specific Superintendent License	Master's or Higher Degree Required	Clinical Component Required	Examination Required	Teaching and Admin Experience Required	License Renewal Required
Alabama		X				X
Alaska	X				X	X
Arizona	X	X	X			X
Arkansas		X		X		X
California						
Colorado	X					X
Connecticut	X	X			X	X
Delaware	X	X	X		X	X
District of Columbia		X				X
Florida						
Georgia		X	X			X
Hawaii						
Idaho	X	X				X
Illinois	X	X			X	X
Indiana	X	X			X	X
Iowa	X	X				X
Kansas	X	X				X
Kentucky	X	X			X	X
Louisiana	X	X			X	X
Maine	X	X	X		X	X
Maryland	X	X			X	X
Massachusetts	X		X			
Michigan	X					X
Minnesota	X	X	X			X
Mississippi						
Missouri	X					X
Montana	X	X				X
Nebraska	X	X				X
Nevada		X				X
New Hampshire	X	X				X
New Jersey	X	X		X	X	X[3]
New Mexico		X	X	X		X
New York		X	X			X[3]
N. Carolina	X	X		X		X
N. Dakota	X	X			X	X
Ohio	X			X[2]	X	X[3]
Oklahoma	X			X[2]	X	X
Oregon	X	X	X	X		X
Pennsylvania	X	X			X	X
Rhode Island	X	X		X	X	X[3]
S. Carolina	X	X		X	X	X
S. Dakota	X	X			X	X
Tennessee	X	X				X
Texas	X	X	X	X[2]		
Utah		X				X
Vermont	X		X		X	X
Virginia	X	X				X
Washington	X	X				X
W. Virginia	X	X				X
Wisconsin	X					X
Wyoming	X	X				X

[1] Inclusion of a state in a column indicates that the state has this requirement for licensure. The number of times a state is listed provides a rough estimate of the degree of regulation in the state. Data was not available for all states.

[2] State examination

[3] Permanent license available

Extent of Licensure Regulation

Highly regulatory states exhibit most of the following characteristics:

- Licenses are limited to specific levels of schooling.
- Several grades of licenses are used.
- Licensure is granted for a term, not on a permanent basis.
- Teaching experience is prerequisite, sometimes at the specific level of licensure.
- A master's or higher graduate degree is required for entry.
- The preparation program must include a practicum or internship.
- The academic content of the preparation program is state-specified.
- A state or national exam is required prior to initial licensure.

The extent to which these points are not evident in state licensure provisions may be used to characterize that state as comparatively unregulated. Rough comparisons of the degree of regulation are given in Tables 2 and 4. States that more strictly regulate licensure are listed in several categories in each table. Those that regulate less appear less in the tables.

Four states were selected to represent the extremes of state administrative licensure regulation: Louisiana and Minnesota (comparatively high regulation), and Alaska and Alabama (comparatively low regulation).

Louisiana

Louisiana has separate licenses for elementary and secondary principals. Licensure requires a teaching credential with five years of teaching experience; a master's degree including 30 semester hours in educational administration; and a score of 620 on the administration section of the National Teachers Examination. Initial licensure is provisional, with regular licensure obtained after a two-year internship as either a principal or assistant principal. The regular license must be renewed every five years and requires successful on-the-job performance evaluations. To secure a Louisiana superintendent's endorsement, individuals must earn a master's

degree with 48 hours of graduate work in educational administration and six hours in another field. They also must have five years each of teaching experience and successful school administrative experience. The initial endorsement is valid for two years; the continuing endorsement is valid for five years and renewable with successful performance evaluations.

Minnesota

Minnesota, like Louisiana, requires separate licenses for elementary and secondary principals and offers two grades of license: initial and continuing. Initial licensure for the principalship requires three years of teaching experience under a teaching license at the same level as administrative licensure; a master's degree and 45 additional credits in the administrative area for which licensure is sought, including 200 clock hours of field experience. The second grade of licensure, continuing, may be obtained after one year of administrative experience. Continuing licenses are valid for five years and may be renewed with 125 clock hours of approved administrative continuing education and 75 hours of individual professional development activity. Requirements for the initial superintendent license parallel those for the initial elementary and secondary principal license. The holder of a principal's license who wishes to quality for superintendent licensure must complete 45 additional graduate credits in the superintendency or obtain a specialist or doctoral degree. Requirements for obtaining the continuing superintendent's license and renewing the license are identical to those for the principal's license.

Alaska

In Alaska, principals are required minimally to hold the state's Type A teaching certificate. To hold a Type B certificate, which is an unleveled principalship license, an individual must have three years of teaching experience and complete an approved administrative program. Both the teaching license and the administrator license are term licenses and must be renewed every five years with six hours of upper-division credit. An Alaska superintendent's endorsement can be obtained with three years of teaching experience, one year of administrative experience, and completion of an approved administrative program. The credential is valid for five years and may be renewed with six hours of upper-division credit.

Alabama

Alabama is a second example of a state with comparatively little regulation. Individuals may obtain a generic administrative credential with a teacher's license, three years of teaching or instructional support experience, 18 semester hours in educational administration, and a 300-hour internship. This license is valid for 10 years and qualifies the holder for any school administrative position in the state.

One might conclude from these descriptions that even the most regulated states lack some of the possible components of regulation and even the least regulated states show certain characteristics of regulation. This is to be expected in licensing procedures that involve 51 different units, each of which responds to a variety of political influences.

ALTERNATIVE LICENSURE

Much has been written in recent years about alternative preparation for licensure. The AACTE survey that served as our primary data source included a specific response category to identify the extent to which alternative licensure is available among the reporting units. When asked to describe the types of alternative preparation programs for teachers, 38 states indicated they have some alternate licensure provisions. Four other states indicated that an alternative licensure route was under consideration, while nine indicated that no alternative existed and none was under consideration at the time.

Responses to the same question about administrative licensure yielded quite different results. Only nine states reported established alternative licensure procedures for administrators. Of these, six reported alternative routes for both principals and superintendents (Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oregon, Texas, and West Virginia). Two states (Arizona and New York) reported alternative licensure only for superintendents, and Hawaii's alternative licensure is only for principals.

We are uncertain about the reason for the disparity between the number of alternative preparation programs for teachers and the number for administrators. One possible explanation is that alternative programs appear in response to a shortage in the number of professionals available for certain positions. This explanation fits particularly well in reporting units that described emergency or temporary licenses as one form of alternative licensure. Hawaii, for example, offers an alternative route because of principal shortages in certain geographic areas. Few states, however, have experienced a shortage of professionals with the credentials for administrative positions (Bliss, 1988).

The most common characteristic of alternative licensure programs for administrators is the substitution of managerial experience in professions for traditional teaching and administrative experience in education. This feature might be better explained by a general dissatisfaction with the type of administrative leadership provided by those who have traveled traditional preparation routes than by shortages of those prepared through traditional routes.

Discussion of The Issues

By and large, alternative programs leading to administrative licensure do not present a radical departure from traditional preparation programs. Licenses received are either limited in scope (e.g., to the requesting school district, as in New York) or are temporary while the holder meets the standard requirements for an administrator license.

Most state constitutions have provisions that make education a legal responsibility of the state. Although responsibility for the day-to-day operation of schools typically is delegated to school district boards of education, a great deal of educational governance is exercised at the state level.

One prime example of state control is the establishment of regulations pertaining to the licensing of school personnel. All states have assumed the function of licensing individuals who are permitted to teach or administer the schools of the state. Because states exercise plenary responsibility for education, control over the licensure of those seeking positions in the public school lies within the legitimate purview of each state. Licensure assures the citizenry that educational professionals are qualified and that the educational interests of students, parents, and the general public are protected. No national credentialing agency should assume this state obligation. *Policy recommendation 1: Licensure should continue to rest with the states because of the compelling state interest in the quality of licensed school administrators. National credentialing should be discretionary and, if developed, used only as evidence that professionals have gone beyond minimum standards for full licensure to proficiency in the field.*

Preparation programs and professional associations, along with representatives of school boards, have a legitimate interest and stake in the licensure of school administrators. State-level decisionmakers should fully recognize the roles of these groups, and should incorporate their representatives into the process of setting standards for administrative licensure.

One way to appropriately empower these relevant constituent groups is through the utilization of administrative licensure boards by each state. Licensure boards could perform functions such as establishing standards, examining candidates, and issuing and revoking licenses. Although these boards would be created by and subject to legislative authority, they would provide a viable means for ensuring that consumer rights and prerogatives were properly safeguarded, as well as enhancing the professionalization of school administration. Licensure boards would also provide state agencies

with another means to solidify their influence by maintaining a coalition with state educators and related interest groups (Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, & Usdan, 1990). *Policy recommendation 2: State licensure boards for school administrators should be established in each state.*

How the states exercise their authority in licensure raises several policy issues. We have grouped the remaining policy recommendations into three areas: the knowledge base for school administration practice, the experiences required for novice and fully licensed professionals, and professional development requirements that are appropriate for school administrators.

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE

Four policy issues apply to the educational administration knowledge base:

- generic vs. role-specific administrative licensure;
- state specification of the particular knowledge base;
- the use of examinations to test the knowledge base; and
- the appropriate state role in ensuring that licensed administrators have an adequate knowledge base.

In nine states, administrative licensure is generic rather than role-specific. The administrative license in those states permits the holder to serve in any building- or district-level position. Other states distinguish among the requirements for licensure for various administrative roles. We believe such differentiation is justified, if at all, only on the basis of the particular concerns related to learning, curriculum, and instruction associated with each position. Moreover, we believe that administrators at all levels should be familiar with child development and adult learning theory.

Whether citizens are better served by specific licensure requirements for each of several administrative roles or by generic administrative license requirements is a policy issue that warrants further consideration. *Policy recommendation 3: Simplification of the licensure requirements through a generic license in educational administration is legitimate deregulation and should be seriously considered by states that have a proliferation of licensure requirements.*

Any assertion that we have a well-defined or common knowledge base for the practice of educational administration is problematic. Members of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration were unable to agree on the appropriate content for administration program curricula and dropped the issue (Bradley, 1990). The National Policy Board for Educational Administration and the University Council on Educational Admininstration defined seven broad areas of knowledge and skills:

> societal and cultural influences on schooling, teaching and learning processes sensitive to individual differences, theories of organization and organizational change, methodologies of organizational studies and policy analysis, leadership and management processes and functions, policy studies including issues of law, politics, and economic dimensions

of education, moral and ethical dimensions of schooling in a pluralistic society (*Improving the Preparation of School Administrators*, 1989).

Preparation programs, professional associations, national accrediting agencies, and local school boards all have a legitimate interest and stake in the licensure of school administrators, including definitions of the knowledge base. We believe that the knowledge base for educational administration is best defined at a national level through the involvement of relevant constituent groups. Although the definition advanced by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration has been criticized as too broad (Bradley, 1990), this is the kind of national definition we believe is appropriate.

We are confident that a knowledge base can be identified that builds upon the knowledge base for successful teaching. This knowledge base is best learned once professionals have obtained teaching certification and practiced as teachers. *Policy recommendation 4: Licensure in school administration should require a substantial number of graduate credits in educational administration, either as part of or in addition to a master's degree.*

As illustrated in the above analysis, certain states detail the knowledge requirements for the preservice preparation of school administrators. Little commonality is found, however, in the course or subject-matter requirements for licensure. Little support for the specific requirements outlined by some states can be found in the management and administration literature. Moreover, some state specifications on the knowledge base are frequently seen as unreasonable and opposing what academics or practitioners believe can be legitimately supported by the profession's knowledge base (see, for example, Prestine, 1991). Further, these specifications often appear to respond to supply-and-demand cycles in the workplace rather than to requirements that ensure a competent, well-qualified, professional work force. Other states apparently give substantial programmatic discretion to institutions with approved programs for preparing education personnel.

Specificity in the knowledge base required for initial or advanced levels of licensure is particularly problematic. If the knowledge base is set in state policy mandates, it is difficult to change. Moreover, state specifications provide little room for creativity and flexibility in program definition (Goodlad, 1990). If it is not set in policy, decisions about competence are deferred to others. *Policy recommendation 5: Those states that have defined the curriculum for the prelicensing preparation of school administrators should deregulate in this area.*

States that are reluctant to lose control over the curriculum have options other than specifying the curriculum in state policy. In several states, state review of teacher and administrator preparation programs for program approval and review of the programs against national standards of best professional practice have been combined. Four options for integrating state program review and national accreditation have been approved by the

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). These options range from separate but concurrent review of the programs by the state agency and an NCATE team (Option One) to state acceptance of the NCATE decision regarding accreditation for purposes of state approval (Option Four). As of November 1990, 18 states had agreements with NCATE to use one of the four options. *Policy recommendation 6: States should coordinate their reviews of preparation programs in educational administration and teacher education with NCATE accreditation.*

Our recommendations about the knowledge base also have implications for testing programs. Educational consumers and state policymakers have demonstrated in the past decade a desire for concrete measures of competence for entry to teaching and administration. If general agreement on the knowledge base cannot be reached, state examinations are likely to be idiosyncratic in their definition of the knowledge base and unable to sustain legal challenges to their validity. If some general agreement on the knowledge base can be reached, test development at the state level would be unnecessarily expensive and involve inappropriate duplication of effort. Instead, state boards of licensure should cooperate on the development of a common testing program. Expectations for this examination should be modest. All that such examinations can accomplish is the verification that applicants for a license have a certain minimum level of knowledge that will of necessity be a small share of what an experienced and proficient administrator should know.

Initial licensure can only identify minimal standards. Moreover, knowledge in education continues to develop, and notions of effective practice evolve. For these reasons, administrators should be socialized to the understanding that learning about learning is a lifetime obligation. Nine states currently issue permanent licenses for the principalship, and six states issue permanent licenses for the superintendency. *Policy recommendation 7: States that offer permanent administrative licensure should revise licensure requirements so that licenses are valid for a specific term and renewal requires continuing professional development.*

As noted above, authority over licensure should remain with the states. In defining the knowledge base, however, states should share the responsibility with other relevant constituent groups and defer to understandings forged in other arenas. This mixture of state interest with the interests of other professional groups would seem to best serve all, including the individual practitioner. Common agreement on the knowledge base and an exam to test it are important steps toward making licensure in educational administration portable from state to state. Holding postsecondary preparation programs to a set of professional standards would ensure the quality of those programs without compromising opportunities for them to develop their unique manifestations and program vision.

EXPERIENCES REQUIRED FOR LICENSURE

Ideally, licensure as a school administrator should indicate more than just familiarity with minimal knowledge about the field. Citizens want assurance that state-licensed practitioners have skills that qualify them for their positions. These skills and abilities are best ascertained through school administration practice, not study of the field. States differ, however, in the experience requirements for initial and other levels of licensure. These variations in state requirements raise policy issues about the relationship between teaching experience and administrative licensure, the suitability of alternative licensure for school administrators, and requirements regarding clinical experience as part of administrative preparation and professional development programs.

As noted earlier, most states require teaching experience as a prerequisite to licensure as a building-level principal. Thirty-five states require teaching experience as a prerequisite to licensure as a school superintendent. These provisions recognize teaching and learning as the core technology of schools (Murphy, 1991b). Administrators must be intimately familiar with that technology in order to be effective and to establish credibility with colleagues and community. *Policy recommendation 8: Teaching experience should be required for licensure in school administration.*

Alternate licensure requirements for administrators are available in only 20 percent of the states and generally permit the substitution of managerial experience in professional fields other than education for teaching and administrative experience in education. This, too, raises an important policy issue. If schools are fundamentally places of teaching and learning, the substitution of managerial experience in other organizations may not be legitimate unless one can establish competence also in teaching and learning.

Alternative licensure programs that permit circumvention of the requirements for teaching experience are not warranted. As noted earlier, shortages of professionals licensed in school administration are limited to a few geographic locations. While school boards and school administrators may have doubts about the quality of licensed personnel available to fill certain positions, alternative licensure programs are inappropriate responses to concerns about quality. At the same time, we recognize that in large city schools, administrative personnel other than the superintendent are likely to have direct responsibility for the instructional program (e.g., assistant or associate superintendents for curriculum or elementary and secondary curriculum directors). *Policy recommendation 9: For superintendencies in large city schools, alternative certification should be limited to waiving the teaching experience requirement for candidates who can demonstrate extensive comparable experience in other organizations.* Decisions about alternative certification should be made by state licensing boards according to criteria set by such groups as the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (1990).

An essential prerequisite to fully licensed status should be successful performance in an administrative position. We believe that additional graduate study is an appropriate requirement for full licensure. When the initial license can be obtained with a master's degree, graduate study alone should not be sufficient for full licensure. Currently, six states permit the upgrade of a principal's license on the basis of graduate study only, and four states permit the upgrade of the superintendent's license on the same basis. *Policy recommendation 10: States that permit full licensing of administrators on the sole basis of additional graduate credits should discontinue this practice and instead require evidence of successful experience for full licensure.*

If a license to practice is to represent more than minimal knowledge about a field, licensing should entail verification that the candidate possesses entry skills appropriate to the position. The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration recommended that licensure include assessment of the candidate's communication skills as well as pedagogy, management, and leadership skills (1988, p. 22). Preparation programs should include substantial clinical components in field experiences and simulations (Hallinger & Murphy, 1991; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 1989). As Murphy (1991a) noted, university faculties in educational leadership have increased the attention they give to the clinical components of graduate programs. Whether this increased attention is sufficient has yet to be established. Clinical components are expensive, and university financial commitments to programs in school administration have historically been limited. *Policy recommendation 11: Initial licensure should entail the establishment of minimal skill in administrative practice. This is best accomplished by deferring to preparation programs the obligation for documenting skill attainment through assessment centers, administrative portfolios, or clinical experience. Moreover, institutions for graduate study should be obligated to develop the clinical components of their programs in collaboration with school districts and other professional groups.* Several mechanisms for collaboration are available, and decisions about how to collaborate are best left to individual institutions.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Once permanent licensure is eliminated (see policy recommendation 7), all school administrators will assume the obligation for continued professional development. Moreover, school administrators should support this aspect of professionalism even in the absence of explicit state requirements.

One policy issue is the degree to which states should specify the particular professional development experiences that qualify candidates for license renewal. Greater state control can be obtained through greater specificity. Specificity also means, however, that license renewal requirements are more difficult to change, less responsive to individual needs

and concerns, and less responsive to changes in the knowledge base for administrative practice. Moreover, specificity is generally implemented through policy mandates and has adverse as well as desirable consequences. Mandates generally are written as minimum standards for compliance, not optimal or maximum requirements (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). Hallinger & Murphy (1991) made a similar point in their discussion of professional development:

> State-mandated programs, regardless of quality, send a mixed message. On the one hand, mandated participation in professional development appears to signal the importance of professional growth. On the other hand, mandated growth ignores the individual needs of principals and models a process of development and change that runs counter to the role principals themselves must play in reshaping the culture of schools (p. 519).

Mandates have limited capacity to change behavior or attitudes.

Evaluation of recent efforts related to professional development is badly needed. Initiatives such as the LEAD program (funded at the federal level through the states), state mandates for administrative staff development, and school district initiatives have expanded the opportunities for in-service training for administrators during the past 10 years. Little evaluation of these programs has been done (Hallinger & Murphy, 1991). *Policy recommendation 12: States should develop broad guidelines for acceptable professional development that emphasize capacity-building rather than specify the precise nature and content of professional development.* Such policy should not be developed without reference to empirical assessments of the effectiveness of past efforts.

In professional development, tensions between professional autonomy and the compelling interests of the state are likely to be evident. We believe that the responsibility for defining and developing acceptable professional development should not rest solely or primarily with any one group. While individuals, school districts, state departments of education, state professional organizations, and universities all have legitimate interests in how professional development is defined, designed, and delivered, the benefits of vesting responsibility in any one group would be outweighed by the disadvantages. Costs of professional development should be shared among the groups with vested interests. States should bear a significant share of the expense, but so, too, should individuals, professional organizations, universities, and school districts. *Policy recommendation 13: One responsibility of a state licensing board should be to coordinate the shared responsibilities of groups with vested interests in the professional development of practicing administrators.*

REPRESENTATION

Licensure requirements are a poor mechanism to use in addressing the problem of representation. Just as it is important that the teaching profession be representative of gender, racial, and ethnic group diversity in the student population, it is important that school administrators reflect that diversity. We could not examine the relationships between licensure and representation given the available data. Numerous other reports and commissions, however, have noted this as a vital area of concern. *Policy recommendation 14: State and national initiatives regarding the licensure of school administrators should include inducements to encourage and support the inclusion of women and racial and ethnic minorities in the profession.*

CONCLUSION

Efforts to improve the practice of school administration through policy related to the licensure of school administrations raise a number of important issues. In general, the policy recommendations offered earlier as a platform for discussion recommend a crucial role for the states in licensure, accompanied by the delegation of responsibility to other agencies. State policy is more likely to be relevant, enlightened, and accepted if it is developed in conjunction with constituent groups. State policy must leave room for local initiatives and local vision and cannot be developed without attention to defensible claims about good administrative practice. Moreover, state policy should not be developed without reference to national standards and trends, including the requirements of national accrediting agencies.

Our recommendations include provisions for collaboration among groups with vested interest in the quality of school administrators. We envision a national policy board which will continue to define the knowledge base for the profession, develop an appropriate national examination, and explore a prestigious, but optional, national certification. We support state licensing boards that would cooperate with a national policy board and national accrediting agencies, give professionals a strong voice in the regulation of the field, and coordinate and define professional development opportunities. We recommend advisory groups to graduate programs in educational administration be established to ensure that those programs are linked to professionals in the field.

While we are aware of the difficulties of collaboration in all of these arenas, we believe that policy efforts isolated from professional organizations and preparation programs and based solely upon mandates for more stringent licensing requirements are doomed to failure. Professions must be improved from within. Policy based on collaboration, inducements, and capacity-building is an important part of the process.

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Dissertation:

The Ph.D. dissertation should constitute an original contribution to the field of Jewish education.

The dissertation proposal must be presented to a committee chosen by the Chair of the Department and justified before it. The result of this deliberation will be summarized in writing by the candidate and a revised plan will be submitted to the committee for approval. This approval will constitute an agreement to allow the candidate to write the dissertation and will be a commitment to its format. The final product will also be defended before the committee.

Principal Certification Program

This certification program provides an opportunity for experienced educators to prepare for administrative, supervisory, and other educational leadership roles in the Jewish day school.

The program can be completed in two summers in residence at the Seminary, and additional course work may be taken during the fall and spring semesters in conjunction with a master's or doctoral degree program.

Requirements for Admission to the Principal's Program

See page 58 for general requirements for admission to the Graduate School. Students who do not have a Master's degree in Judaica or Jewish Education are required to apply for the M.A. degree in Jewish Education together with Principal Certification. In addition, candidates will be required to have significant teaching and/or administrative experience, preferably in a day school. A limited number of students with extensive experience in other settings may be accepted if they can demonstrate the attainment of basic professional skills. Individual students may be required to take specific courses in Jewish education as prerequisites. Upon admission, the candidate will be assigned an advisor who will help with the selection of courses and an internship based upon the individual's academic and professional needs.

Requirements for Certification

Students who have a Master's degree in Judaica or in Jewish Education must take:

1. Two intensive education seminars which focus on the application of theory to day school curriculum development, supervision and administration(6 credits);
2. Two courses in curriculum, administration, school management, and supervision. These courses must be selected with the approval of the departmental advisor (6 credits);
3. Supervised internship in administration (3 credits).

Courses

EDU 2121 **Introduction to Jewish Education** **3 credits**

This seminar seeks to introduce the student to the variety of contexts of Jewish education. Topics include: sociology of the American Jewish community and Jewish educational institutions, philosophical approaches to education, the commonplaces of education, values and Jewish education. Not offered in 1995-96.

EDU 5023z **Models of Leadership:** **3 credits**
Teaching Early Prophets in the Jewish School
Zieleniec/W 10:25-12:15

We shall study stories of early Israelite leadership - from the Judges to the United Kingdom under David - focusing on these questions: What do these stories contribute to our understanding of Jewish history? What are the ideas and values to be derived from them? How do we teach these stories to students in Jewish schools? We shall concentrate on teaching strategies, questioning techniques, and lesson planning.

THE SOLOMON SCHECHTER DAY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED SYNAGOGUE OF CONSERVATIVE JUDAISM

STATEMENT OF REQUIREMENTS FOR AFFILIATION AND ACCREDITATION

I PREAMBLE

The Day Schools chartered by the Solomon Schechter Day School network of the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism possess unique potential for transmitting the vast riches of the Jewish heritage to their students, while maintaining the highest standards in the area of general studies. In order to encourage these Schools to strive for the best results, both in Judaic and in General Studies, the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism Commission on Jewish Education has set up a chartering program in accordance with the rules and requirements set forth below.

II APPLICATION FOR AFFILIATION WITH THE SOLOMON SCHECHTER DAY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

1. A Day School organized by or in formation under the aegis of a congregation affiliated with the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism, or a group of such congregations, a Region of the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism or any other auspices within the Conservative Movement, may apply for affiliation with the Solomon Schechter Day School Association by applying to the Commission for a Provisional Charter.

2. A Day School which is already affiliated with another association may also apply for affiliation with the Solomon Schechter Day School Association, so long as such affiliation does not militate against or violate the Association's minimum standards (both academic and ideological).

III REQUIREMENTS FOR A PROVISIONAL CHARTER

1. General Requirements

   a. The application for the Provisional Charter must be accompanied by a statement establishing that the School has a viable enrollment for at least one class, a supervisor in charge and an existing governing body, and that it meets the standards of the Solomon Schechter Day Schools which include Judaic Studies for a minimum of twelve clock hours of instruction per week.

   b. While the School is in formation, it is free to publicize that it will receive a Provisional Charter once the above requirements have been met. In the interim, until the above items are met, the School will continue to receive consultation and guidance from the Department of Education of the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism.

   c. A Provisional Charter will be valid for a three-year period, after which the Day School Education Committee will reassess the chartering status of the school. A Provisional Charter is extendable once, for one year.

   d. Attestation to the fact that this new School will not impact negatively on any other day school in the area is required. The judgment of the "negative impact" rests in the hands of the Association.

2. Educational Requirements

   a. The Judaic Studies program shall consist of a minimum of twelve clock hours of instruction

per week. Each class day shall include Judaic Studies. Hebrew shall be the primary language of instruction. The Judaic Studies curriculum shall provide for the teaching of beliefs and practices in accordance with the policies laid down by the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism Commission on Jewish Education. (2)

b. The General Studies program shall conform to the requirements of the governmental body under whose jurisdiction the School falls.

c. The curriculum shall provide for the integration of Judaic and General Studies, as interpreted by the Solomon Schechter Day School Association.

3. Personnel Requirements

a. The overall educational supervision of the School shall be vested in a professional trained Jewish educator.

b. The Judaic Studies teachers shall hold licenses recognized by the National Board of License, or other responsible agencies, such as the local Bureau of Jewish Education. The General Studies teachers shall meet the licensing requirements of the governmental educational body under whose jurisdiction the School falls.

c. It is expected that all personnel will exemplify the religious goals of the School while they are in the School, and the Judaic instructors especially (even while they are outside the School), in the areas of *Shabbat* and *kashrut* observance.

4. Organizational Requirements

a. Governing Body

The School shall be governed by a Governing Body (by whatever title it may be designated) which shall meet regularly, and which shall be responsible for the administrative and financial aspects of the School. It is recommended that those who are selected to serve as members of the Governing Body of a school be members of a Conservative congregation.

b. Educational Policies

The School shall have a Board of Education or Education Committee which together with the educational supervisor (by whatever title), and subject to the approval of the governing body, shall set the educational policy and shall make certain that the School's curriculum is properly implemented by the School's professional administration.

c. Religious Standards

The School shall maintain all the norms of religious observance required by the Conservative Movement and shall consult with the local *mara d'atra* who shall have the responsibility to see to it that the policy of the United Synagogue of Conservative Judaism Commission on Jewish Education is implemented. These norms include (but are not limited to) proper provision for the observance of *kashrut*, daily *tefillah*, the observance of *Shabbat* and the holidays, and the maintenance of the mood of a place of Torah.

d. Parent-School Organization

The School shall have a Parent Organization, which shall conduct a program of parent education and other parent activities, subject to the supervision of the Board of Education.

e. Facilities

The School shall be adequately housed, and shall meet the requirements of the local health and safety authorities.

f. Admissions Policy

A Solomon Schechter Day School shall admit only Jewish children (i.e., children born of a Jewish mother, or children who have been converted to Judaism).

The definition of "converted to Judaism" is that definition which the Law Committee of the Conservative Movement has established. The determination as to whether or not the conversion is in keeping with the definition of the Law Committee is to be determined by the *mara d'atra* of the individual affiliate school. The term "*mara d'atra*" is to be understood as meaning a rabbi who is a member of the Rabbinical Assembly and who has been selected (designated) by the School affiliate to determine matters of *halakhah*.

The School may also admit a child whose mother (or both parents) is (are) certified by a rabbi who is a member of the Rabbinical Assembly as being currently enrolled in a formal program leading to her (or their) and/or the child's conversion to the Jewish faith within twelve months of the beginning of the school year.

Affirmation of the child's religion and/or conversion must be contained in the registrant's application for admission. The definition of the term "affirmation" is understood as either information on the application form which clearly establishes the child's mother is Jewish by birth or, if the child's mother is Jewish by conversion and/or the child is Jewish by conversion, the "affirmation" requires a written attestation by the rabbi who headed the *Bet Din* which supervised the conversion.

g. Association Representation

The President of the Governing Body of each Association member School shall automatically serve as a member of the Executive Council of the Solomon Schechter Day School Association.

h. Dues

Association member Schools shall pay annual dues as determined from time to time by the Executive Council of the Solomon Schechter Day School Association.

IV. ACCREDITATION AS A CHARTERED SCHOOL

1. Accreditation as a Chartered School is to be determined by the Day School Education Committee (see Section III, 1c).

2. The Day School Education Committee will request as part of the accreditation program that a School submit a copy of its curriculum, a schedule of a typical week's program, a schedule of classes, and such other related materials as may be called for by the Commission.

3. Individual Charter review, at periodic intervals, will be undertaken by the Association.

V. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

The Solomon Schechter Day School Association desires that a close consultative relationship be established between itself and its member Schools, with the goal of establishing fiscal accountability and responsibility. Naturally, each Association member School retains its own sovereignty in this, as in all other financial matters. Accordingly:

1. The Governing Body of each member School shall be vested with, and exercise final control over, all matters financial.

2. A Budget and Finance Committee of each School shall govern the actual operation of the budget, and shall report to its Governing Body periodically. It is recommended that this report be given at a frequency of no less than once every two months, with a line-by-line report.

3. It is also recommended that expenditures of over $2,000.00 shall not be incurred without prior approval of the Governing Body.

4. It is further recommended that checks issued by Association member Schools shall require double signatures, by two officers of the School, or by their surrogates.

VI. VALIDATION AND ENFORCEMENT

1. To maintain its status, a chartered School shall submit to the Association the minutes of all Board of Education meetings and all meetings of the Governing Body, and shall alert the Association to any and all plans for physical facility modification and/or grade addition or expansion.

2. If a School is found to be in violation of one or more requirements as set down in this document, the Association shall advise the School of this fact, and shall offer its assistance in order to restore the School to required standards.

3. The Association, in consultation with the School, shall set a time limit for the implementation of these standards.

4. If, following the expiration of the time limit set, the School fails to meet the requirements of the Association as set forth above, its Charter shall be revoked and it shall lose its affiliation with the Association.

For additional information please contact
SOLOMON SCHECHTER DAY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION
155 Fifth Avenue, NYC 10010
or call 212-533-7800 ext. 2500

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To	From
Gail Dorph	Robt. Abramson
Co.	Co.
Dept.	Phone #
Fax # 212-592-2646	Fax # 353-9439

Table 86.—Principals in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected characteristics: 1990–91

Selected characteristics	Total[1]	Percent of principals, by highest degree earned[2]				Average years of experience			Average annual salary of principals, by length of work year		
		Bachelor's	Master's	Education specialist	Doctor's and first-professional	As a principal	Other (nonteaching) school position	Outside school position	10 months or less	11 months	12 months
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Public schools											
Total	78,689	1.8	60.5	28.2	9.5	9.3	3.8	0.8	$45,126	$48,377	$52,761
Men	55,256	1.5	62.5	27.5	8.5	10.9	3.8	0.8	45,052	48,318	52,990
Women	23,634	2.5	55.8	29.8	11.8	5.8	3.8	0.8	45,252	48,508	52,099
Race/ethnicity											
White, non-Hispanic	67,794	1.7	60.5	28.6	9.1	9.6	3.7	0.8	44,645	48,184	52,674
Black, non-Hispanic	6,770	0.9	57.8	27.4	13.9	8.3	4.7	0.9	48,589	49,501	53,338
Hispanic	3,097	4.1	67.5	21.6	6.4	7.4	4.6	0.9	49,176	49,220	54,981
Asian or Pacific Islander	529	7.1	64.8	20.6	7.5	6.7	4.5	1.0	50,857	58,652	[3]
American Indian or Alaskan Native	700	6.0	52.8	28.0	13.2	7.7	5.8	0.8	38,374	[3]	46,176
Age											
Under 40	7,969	4.4	67.5	24.3	3.7	3.3	2.1	0.4	39,231	41,647	45,092
40 to 44	19,412	1.8	57.1	32.8	8.3	5.7	3.0	0.7	43,317	46,038	50,466
45 to 49	18,934	1.2	58.4	30.2	10.3	7.9	4.0	0.8	46,300	48,767	53,316
50 to 54	15,533	1.6	60.8	27.6	10.0	11.5	4.4	1.0	46,416	51,191	55,163
55 or over	17,042	1.5	63.3	23.1	12.1	15.9	4.7	1.0	47,928	51,862	55,490
Private schools											
Total	23,881	26.9	47.4	11.5	6.8	8.7	2.8	2.4	$20,591	$29,736	$30,410
Men	11,640	28.0	42.9	9.2	9.9	9.0	3.4	3.5	22,118	38,203	33,893
Women	12,241	25.9	51.7	13.7	3.9	8.4	2.2	1.5	19,537	26,083	26,676
Race/ethnicity											
White, non-Hispanic	22,366	25.6	47.9	11.7	6.8	8.7	2.8	2.5	20,481	29,496	30,429
Black, non-Hispanic	643	24.0	44.1	4.7	13.2	6.9	3.6	2.2	[3]	[3]	29,559
Hispanic	607	44.9	36.0	12.8	3.5	7.0	3.2	1.4	[3]	[3]	29,479
Age											
Under 40	5,326	41.6	33.3	6.5	4.4	3.9	1.6	1.7	18,319	33,200	27,510
40 to 44	4,852	27.3	51.6	10.8	6.3	6.1	2.2	2.1	22,183	31,579	29,819
45 to 49	4,662	23.5	50.6	11.6	7.3	8.2	2.9	1.9	22,220	29,150	33,512
50 to 54	3,405	25.3	49.5	14.3	6.2	10.2	3.1	3.6	21,810	30,453	31,351
55 or over	5,633	16.5	53.3	15.2	9.4	14.8	4.1	3.2	19,660	27,245	30,887

[1] Total differs from data appearing in other tables because of varying survey processing procedures and time period coverages.

[2] Percentages for those with less than a bachelor's degree are not shown.

[3] Too few cases for reliable estimates.

NOTE.—Details may not add to 100 percent because of rounding and survey item nonresponse.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Schools and Staffing Survey, 1990–91." (This table was prepared July 1993.)

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Table 72.—Average salaries for full-time teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected characteristics: 1990–91

Selected characteristics	Total earned income	Base salary	Number of full-time teachers	School year supplemental contract		Supplemental contract during summer		Number of teachers with nonschool employment		
				Number of teachers	Supplemental salary	Number of teachers	Supplemental salary	Teaching or tutor	Education related	Not education related
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Public schools									
Total	$33,578	$31,298	2,348,315	788,215	$1,942	393,215	$1,993	109,923	67,072	229,670
Men	37,874	33,360	667,987	353,570	2,663	156,050	2,328	39,172	30,873	130,241
Women	31,870	30,476	1,680,328	434,645	1,357	237,165	1,773	70,751	36,199	99,429
Race/ethnicity										
White, non-Hispanic	33,611	31,293	2,021,075	702,746	1,977	321,128	1,935	95,488	58,916	203,859
Black, non-Hispanic	33,539	31,579	201,690	48,905	1,664	45,331	2,251	7,680	5,359	15,920
Hispanic	32,907	30,743	82,119	25,190	1,709	18,183	2,375	4,874	1,576	4,947
Asian or Pacific Islander	35,889	33,908	25,208	5,064	1,454	5,859	2,137	910	818	2,175
American Indian or Alaskan Native	30,167	27,322	18,222	6,310	1,567	2,714	1,681	971	403	2,768
Age										
Less than 30	24,918	22,779	282,637	122,264	1,675	54,300	1,615	13,246	8,891	32,850
30 to 39	30,108	27,918	650,380	230,787	2,045	113,013	1,969	29,841	16,249	63,426
40 to 49	36,083	33,690	925,238	313,208	1,914	161,749	2,018	46,887	28,035	91,348
50 or more	38,614	36,333	480,983	121,956	2,088	64,152	2,294	19,949	11,897	42,246
Level										
Elementary	31,868	30,501	1,206,026	243,801	1,172	168,766	1,829	43,888	23,636	84,003
Secondary	35,384	32,135	1,142,288	544,414	2,276	224,448	2,117	66,235	43,436	145,667
	Private schools									
Total	$21,673	$19,783	301,257	60,038	$1,712	54,503	$1,864	21,438	9,622	31,492
Men	27,196	23,003	70,100	27,399	2,275	18,814	2,070	5,752	4,851	13,876
Women	19,999	18,806	231,158	32,639	1,240	35,689	1,755	15,686	4,771	17,615
Race/ethnicity										
White, non-Hispanic	21,569	19,709	277,539	56,645	1,695	49,853	1,832	19,742	8,556	29,532
Black, non-Hispanic	23,094	20,333	8,593	(1)	(1)	2,058	1,930	(1)	(1)	(1)
Hispanic	22,912	20,740	9,487	(1)	(1)	1,553	2,320	(1)	(1)	(1)
Asian or Pacific Islander	22,795	21,145	4,645	(1)	(1)	867	2,968	(1)	(1)	(1)
American Indian or Alaskan Native	21,373	20,128	994	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Age										
Less than 30	18,658	16,403	61,293	14,820	1,624	12,807	1,654	4,681	2,438	9,909
30 to 39	21,322	19,177	86,337	19,610	1,878	17,270	1,797	5,850	2,953	9,854
40 to 49	22,447	20,879	98,247	17,327	1,587	16,782	1,998	8,266	2,998	7,418
50 or more	24,197	22,534	55,103	8,281	1,738	7,645	2,075	2,642	1,232	4,311
Level										
Elementary	19,050	17,613	154,786	14,192	1,446	22,930	1,746	8,712	3,355	14,015
Secondary	24,446	21,864	146,471	45,846	1,794	31,574	1,950	12,726	6,267	17,477

(1) Too few sample cases (fewer than 30) for a reliable estimate.

NOTE.—Details may not add to totals because of rounding, or missing values in cells with too few cases, or survey item nonresponse.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Schools and Staffing Survey, 1990–91." (This table was prepared July 1993.)

Table 71.—Mobility of public and private elementary and secondary teachers, by selected school and teacher characteristics: 1987–88 to 1988–89

Characteristic	Percentage distribution of public school teachers			Percentage distribution of private school teachers		
	Remained teaching in the same school	Remained in teaching but changed schools	Left teaching	Remained teaching in the same school	Remained in teaching but changed schools	Left teaching
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total	**86.6**	**7.8**	**5.6**	**77.7**	**9.5**	**12.7**
School level						
Elementary	86.1	8.7	5.2	77.0	10.9	12.1
Secondary	88.1	6.5	5.4	81.4	6.9	11.8
Combined	87.5	5.5	6.9	75.9	8.5	15.6
Not reported	83.0	8.8	8.2	78.7	10.0	11.3
School size						
Less than 150	85.7	9.8	4.5	84.4	16.2	19.4
150 to 299	84.7	9.9	5.4	79.5	8.4	12.1
300 to 499	87.0	7.4	5.6	80.3	9.5	10.2
500 to 749	86.9	7.4	5.7	84.9	5.9	9.1
750 or more	87.6	7.3	4.9	86.4	0.0	13.6
Not reported	83.0	8.8	8.2	78.7	10.0	11.3
Percent minority						
Less than 5%	88.0	6.9	5.1	77.6	9.2	13.2
5 to 19%	86.6	7.6	5.8	82.2	7.4	10.3
20 to 49%	87.3	7.5	5.1	71.9	9.3	18.8
50% or more	85.1	9.6	5.3	69.6	16.8	13.6
Not reported	83.0	8.8	8.2	78.7	10.0	11.3
Community type						
Rural	87.0	7.5	5.5	73.0	11.9	15.1
Suburban	88.2	6.5	5.3	82.5	7.4	10.1
Urban	85.6	9.3	5.0	77.5	9.2	13.3
Other	81.4	11.6	6.9	92.1	7.9	0.0
Not reported	83.0	8.8	8.2	78.7	10.0	11.3
Highest degree earned						
Less than bachelor's	96.3	—	3.2	84.1	9.4	26.5
Bachelor's	85.7	8.7	5.6	78.8	10.5	12.7
Master's	87.5	7.0	5.5	81.4	8.2	10.5
Education specialist	86.1	7.6	6.3	66.5	10.2	23.3
Doctorate or professional	88.4	7.3	4.3	—	—	—

—Too few sample cases (fewer than 30) for a reliable estimate.

NOTE.—Details may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Teacher Followup Survey, 1988–89.* (This table was prepared April 1992.)

Table 66.—Teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected characteristics: 1990–91

Selected characteristics	Total[1]	Percent of teachers, by highest degree earned						Percent of teachers, by years of full-time teaching experience			
		No degree	Associate	Bachelor's	Master's	Education specialist	Doctor's	Less than 3	3 to 9	10 to 20	Over 20
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Public schools										
Total	2,559,488	0.5	0.2	51.9	42.1	4.6	0.8	9.7	26.0	39.0	25.3
Men	719,453	1.3	0.5	44.7	47.0	5.3	1.3	7.8	19.9	37.0	35.3
Women	1,840,035	0.2	0.1	54.7	40.1	4.3	0.6	10.4	28.4	39.8	21.4
Race/ethnicity											
White, non-Hispanic	2,214,097	0.5	0.2	51.5	42.7	4.5	0.7	9.7	26.3	39.0	25.1
Black, non-Hispanic	211,640	0.5	0.3	50.8	42.1	5.0	1.3	6.5	20.0	40.9	32.8
Hispanic	88,917	0.7	0.2	61.0	32.9	4.3	0.9	14.0	33.4	39.6	13.1
Asian or Pacific Islander	26,766	0.7	0.1	51.2	31.2	15.3	1.6	12.4	29.8	33.0	24.7
American Indian or Alaskan Native	20,070	0.5	0.5	64.4	30.8	3.7	0.2	15.3	28.1	36.9	20.1
Age											
Less than 30	311,971	0.2	0.1	84.1	14.4	1.2	0.0	41.8	58.1	0.1	[2]
30 to 39	731,322	0.4	0.2	56.4	39.1	3.4	0.4	10.2	38.7	51.0	0.1
40 to 49	1,001,821	0.4	0.1	43.8	43.8	5.9	1.0	3.5	16.3	49.1	31.1
50 or more	513,985	0.9	0.3	41.6	49.9	5.9	1.4	1.5	7.3	26.0	65.2
Level											
Elementary	1,330,630	0.1	0.1	56.5	38.8	4.1	0.5	10.6	27.7	39.2	22.5
Secondary	1,228,858	0.9	0.3	46.9	45.7	5.1	1.1	8.7	24.2	38.8	28.3
	Private schools										
Total	356,285	5.3	1.1	61.9	27.0	2.9	1.8	27.5	36.6	25.0	10.9
Men	81,765	3.8	1.2	51.5	35.3	4.0	4.2	25.3	33.2	26.4	15.1
Women	274,521	5.8	1.0	65.0	24.5	2.6	1.0	28.1	37.6	24.6	9.6
Race/ethnicity											
White, non-Hispanic	328,624	5.1	1.1	61.8	27.3	3.0	1.8	27.2	36.6	25.1	11.1
Black, non-Hispanic	9,462	3.4	0.2	72.8	21.7	1.0	0.9	28.9	43.0	22.5	5.6
Hispanic	11,651	11.1	1.8	60.6	22.1	1.7	2.7	32.4	33.0	22.8	11.9
Asian or Pacific Islander	5,190	4.0	0.9	58.6	26.4	8.9	1.2	24.8	38.7	26.5	10.0
American Indian or Alaskan Native	1,360	20.1	0.9	50.2	26.3	2.5	0.0	43.4	24.9	24.4	7.3
Age											
Less than 30	68,288	6.8	0.8	81.4	9.8	0.8	0.3	55.5	44.4	[2]	[2]
30 to 39	105,499	5.9	1.3	65.9	23.5	2.3	1.1	27.2	43.3	29.5	[2]
40 to 49	115,020	4.9	0.8	55.4	33.4	3.7	1.9	19.3	37.6	33.4	9.7
50 or more	67,399	3.6	1.7	47.0	38.7	4.8	4.0	13.4	16.6	28.9	41.1
Level											
Elementary	176,252	7.5	1.0	69.1	19.8	2.1	0.4	26.9	38.6	24.8	9.6
Secondary	180,035	3.2	1.1	54.9	34.0	3.7	3.1	28.0	34.6	25.2	12.2

[1] Data are based upon a sample survey and may not be strictly comparable with data reported elsewhere.

[2] Less than .05 percent.

NOTE.—Excludes prekindergarten teachers. Details may not add to totals because of survey item nonresponse and rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Schools and Staffing Survey, 1990–91." (This table was prepared July 1993.)

To George M. Murphy

The Landscape of Leadership Preparation

Reframing the Education of School Administrators

Joseph Murphy

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P. O. Box 2526
Newbury Park, CA 91319-8526

Four

The Current Scene: A Critical Analysis

> In comparison with political and organizational context and general social characteristics, formal training in educational administration has had marginal impact on the character of educational leadership. (Tyack & Cummings, 1977, p. 50)

> Administrator training appears to be an unusually "weak treatment" relative to professional preparation in other fields. (Sykes & Elmore, 1989, p. 80)

Criticism of the ways in which men and women are prepared for school leadership positions enjoys a long history. Perhaps the only thing more depressing than an honest appraisal of current educational administration programs is the knowledge that so little progress has been made in resolving the deeply ingrained weaknesses that have plagued training systems for so long. In 1960, the AASA, after a rather even-handed analysis, characterized the preparation of school superintendents as a "dismal montage" (p. 84). Twelve years later Farquhar and Piele (1972) coined the term *dysfunctional structural incrementalism* (p. 17) to describe university-based preparation programs. More recently, Pitner (1990) has portrayed the "zombie programs" (p. 131) in educational administration.[1]

These and other reviewers have chronicled a system of preparing school leaders that is seriously flawed and that has been found wanting in nearly every aspect. Specifically, critics have uncovered serious problems in: (a) the ways students are recruited and selected

into training programs; (b) the education they receive once there—including the content emphasized and the pedagogical strategies employed; (c) the methods used to assess academic fitness; and (d) the procedures developed to certify and select principals and superintendents. In the remainder of this chapter,[2] we analyze the problems that currently confront preparation programs, reminding the reader from time to time as we progress that these weaknesses have deep roots. We revisit these issues again in Chapter 6 when we address new perspectives on administrator preparation.

Recruitment and Selection

> Self-selection is still the only selection that is to be found in many of our institutions. Taking all of our programs over the nation as a whole, the main admission requirement is that the person be present. On second thought, he doesn't even have to be present—we'll take him sight unseen. (McIntyre, cited in Farquhar & Piele, 1972, p. 26)

> The lack of sound recruitment programs may be the most serious problem of all. (AACTE, 1988, p. 12)

Analysts of the recruitment and selection processes employed by institutions in the administrator training business have consistently found them lacking in rigor (Farquhar & Piele, 1972; Gerritz, Koppich, & Guthrie, 1984; McIntyre, 1966). Procedures are often informal, haphazard, and casual (AASA, 1960; Clark, 1988; Goodlad, 1984). Prospective candidates are often self-selected, and there are few leader recruitment programs (Achilles, 1984; AACTE, 1988; Miklos, 1988). Fewer than 10% of students report that they were influenced by the recruitment activities of the training institutions. As has been the case over the last 50 years, "the predominant [recruitment] methodologies still consist of chance encounters with potential candidates, randomly distributed bulk-mail brochures, and self-recruitment by prospective students" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1970, p. 11). Despite well-documented, if commonsensical, reminders that training outcomes depend on the mix of program experiences and the quality of entering students, or, as Campbell and his colleagues (Campbell, Charters, & Gragg, 1960) remind us, as "the training

charge is pursued it will be found that selection of candidates for administrative posts will be fully as critical as the training program itself" (p. 185), research on the recruitment of school administrators has been anemic. So impoverished is work in this area that McIntyre (1966) concludes "that seldom in the history of human endeavor have so many done so little about so important a problem" (p. 3).

Silver (1978a) lists "the general parochialism or provincialism of graduate programs in educational administration [as] another area of concern" (p. 204) in the recruitment and selection of students—what Cooper and Boyd (1987) refer to as built-in "inadequacies of candidates for training" (p. 13). They, along with other analysts (Clark, 1988; NPBEA, 1989a), see at least two problems with this parochialism. First, because the catchment area for most programs is quite local—within a 25- to 50-mile radius of the university—and because nearly all entering students are functioning as teachers or administrators, these reviewers question whether students will be exposed to new ideas and wonder about students' receptivity to alternative views that clash with accepted local norms (see also Cooper & Boyd, 1987; Silver, 1978a).[3] Mann (1975) speaks eloquently on this issue:

> Another characteristic applies only to part, although a large part, of the practitioner/student population. They are a group oriented to the status quo. Mustangs, who are tapped for advancement, are more often identified because they fit in than because they stand out. Many practitioner-students are already responsible for significant portions of the schooling operation and thus have a personal and professional identification with the very thing the university would have them learn to criticize. Moreover, they have acquired obligations to it for past successes, and expectations about their future role which depress anything but the tiniest bit of incremental proclivity to change. The real-world experience of the practitioner-student convinces him of the blunt and inadequate nature of academic tools. Since these tools aren't proof against an unyielding reality, why then not ride with the inevitable inertia of the existing system? All of this enhances a credentials-oriented conservatism and depresses the acquisition of any more substantive knowledge. (p. 144)

Silver (1978a) also views the fact that almost all candidates retain their full-time positions as contributing to this provincialism. The

AASA (1960) also notes the problems that accompany an emphasis on part-time study:

> If the colleges and universities continue to struggle along with few full-time students, they will never develop adequate internships and field experiences. The part-time student is much more of a weakness than the frequency of mention indicates, because many of the instructional program weaknesses are traceable to part-time students. (p. 76)

Standards for selecting students into preparation programs are often perfunctory: "It seems completely fair to say that the procedures generally employed by colleges and universities are *admission* rather than *selection* procedures" (AASA, 1960, p. 83); "in fact, most programs have 'open admissions,' with a baccalaureate degree the only prerequisite" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 290); "For too many administrator preparation programs, *any body* is better than *no body*" (Jacobson, 1990, p. 35). The UCEA-sponsored study of the mid-1970s (Silver, 1978a) discovered that the rejection rates to preparation programs were quite low—about 12% for master's students, 14% for sixth-year students, and 25% for doctoral students. In 1984, Gerritz et al. found that only about 1 in 30 applicants was denied admission to certification programs in California. Part of the reason for this nonselectivity can be traced to the use of questionable methods and procedures and poorly articulated standards for entry. Miklos (in press) claims, for example, that "although various selection criteria are used, the dominant one is grade point average; only limited attention is given to factors associated directly with administrative potential. Scholastic aptitude tests may be required but do not appear to be weighted heavily in the selection of students" (p. 3). Gregg (1969) writes that "the usual procedures used in selecting and admitting students are the unproductive ones of interviews, letters of recommendation, rating scales, and transcripts of college credits" (p. 996), what McIntyre (1966) calls "a mish-mash of mysticism, myth, and automorphism" (p. 16). Miklos (1988) laments that "the relative weights assigned to various criteria are seldom made explicit" (p. 55). If, 50 years ago, all one needed to enter a training program in educational administration was a "B.A. and the cash to pay tuition" (Tyack & Cummings, 1977, p. 60), the situation does not seem to have improved much over the last half century.

Not surprisingly, the quality of applicants is, and has been for some time, rather low. In 1957, Hall and McIntyre reported:

> According to the nation-wide 1955 report, graduate students in education scored lower—almost one standard deviation lower—on verbal ability than graduate students in any other college. The comparison in quantitative ability portrayed education candidates equally uncomplimentarily. (p. 395)

In 1965, McIntyre (cited in Gregg, 1969) reported:

> Of 83 fields of study, including 18 in education, the field of educational administration and supervision ranked third from the bottom in the percentage of students with high academic competence. Only 2 percent of its students were in this superior group. (p. 995)

One year later, McIntyre (1966) concluded that "the average student of educational administration is so far below the average student in most other fields, in mental ability and general academic performance, that the situation is little short of being a national scandal" (p. 17). Nearly a quarter of a century later the situation was basically unchanged. In 1988, for instance, Griffiths (1988b) revealed that "of the 94 intended majors listed in [the] Guide to the Use of the Graduate Record Examination Program 1985-86 . . . educational administration is fourth from the bottom" (p. 12).

This lack of rigorous recruitment and selection procedures and criteria has several negative effects:

> First, it lowers the level of training and experience possible, since courses are often geared to the background and intelligence of the students. Second, "eased entry downgrades the status of the students in the eyes of the populace." Third, the candidates themselves realize that anyone can get in and that nearly everyone will get the license if he or she just keeps paying for credits. In part, this lack of rigor at entry reflects a lack of clear criteria for training or clear vision of what candidates and graduates will look like, and the realization that the graduate school experience itself is not very demanding. (Cooper & Boyd, 1987, p. 14)

This lack of rigor also contributes to the serious oversupply of credentialed administrators in the United States (Boyan, 1963; Culbertson & Farquhar, 1970; NPBEA, 1989a).

The scenario outlined so far reinforces political conservatism and adversity to risk taking in educational administration (Achilles, 1984) —one in which automorphism reigns and "good old boys" (McIntyre, 1966, p. 17) flourish, where "savvy, risk-taking, entrepreneurial educational leaders" are conspicuous by their absence (Conway & Jacobson, 1990, p. 191).[4] Or, as Stout (1973) captures it: "the typical potential recruit to administration is one who has stayed in teaching and, presumably, has come to accept the dominant mores of his occupation . . . [and] demonstrates greater compliance with implicit work rules" (p. 17; see also Miklos, 1988). As a group, the pool of prospective students does not reflect the diversity that characterizes American society (Griffiths, 1988b; McIntyre, 1966; Stout, 1973) and as such is unlikely to alleviate the problem of "gross underrepresentation of ethnic and racial minority persons in executive leadership positions in education" (Contreras, 1989, p. 8).[5] It should come as a surprise to no one, then, to discover that "selection practices yield minimally different administrators" (Pitner, 1990, p. 131).[6]

Program Content

> Two major research studies, by Hemphill and others (1962) and by Gross and Herriott (1965), have revealed no significant positive relationships between amount of professional preparation and effectiveness of elementary-school principals. (Gregg, 1969, pp. 999-1000)

> A more extensive knowledge base is needed in educational administration, yet no one is doing much about it. (Immegart, 1977, p. 320)

Much of the curriculum in preparation programs in educational administration is neither intellectually challenging nor useful to practitioners. At the most general level of analysis, there is a profound lack of agreement about the appropriate content for training programs and a seemingly endemic unwillingness on the part of the professoriate to address the issue (Goldhammer, 1983; Griffiths, 1988b; McCarthy et al., 1988; Nunnery, 1982). This fragmentation

and complacency result from a variety of factors, two of which are noteworthy at this point—the absence of "over-arching gestalt conceptions shaping preparation programs" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971a, p. 11) and an impoverished knowledge base.

Although a good deal of consideration has been devoted to examining deficiencies in the cognitive base of training programs (see Chapters 2 and 3), a more serious issue—the absence of a collective vision about the purposes informing training experiences for school leaders—has been regularly overlooked. Thus most builders and critics of preparation programs have put the cart before the horse. Embedded in much of the literature in this field, especially in the critical analyses, is a belief that program vision will flow from the codification of an appropriate knowledge base.[7] The reality is the opposite. The knowledge base for training should be constructed from a blueprint that specifies what the role of the school administrator is and ought to be. We return to this issue later in this chapter and in the concluding part of the book.

WEAK KNOWLEDGE BASE

> Given the suspect quality of much research in . . . educational administration, the "hit and miss" nature of investigative efforts, and the effect of such research on the literature and practice, it seems that, while we know more, we still do not know very much. (Immegart, 1977, p. 319)

> The bloom is now well off the rose. A body of dependable knowledge about educational administration has not been forthcoming. (Crowson & McPherson, 1987, p. 48)

Turning directly to the knowledge base, we are confronted with the following tragedy: the indiscriminate adoption of practices untested (Culbertson, 1988a) and uninformed by educational values and purposes (Bates, 1984); serious fragmentation (Erickson, 1979; Willower, 1988); the separation of the practice and academic arms of the profession (Carver, 1988; Farquhar, 1968; Goldhammer, 1983); relatively nonrobust strategies for generating new knowledge (Achilles, 1990; Immegart, 1977), the neglect of ethics (Farquhar, 1968); an infatuation with the study of administration for its own sake (Evans, 1991), and the concomitant failure to address outcomes

(Boyd & Crowson, 1981; Erickson, 1977, 1979). The result has been the development of an impoverished—and often inappropriate—knowledge base and, as a consequence, an ersatz mission for training programs. In short, preparation programs as a group are not only failing to address the right things, they are also doing a fairly poor job of accomplishing the things on which they have chosen to work. It is almost as if the old saw "if it's not worth doing, it's not worth doing well" had guided our thinking.

The fact that the "knowledge base available to the profession that manages our schools is not well developed" (Crowson & McPherson, 1987, p. 45) was acknowledged quite widely at the tail end of both the prescriptive and behavioral science eras. For example, the anemic nature of our understanding of administration as we head into the dialectic era has been captured by Immegart, Bridges, Foster, Blumberg, and Carver:

> The relationship between research and practice was little improved from 1954 to 1974; some evidence indicates that the relationship may have deteriorated. Analysis yielded little evidence that research and inquiry have had any substantial impact on practice. (Immegart, 1977, p. 317)

> The research seemed to have little or no practical utility. In short, there is no compelling evidence to suggest that a major theoretical issue or practical problem relating to school administrators has been resolved by those toiling in the intellectual vineyards since 1967. (Bridges, 1982, p. 25)

> The practical wisdom of the social sciences seem[s] ephemeral at best. (Foster, 1989, p. 7)

> My bets are that one cannot point to a single administrative practice that has been influenced in any significant degree by research on the behavior of administrators. (Blumberg, 1984, p. 27)

> Some might say it [the behavioral science theory engine] was yanked off front and center stage because it did not yield descriptions, explanations, and predictions that were judged sufficiently useful to warrant its continuance as the driving force in the study of educational administration. (Carver, 1988, p. 1)[8]

The reasons for the "shaky" (Immegart, 1990, p. 8) cognitive foundations in school administration have been well-documented. They include: our ardor to borrow ideas before they are tested (Culbertson, 1988b); the lack of theory upon which to ground resarch efforts (Griffiths, 1965); a failure to focus on educational administration as an area worthy of study in and of itself (Miklos, 1990); poor scholarship habits within the field (Griffiths, 1965; Immegart, 1990); and an absence of a sense of vision about the profession.

FRAGMENTED PROGRAMS

> Preparation programs are essentially diverse collections of formal courses that, taken together, do not reveal consistent purposes or a systematic design. (NASSP, 1985, p. 2)

Given the above-noted description of the knowledge base, it should surprise no one to discover that "course content is frequently banal" (Clark, 1988, p. 5): "Where the student should be fattened by a rich diet of multidisciplinary fare, he is starved by the lean offerings of provincial chow" (AASA, 1960, pp. 83-84). Nor do training programs exhibit much internal consistency. Students "often confront a confusing melange of courses, without clear meaning, focus, or purpose" (Cooper & Boyd, 1987, p. 14). They end up taking "a succession of three-semester-hour courses . . . thrown together in a tasteless potpourri" (AASA, 1960, p. 178). There is an absence of a "continuum of knowledge and skills that become more sophisticated as one progresses" (Peterson & Finn, 1985, pp. 51-52). What all this means is "that most administrators receive fragmented, overlapping, and often useless courses that add up to very little" (Cooper & Boyd, 1987, p. 13; see also Hoyle, 1987).

The inability or unwillingness of educational administration program faculty to engage in serious curriculum development work over the past quarter century has not gone unnoticed. For example, in the late 1960s, "Goldhammer concluded that few institutions are actively engaged in curriculum development or in planning major revisions in their programs" (Farquhar & Piele, 1972, p. 42). Boyan in turn argued:

> Curriculum development in educational administration today looks very much like the conventional local school system approach. It is disparate, fragmented, uneven, scattered, and mainly noncumulative. (cited in Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971a, p. 11)

Twenty years later, McCarthy et al. (1988) arrived at a similar position (see also Miklos, 1987):

> Critics have charged that the educational administration curriculum has remained essentially unchanged for decades. This is not surprising since educational administration programs are bastions of conservatism in tolerant but risk-aversive universities. . . . Nothing less than a fundamental reordering of what is covered in graduate programs can respond to the current crisis in educational leadership. . . . [However,] systemic curriculum revision demands a level of commitment and effort from faculty members that they do not presently seem prepared to give. (p. 172)

LACK OF CONNECTION TO PRACTICE

> School administration as practiced by superintendents and principals bears little resemblance to school administration as taught in graduate schools of education. (Pepper, 1988, p. 360)

> Moreover, the knowledge and skills needed to become an effective educational leader and school manager are generally not those provided by current Administrative Service Credential Programs. (Gerritz et al., 1984, p. 1)

One of the most serious problems with the current cognitive base in school administration training programs is the fact that it does not reflect the realities of the workplace, "does not provide the kind of experiences or knowledge that practitioners feel they need" (Muth, 1989, p. 5), and is therefore, at best, "irrelevant to the jobs trainees assume" (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989, p. 1) and, at worst, "dysfunctional in the actual world of practice" (Sergiovanni, 1989a, p. 18). As we saw in Chapter 3, as an antidote to the "naked empiricism" and "recipes" (J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987, p. 260) of the prescriptive era, scholars of the behavioral science era attempted to develop a science of administration. One of the effects was an exacerbation of the natural tension between the practice and academic arms of the

profession (Carver, 1988; Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971b). The nurturance and development of the social sciences became ends in themselves. Professors, never very gifted at converting scientific knowledge to guide practice (Immegart, 1990), had little motivation to improve (Miklos, 1987). As a result, "scholarly study of human behavior and the administration of human affairs [have not been] intimately connected" (Wengert, 1962, p. 36)—the theory and research borrowed from the behavioral sciences "never evolved into a unique knowledge base informing the practice of school administration" (Griffiths, 1988b, p. 19).

Processes and Procedures

Mann (1975), Bridges (1977), Muth (1989), Sergiovanni (1989a, 1991b), and others have all written influential essays in which they describe how the processes and procedures stressed in university programs are often diametrically opposed to conditions that characterize the workplace milieu of schools.[9] In one of the earliest and most important works on this topic, Mann reveals how the "academic requirements [of preparation programs] are very likely to violate the 'reality' of the protean cauldron in which the administrator knows himself to be" (p. 141). Bridges observes that although within the school context a premium is placed on verbal skills, the ability to make quick judgments, and activeness, we train our administration students to be passive, to use rational decision making models, and to develop their written skills to the near exclusion of their oral ones.

Muth in turn discusses how the research training offered to practitioners—the traditional Ph.D. research courses that emphasize methods and techniques only distally connected to the problems confronting managers—"may be not only inappropriate but also intellectually disabling" (p. 9). Writing in a similar vein, others have questioned the appropriateness of the traditional research dissertation for those oriented toward practice (J. Murphy, 1989c, 1990e); the dissertation is an activity that is, according to Muth, "often removed from field-related problems by several levels of abstraction" (p. 11) and "viewed as worthless" (p. 7) by administrators.

Finally, Sergiovanni (1991b), in extensions of his influential 1988 UCEA address, argues that a basic assumption of administration as science—the view "that a one-to-one correspondence exists between

knowledge and practice" (p. 5)—runs counter to the reality of the messy world of school leadership. He points out that Schon's conception of administration as a process of managing messes more closely fits the reality of managerial work than does the view of the "principalship as a logical process of problem solving with the application of standard techniques to predictable problems" (p. 5) that is embedded in the perspective of administration as an applied science that dominates training programs.

Substance

Other thoughtful reviewers concerned with connections between training institutions and the field have addressed the substance of preparatory programs. They have found that programs are often developed with a "jaunty disregard for the demands of educational leaders" (AASA, 1960, p. 178): "Administrators-in-training are given a potpourri of theory, concepts, and ideas—unrelated to one another and rarely useful in either understanding schools or managing them" (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989, p. 12). In their review of training programs at the outset of the dialectic era, Crowson and McPherson (1987) argue that institutions "that had emphasized a solid grounding in theory, the social sciences, [and] rational decision making . . . were discovered to be well off the mark as effective preparation for the chaotic life of a principal or superintendent" (p. 49). Jean Hills (1975), a professor who spent a sabbatical as a principal, offers equally unfavorable judgments about the usefulness of the content emphasized in educational administration preparation programs:

> Occasions on which I was able to catch myself drawing upon anything like organization theory or social-behavioral science materials were extremely rare. Try as I might, I could seldom catch myself thinking about problems or questions in these terms, and when I did, I seldom found it useful in deciding upon a course of action. (p. 2)

In terms of program substance, three somewhat distinct problems merit attention: lack of attention to "field-related substance dealing with current problems, needed skills, and administrative tasks" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971b, p. 9); the absence of robust

clinical experiences; and marked deficiencies with regard to issues of diversity.

Lack of Attention to Skills. Evidence from nearly all fronts leads to the conclusion that the focus on the behavioral sciences during the scientific era of training resulted in a glaring absence of consideration of the problems faced by practicing school administrators (Farquhar & Piele, 1972; Griffiths, 1988b). The pervasive antirecipe, antiskill philosophy that currently characterizes many programs of educational administration has resulted in significant gaps in the prevailing knowledge base (J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987): an almost complete absence of performance-based program components (NASSP, 1985); a lack of attention to practical problem-solving skills (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989); "a neglect of practical intelligence" (Sergiovanni, 1989a, p. 17); and a truncated conception of expertise (see Kennedy, 1987). Administrators consistently report that the best way to improve training in preparation programs is to improve instruction of job-related skills (Erlandson & Witters-Churchill, 1988; Notar, 1988-1989; Weindling & Earley, 1987). Griffiths (1988b; see also Erlandson, 1979) has chronicled the costs of this knowledge gap in our training programs and of our consistent unwillingness to address the problem:

> Probably more school administrators fail because of poor skills than any other single reason, yet program and faculty in educational administration fail to do anything about it. It's as though a baseball team in spring training gave the player books to read and lectures on the theory of baseball and did not have the player practice hitting and fielding. Administrators have to perform, and in order to perform well they must have the basic skills of administration. (p. 17)

Weak Clinical Programs. Because "the state of the art of field training in educational administration remains rather primitive" (Cronin & Horoschak, 1973, p. 39), it is not surprising that the clinical aspects of most preparation programs in educational administration are notoriously weak (Milstein, Bobrofe, & Restine, 1991). Despite an entrenched belief that supervised practice "could be the most critical phase of the administrator's preparation" (Griffiths, 1988b, p. 17) and a long history of efforts to make field-based learning an integral

part of preparation programs (see Daresh, 1987, for a review), little progress has been made in this area. And despite concern over the impoverished nature of clinical experience for nearly 30 years, Pepper was still able to report as late as 1988 that "few, if any, university programs in school administration offer a thorough clinical experience for future school administrators" (p. 361). The field-based component continues to be infected with weaknesses that have been revisted on a regular basis since the first decade of the behavioral science revolution in administrative preparation: (a) "unclear or even conflicting objectives" (Cronin & Horoschak, 1973, p. 16); (b) inadequate number of clinical experiences; (c) activities arranged on the basis of convenience; (d) overemphasis on role-centered as opposed to problem-centered experiences; (e) "lack of individualization in 'molding' field experiences to students' individual needs and goals" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971c, p. 12); (f) poor planning, supervision, and follow-up; (g) absence of "connecting linkages between on-campus experiences and field-based experiences" (Milstein, 1990, p. 121); and (h) overemphasis on low-level (orientation and passive observation type) activities (Clark, 1988; Daresh, 1987; Milstein, 1990).

Inadequate Attention to Diversity. Woven deeply into the fabric of "administration as an applied science" is the belief that there is a single best approach to educating prospective school leaders (Cooper & Boyd, 1987), including a dominant worldview of administration as an area of study (content) and method of acting (procedure). A number of thoughtful analysts, especially critical theorists and feminist scholars, have shown that this perspective has resulted in significant gaps in the knowledge base employed in current training programs (Foster, 1989). Missing is consideration of the diversity of perspectives[10] that inform scholarship and practice.[11] For example, in her review of the literature on women administrators, Shakeshaft (1988) discovered "differences between the ways men and women approach the tasks of administration" (p. 403). She concludes that although "these differences have implications for administrative training programs . . . the female world of administrators has not been incorporated into the body of work in the field . . . [n]or are women's experiences carried into the literature on practice" (pp. 403-406). Turning to the issue of racial minorities, Jackson

(1988) and Valverde and Brown (1988) also argue for diversification of training programs in order to capture worldviews of minority educators.[12] According to Valverde and Brown:

> Renovation of preparation is crucial also because the theoretical constructs that dominate preparation programs figure into the difference between the recruitment, selection, advancement, and socialization of minority and white administrators. (p. 153)

LACK OF ATTENTION TO EDUCATION AND ETHICS

> And when all of the strands of the story are woven together, it is clear that the essence of the tragedy was in adopting values and practices indiscriminately and applying them with little or no consideration of educational values or purposes. (Callahan, 1962, p. 244)

In many ways, educational administration preparation programs are empty bodies devoid of a heart and a soul. Undirected by a central mission and untethered to a unifying conception of the field, the profession has, over the last 90 years, drifted a long way from its roots—educational concerns and the ethical and moral dimensions of schooling.

Educational Concerns

> There is . . . a deafening silence concerning the fundamental message systems of schools: curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation. (Bates, 1984, p. 261)

One of the most troubling aspects of preparation programs for educational leaders is that they have very little to do with education. On the most basic level, programs do not routinely provide the students themselves with a well-rounded education. Many programs are actively characterized by a nonintellectual (Foster, 1989), if not an anti-intellectual, climate (Callahan, 1962). Most programs show "little interest in exploring the historical roots and social context of schooling" (G. Anderson, 1990, p. 53), ignore the "critical examination of educational and social implications of the structures and procedures discussed" (Newlon, 1934, p. 93), and do "a

very bad job of teaching . . . a wider vision of schools in society" (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989, p. 12).

Furthermore, there is ample evidence that the content in training programs focuses on managerial issues and largely ignores matters of teaching and learning, of pedagogy and curriculum.[13] This focus, as we have seen in Chapters 2 and 3, can be traced to external pressures shaping the evolution of preparation programs during the prescriptive era and internal forces influencing the development of training during the behavioral science era.[14] According to Callahan (1962), educational administration, under considerable pressure and perceiving itself to be in a relatively weak position vis-à-vis the larger society, adopted wholesale "the basic values and techniques of the business-industrial world" (p. 244). This "American tragedy," as Callahan has labeled it, was (and is) fourfold:

> that educational questions were subordinated to business considerations; that administrators were produced who were not, in any true sense, educators; that a scientific label was put on some very unscientific and dubious methods and practices; and that an anti-intellectual climate, already prevalent, was strengthened. As the business-industrial values and procedures spread into the thinking and acting of educators, countless educational decisions were made on economic or on non-educational grounds. (pp. 246-247)

The result of all this activity continues to influence the training of administrators. Preparation for *educational* leadership is as problematic today as it was in the time about which Callahan wrote. Today's programs still tend to produce "bookkeepers and public relations men" (p. 259) who are not equipped "to ask or answer the really basic questions in education" (p. 247), and who have very little understanding of the "educational aspects" (p. 255) of their jobs (Bates, 1984; Evans, 1991; Foster, 1984, 1988; J. Murphy, 1990d, 1990e).

Most of the interest and scholarly activity of the succeeding behavioral science era heavily reinforced the "separation of problems in administration from problems in education" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 144) and the emphasis on noneducational issues in training programs. Driven by the intellect and will of a handful of scholars who were struggling to professionalize school leadership, considerable energy was invested in developing a science of school administration. Unfortunately, as Evans (1991) astutely chronicles, the era sponsored discourse and training primarily on "the administration of education" (p. 3), or administration qua administration—a major shift from its formative years when the emphasis "was upon the adjective 'educational' rather than upon the noun 'administration' " (Guba, 1960, p. 115). Bates (1984), Evans (1991), T. Greenfield (1988), and others reveal how during this era school management came to be viewed as "two activities rather than *educational administration* as a singular and unitary activity" (Evans, p. 3). Evans concludes that the legacy of the scientific era is the fact that preparation programs today are more concerned with the hole than with the doughnut.[15] The separation of educational administration "from the phenomenon known as instruction" (Erickson, 1979, p. 10) means that the typical graduate of a school administration training program can act only as "a mere spectator in relation to the instructional program" (Hills, 1975, p. 4).[16]

Ethical and Moral Dimensions

> For more than a quarter of a century, a fact-driven model of decision-making and rationality has dominated training programs for educational administrators. To the extent that these programs embrace technically oriented notions of administration, they offer less than they espouse. They miss the meaning of human action. (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 154)

Throughout its formative years, spiritual and ethical matters were at the very center of school administration (Callahan & Button, 1964; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). For example, Beck and Murphy (in press-a) in their study of the metaphorical language of the principalship, document that in the 1920s, "the work of principals [was] linked with absolute, spiritual truth and values" (p. 22). They show how, in making "ample use of religious imagery in their discussions of education and of the people charged with administering education in local schools . . . educational writers of the 1920s [were] continuing a trend established by the earliest chroniclers of school management" (p. 23; see also Johnson, 1925; Johnston, Newlon, & Pickell, 1922, and, for a review of earlier decades, Mason, 1986; and Tyack & Hansot, 1982).

Ethics. By the early 1960s, the second major root of the field (values and ethics), like education before it, had atrophied. The result was reduced consideration of two issues: organizational values, purpose, and ethics; and organizational outcomes. According to T. Greenfield (1988), "the empirical study of administrators has eluded their *moral* dimensions and virtually all that lends significance to what they do" (p. 138). Despite some early notices that "educational administration requires a distinctive value framework" (Graff & Street, 1957, p. 120), pleas to reorient administration toward purposing (Harlow, 1962), and clear reminders that education is fundamentally a moral activity (Culbertson, 1963; Halpin, 1960) or "values in action" (W. Greenfield, 1988, p. 215; Foster, 1984, 1988, 1989), the problem of meaning in school administration as a profession and in its training programs has taken a back seat "to focus upon the personality traits of administrators—upon the mere characteristics of administrators rather than upon their character" (T. Greenfield, 1988, pp. 137-138).

The unfortunate outcome of this development "is that such conceptions of administrative training block the development of programs that might deal more openly and helpfully with the value problems that confront all those who manage organizations" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 149). In his study, Farquhar (1981) finds that "almost three-quarters of the universities contacted pay no conscious attention to the subject of ethics in their administrative preparation programs" (p. 195). In concrete terms, "very little in their preparation programs equips [prospective administrators] to deal with school organizations as a cultural or value system" (Popper, 1982, p. 15) and "available literature provides almost no guidance on how to prepare educational administrators for ethical practice" (Farquhar, 1981, p. 192). Thus administrators exit training programs unprepared to grapple with ethical issues and to address openly the values deeply embedded in schools that often hide behind "a mask of objectivity and impartiality" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 150).

Outcomes. As early as 1960, Chase was pointing out what was to become an increasingly problematic situation in educational administration in general and in training programs in particular—a lack of concern for outcomes. Seventeen years later, Erickson (1977) reports that studies in the field "between 1954 and 1974 provided no adequate basis for outcome-oriented organizational strategy in

education" (p. 128) Two years later Erickson (1979) expands on the ideas of his earlier essay. He again documents "the tendency to neglect the careful tracing of connections between organizational variables and student outcomes" (p. 12). Like T. Greenfield (1988), he decries the focus on the characteristics of administrators at the expense of more useful work. He lays out his now famous line of attack on the problem: "the current major *emphasis*, in studies of organizational consequences, should be on postulated causal networks in which student outcomes are the bottom line" (p. 12). Preparation programs have yet to resonate to this idea.

Delivery System

> Full-time graduate study in school administration is relatively rare. When it does exist the numbers of students are so small as to cast doubt upon the validity of the idea that *bona fide programs* actually exist. (AASA, 1960, p. 84)

STRUCTURAL ISSUES

> There appear to be far too many institutions with small enrollments in the business of preparing school administrators (AASA, 1960, p. 68).

> The presence of such unneeded institutions in the preparation field is a depressive factor on the profession as a whole. (McIntyre, 1966, p. 17)

The delivery system that shapes preparation programs is marked by a number of serious problems, most of which have a long history. Taking the profession as a whole, it is clear that there are too many institutions involved in the training business: "Many institutions lack sufficient facilities and adequate resources for the task" (Wynn, 1957, p. 472). The result has been "the dissipation of [scarce] resources on the extravagant luxury of maintaining hundreds of impoverished institutions competing with each other for the privilege of exposing a little circle of graduate students to a mediocre program" (AASA, 1960, p. 191). According to the NCEEA (1987), although "there are 505 institutions offering courses in school admin-

istration in the United States, . . . less than 200 have the resources and commitment to provide the excellence called for by the Commission" (p. 20)—an even smaller percentage (40%) than Campbell and Newell (1973) reported could do an effective job some 15 years earlier (50%). Despite both direct (Campbell & Newell, 1973) and indirect (AASA, 1960; NCEEA, 1987) calls for the discontinuation of weak programs, as we saw in Chapter 3, the number of training institutions has grown dramatically over the last half century. Many of these programs are cash cows for their sponsoring universities,[17] kept open more for political and economic than for educational reasons (Campbell & Newell, 1973). According to Willower (1983), many "offer graduate study in . . . name only. They seriously stint inquiry and survive by offering easy credentials and by working hard at legislative politics. Their faculties neither contribute to the ideas of the field nor are they actively engaged with them" (p. 194).[18] These institutions tend to be characterized by high student-faculty ratios and limited specialization among faculty (Miklos, in press).

A related problem is the framework in which students' educational experiences unfold: "Administrator training . . . is most often a dilatory option, pursued on a convenience basis, part-time, on the margins of a workday" (Sykes & Elmore, 1989, p. 80). Current programs have indeed drifted far from the traditional residency model: "The ideal of one or two years of full-time student life at the graduate level seems to be disappearing from our preparatory programs, and with it the notions of time for scholarly objectivity, student life, and colleague-like interaction between professors and students" (Silver, 1978a, pp. 207-208). As many as 95% of all students are now part-timers (Griffiths, 1988b), and "many students complete their training . . . without forming a professional relationship with a professor or student colleague" (Clark, 1988, p. 5). Conditions that Goldhammer observed in 1963 are as discernible today as they were then:

> There is currently a dangerous trend to offer a menu of courses in late afternoon and evening hours, on Saturdays, and through summer sessions. Advanced degrees are offered in many places which require no consecutive quarters of residence. Colleges and universities are reducing their requirements in order to attract a mass audience. Such programs are inevitably substandard. They make it impossible to employ research and knowledge . . . effectively . . .; they reduce the essential content to the least common (and least significant) denominator; they prostitute the professional responsibility for the protection of the public against malpractice; and they are an unwarranted appeal to the "glitter" of an advanced degree for status purposes, but without substance or quality. (pp. 32-33)

ARTS AND SCIENCE MODEL

> Perhaps the single most destructive trend affecting professional preparation during the last thirty years has been domination by an arts and science model rather than a professional school model of education. (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 299)

> The attempt by professional educators to develop a pseudo arts and science degree has been met with scorn in most universities. (Griffiths, 1988b, p. 18)

The arts and science model that currently forms the core of preparation programs emerged more to help professors develop "greater academic sophistication through their professional roles in order to gain acceptance by their peers in other departments" (Goldhammer, 1983, p. 256) than in response to the needs of prospective administrators. Unfortunately, the arts and science model—"one grounded on the study of the disciplines" (Miklos, in press)—has neither furnished professors the status for which they had hoped (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Griffiths, 1988b) nor provided graduates with the tools they need in order to be successful practitioners (Peterson & Finn, 1985). In addition, it has driven a wedge between professors and practitioners, creating what Goldhammer (1983) has labeled the "university-field gap" (p. 265). For these reasons, it has become clear to many professors and administrators that a fundamental change is required in the basic delivery system employed in preparation programs. As we note more fully in Chapter 6, many analysts are recommending that a new delivery system "should be conceived in the framework of the professional school model, not the arts and science model, meaning that the program should prepare students to act, not merely think about administration" (Griffiths, 1988b, p. 14; also Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; NPBEA, 1989a).

DEGREE STRUCTURE

> The apparent lack of distinction between Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs, particularly in research course requirements and culminating research products, might be another area of some concern. (Silver, 1978a, p. 210)

The emulation of the arts and science model has spawned a number of subproblems in preparation programs. One of the most serious is that education designed for practitioners (Ed.D. programs) has been molded to parallel the training provided to researchers (Ph.D. programs), in terms of both research requirements (Silver, 1978a) and general coursework (M. Norton & Levan, 1987). This blurring of requirements and experiences for students pursuing quite distinct careers has resulted in the development of ersatz research programs for prospective practitioners. Students, burdened with a variety of inappropriate activities (e.g., the dissertation, see J. Murphy, 1989c, 1990h), are prepared to be neither first-rate researchers nor successful practitioners. Not surprisingly, recent acknowledgment of the problem has produced calls for a more professionally oriented model of preparation—a program that is clearly distinguishable from the Ph.D. training sequence and that focuses on the problems of practice and on the clinical aspects of the administrator's role (AACTE, 1988; NCEEA, 1987).

FACULTY

> Most faculty are only marginally more knowledgeable than their students. (Hawley, 1988, p. 85)

No analysis of the delivery system employed in programs to prepare school leaders would be complete without a discussion of faculty. Two problems in this area are paramount. To begin with, because of the large number of colleges operating programs and because many of these programs are money "makers used to support the work that universities consider more important" (Hawley, 1988, p. 85), there is a good deal of understaffing of faculty in these programs: "Some institutions are obviously engaging in administrative preparatory programs without the number or quality of professors essential to provide the range of skill and knowledge needed" by practicing and prospective administrators (Goldhammer, cited in Farquhar & Piele, 1972, p. 47). Although analysts have argued that "a quality program requires a *minimum* of five full-time faculty members" (NCEEA, 1987, p. 20, emphasis added), the median number today is four and the modal number is two (McCarthy et al., 1988). Moreover, although faculty size increased during the behavioral science era (see Chapter 3), recently there appears to be a slight downturn in the number of faculty per department (Miklos, in press). It is also important to note that many faculty members in educational administration occupy administrative positions in addition to their regular professional roles (McCarthy et al., 1988; Wynn, 1957). Farquhar and Piele (1972) remind us that the problem of faculty understaffing in school administration is exacerbated by "the need to secure staff expertise in the skills of the profession for which students are being prepared and in the disciplines from which content is drawn for the preparatory program" (p. 44).

In attempting to address the need to develop intradepartmental balance between professor-scholars attuned to the disciplines and professor-practitioners oriented to the field, departments have generally produced the worst of both. Unclear about the proper mission of preparation programs (J. Murphy, 1990e), seeking to enhance the relatively low status afforded professors of school administration, and overburdened with multitudes of students, faculties in educational leadership are characterized by weak scholarship (Achilles, 1990; Campbell & Newell, 1973; Griffiths, 1965; Immegart, 1977, 1990; McCarthy et al., 1988) and problematic connections to the field (Griffiths et al., 1988b; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Willower, 1988). A number of reviewers have concluded "that only a relatively small number of those in the field of educational administration actively engage in scholarly activities" (Immegart, 1990, p. 11). Most "have little time for, or inclination toward research" (Campbell & Newell, 1973, p. 139). Even more disheartening are the assessments of the quality of the scholarship that does occur. In general, it is neither "very significant . . . nor regarded very highly by practitioners" (Griffiths, 1965, p. 28). Because of serious limitations in their own training, many professors "are not qualified to supervise research" (Hawley, 1988, p. 85). Coupling this deficiency in ability with the previously noted lack of effort results in a situation in which "very little good research is being conducted by [educational administration] faculty and students" (Hawley, 1988, p. 85) and in which

students develop a truncated, academic view of scholarly inquiry (Immegart, 1990).

It would be nice to be able to report that the professoriate in educational administration was channeling energy uninvested in scholarship into efforts to forge better connections with the field and to attack the problems that infest training programs. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Faculty linkages to schools have actually atrophied over the last two generations. And, as Griffiths and his colleagues (1988b) have noted, professors are not seriously engaged in the work of strengthening preparation programs:

> In 1973 the authors of a major study of professors of educational administration were perplexed by the complacence of professors in the face of recognized problems with administrator preparation.... Today these professors continue to be complacent.... Fewer and older, these professors are faced with insufficient resources and small enrollments; they are less able and probably less disposed to improve administrator preparation now than they were in 1973. (p. 298)

Thus we find that most professors are adrift in roles that are esteemed neither by their peers in the university (the second-class citizenship syndrome) nor by their colleagues in the schools (the ivory tower syndrome).

INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

> The predominance of traditional instructional modes might be some concern to those who seek improvement of preparation programs.... This traditionalism in instruction ... is particularly problematic in a field that purports to emphasize educational leadership. (Silver, 1978a, p. 205)

It is probably not surprising, although it is distressing, that inappropriate content ineffectively packaged should also be so poorly delivered in many training institutions. It is also disheartening that so little progress has been made in an area that has been so thoroughly critiqued (AASA, 1960; Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971c; Erlandson & Witters-Churchill, 1988; Farquhar & Piele, 1972; Hall & McIntyre, 1957; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Silver, 1978a) and

about which we have learned so much over the last quarter century. In 1960, the AASA reported:

> The mediocrity of programs of preparation comes from the sterility of methods reported. Instruction is classroom bound; administration is talked about rather than observed, felt, and in these and other ways actually experienced. (p. 83)

> Teaching methods in general provided excellent demonstrations of what the students had been advised *not* to do in their previous education courses. (p. 178)

Thirty years later, "the dominant mode of instruction continues to be lecture and discussion in a classroom setting based on the use of a textbook" (Mulkeen & Tetenbaum, 1990, p. 20), even though such a method is "regarded unfavorably in the literature and by the students" (Miklos, 1983, p. 165). As we saw in Chapter 3, although some progress was made during the behavioral science era to infuse reality-oriented instructional strategies into preparation programs, the change has hardly been revolutionary and the use of innovative pedagogical methods is not prevalent. For example, in the Texas NASSP study (Erlandson & Witters-Churchill, 1988), principals report "lecture and discussion" to be the primary instructional mode used for eight of nine skill areas examined—and the ninth skill, written communication, is a close second! Mulkeen and Tetenbaum (1990) remind us that this approach not only is often sterile, but also assumes a fixed knowledge base—an assumption that is inconsistent with the realities of knowledge production in a postindustrial world (J. Murphy, 1991b).

Standards of Performance

> Most schools of education are embarrassed by the academic performance of the doctoral students in educational administration. The model grade given to students is an "A"; not because we have criterion referenced performance standards that all could ultimately meet but because we have given up on holding tired, end-of-the-day students to graduate level performance. (Clark, 1988, p. 4)

The lack of rigorous standards is a serious problem that touches almost every aspect of educational administration. Previously, we noted the general absence of standards at the point of entry into preparation programs: "If entrance requirements exist at all, they are not very competitive and most applicants are accepted" (Peterson & Finn, 1985, p. 51). Once students enter preparation programs, the situation does not improve: "The quality of [their] experiences is often abysmally low" (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989, p. 1). They are not exposed to rigorous coursework: "Students move through the program without ever seeing a current research study (other than a local dissertation), without ever having read an article in ASQ or EAQ or AJS [*Administrative Science Quarterly, Educational Administration Quarterly,* and *American Journal of Sociology,* respectively]. They are functionally illiterate in the basic knowledge of our field" (Clark, 1988, pp. 4-5; see also AACTE, 1988). Because performance criteria are ill-defined and "vary considerably in how rigorously they are applied" (Nagle & Nagle, 1978, p. 123), there is also very little monitoring of student progress (Hawley, 1988). Not surprisingly, very few entrants to certification programs fail to complete their programs for academic reasons (Gerritz et al., 1984). Most former students indicate that their graduate training was not very rigorous (Jacobson, 1990; Muth, 1989). The delivery system most commonly employed —part-time study in the evening or on weekends—results in students who come to their "studies worn-out, distracted, and harried" (Mann, 1975, p. 143) and contributes to the evolution and acceptance of low standards (Goldhammer, 1963; Hawley, 1988; Mann, 1975). McIntyre (1966) has pointed out that:

> the organization, content, and methods characteristic of our preparation programs are not conducive to performance assessment—except for the performance of the professor. The typical three-semester-hour course, especially one meeting two or three times weekly, hardly provides a setting for the study of student behavior that might be relevant to effectiveness in school administration. (p. 12)

Exit requirements in turn are often "slack and unrelated to the work of the profession" (Peterson & Finn, 1985, p. 54). Compounding the lack of standards at almost every phase of preparation programs are university faculty who are unable or unwilling to improve the

situation (Hawley, 1988; McCarthy et al., 1988). An even greater obstacle to improving standards are the bargains, compromises, and treaties that operate in preparation programs—the lowering of standards in exchange for high enrollments and compliant student behavior:

> The solution is often to conclude a treaty of mutual non-aggression with one's students. The terms of the treaty are usually that the professor won't plague the students with "irrelevant" ideas if the students will keep quiet about that professorial non-performance. The glue on the agreement is high grades based on low or no performance, which is traded for silence. (Mann, 1975, p. 144)[19]

The NCEEA (1987) and the NPBEA (1989a) have concluded that the time has come to elevate markedly standards in school administration.

Certification and Employment

CERTIFICATION

> Whether few or many, these requirements are nearly always stated in terms of paper credentials supplied by colleges of education—transcripts and credit hours that must parallel those on a list maintained by the certification bureau or the state education department. License-seekers rarely have to pass any sort of test or examination analogous to a bar exam or to medicine's "national boards," nor does the education profession enforce any substantial standards for those seeking administrative certification. (Peterson & Finn, 1985, p. 44)

Suggestions for the reform of educational administration extend beyond preparation programs to address problems with the certification and employment of principals and superintendents. The major criticisms of certification and accreditation processes are: they are unduly costly and cumbersome (Goodlad, 1984); they focus on requirements and skills different than those that administrators need to be successful on the job (National Commission for the Principalship, 1990); they reduce the pool of potential leaders to only those applicants who have worked in public schools (Bennett, 1986);

they operate at only one period of time, for example, at the completion of preparation programs (NCEEA, 1987); and, in total, they do not promote excellence in the profession (NCEEA, 1987).[20]

Advocates for reform have proposed a number of solutions for these problems. Perhaps the most controversial are those that establish alternative routes to certification, thus allowing prospective administrators to maneuver around educational administration programs altogether. Such proposals are designed "to encourage service in the public schools by qualified persons from business, industry, the scientific and technical communities and institutions of higher learning" (Education Commission of the States, 1983, p. 39; see also Bennett, 1986; Clinton, 1987). Other proposals call for bringing greater coherence to the licensing process by eliminating the piecemeal methods by which certification can be gained (Peterson & Finn, 1985) and by establishing a tighter coupling between certification requirements and the skills prospective administrators need in order to be effective (National Commission for the Principalship, 1990; NGA, 1986). A few influential reports have suggested the use of multiple levels of licensure. For example, the National Governors' Association (Clinton, 1987) and the NCEEA (1987) have both called for provisional or entry-level certification of new administrators to be followed by full certification after the documentation of successful performance. Coupled with these suggestions are proposals for recertification every few years "on the basis of successful performance and continuing professional development" (NCEEA, 1987, p. 27). Harking back to an early proposal by Grace (1946), some recent reports have called for a connection to be drawn between licensure and successful performance on a post-training examination (Gerritz et al., 1984; NPBEA, 1989a).

EMPLOYMENT

> Localism, limited esteem, and a baronial system of career management are not conducive to the innovative leadership that we are regularly advised is required in education. Quite the contrary. They seem likely to encourage the recruitment of individuals who are relatively uncreative and to extinguish administrative creativity if it should arise. (March, 1974, p. 22)

> Observation leads me to conclude that the two most prevalent factors in selection of superintendents are seniority and political patronage. I am not sure which ranks first, but I regret that at the present time I must put both ahead of competency based on formal professional preparation. Other unsubstantiated observations convince me that a man has a better chance for promotion than a woman; a handsome man wins over a homely one; and an extrovert outclasses an introvert. It is common knowledge that racial, religious, fraternal, and political ties are fundamental in ruling on candidates for administrative posts. (Campbell et al., 1960, p. 186)

The first major problem in the area of employment deals with the processes used to select new administrators. Although "remarkably little is known about just how these critical educational leaders are chosen" (Baltzell & Dentler, 1983, p. 1), tentative evidence suggests that selection procedures are cloudy and quixotic (Boyer, 1983), random (Achilles, 1984), byzantine (Barth, 1988), chance-ridden (Baltzell & Dentler, 1983; Hall & McIntyre, 1957), and only distally connected to the ability to perform (Campbell et al., 1960, p. 178): "Access to the chance to perform still depend[s] on personality, presentability, 'street sense,' carefully cultivated connections, power and blind, dumb luck" (Mann, 1975, pp. 141-142); "The process [of principal selection] itself *cannot* be characterized as merit-based or equity-centered" (Baltzell & Dentler, 1983, p. 19). There is little evidence that educational leadership is either demanded of or sought in candidates. In general, the lack of criterial specificity—"relatively few school districts have written policies for recruiting and selecting administrators" (Miklos, in press)—

> opens the way for widespread reliance on localistic notions of "fit" or "image" which emerged as centrally important. . . . However, time and time again, this "fit" seemed to rest on interpersonal perceptions of a candidate's physical presence, projection of a certain self-confidence and assertiveness, and embodiment of community values and methods of operation. (Baltzell & Dentler, 1983, p. 7)

The entire process is characterized by "limited resources" and "inadequate preparation" (Miklos, in press) and a bias toward local candidates (Miklos, 1988).

The most clearly developed proposal for reform in this area has been articulated by Baltzell and Dentler (1983, pp. 42-44). They suggest, among other things, the use of more highly focused selection criteria with better linkage to merit standards, a layered screening process, greater reliance on data and less on interpersonal judgments, and more direct attention to equity issues. On the matter of equity, Clark (1988) has examined the role that departments of educational administration have played in the selection process and found that they "are part of the problem, not the solution, in increasing the placement of women and minority groups in positions of educational leadership" (p. 8). He suggests renewed attention to equity issues in colleges of education. Finally, relevant reform reports consistently recommend that selection criteria be more heavily weighted in favor of educational leadership skills (Clinton, 1987; see J. Murphy, 1990c, for a review).

A second employment problem noted in recent reform reports is the lack of quality postemployment training opportunities for principals and superintendents. Three facets of the problem have been identified. To begin with, there is a virtual absence of induction programs for newly appointed administrators (Peterson & Finn, 1985). Nor are experiences in the assistant principalship being deliberately structured to nurture administrators for the principalship (Weindling & Earley, 1987); if anything, the assistant principal experience may be providing dysfunctional training (W. Greenfield, Marshall, & Reed, 1986). In addition, continued professional growth opportunities for administrators are limited, and these experiences often accumulate in an unsystematic manner (Daresh & LaPlant, 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1991; NCEEA, 1987). As difficult as it may be to believe after reading the rest of this chapter, continuing education programs in educational administration seem to be in even worse shape than preparation programs (Hallinger & Murphy, 1991). Reform proposals call for increased attention to ongoing professional development for administrators. Mentorships[21] and enhanced peer interactions are often emphasized in these proposals (U.S. Department of Education, 1987). The content foci are both educational and managerial skills, and, contrary to the thrust of a quarter century ago (Farquhar & Piele, 1972), the preferred delivery structures are networks and centers outside the control of colleges of education and educational administration faculty (Boyer, 1983; Education Commission of the States, 1983; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987).

Part III

The Future

One can never know certainly where one stands in history or society. Estimates of historical position and social situation are imprecise at best, and often contested. But we make estimates, thoughtful or not, and often act accordingly. Different estimates of where one stands in history—even among those who agree on where it is headed—can yield very different conceptions of what is possible, and what is to be done. (D. Cohen, 1988, p. 21)

Unfortunately, there are no research findings to describe the future. Lacking a crystal ball, the best one can do is to discern in current developments some portents of tomorrow. It may not even be possible to document with much finality the existence of the trends from which one extrapolates. One must use whatever evidence is available, whether or not it is conclusive. Further, when one has conjured up a number of these forces for change, several organizational responses to these forces are always possible, and a choice from among them necessarily reflects one's own values. (Erickson, 1964, p. 57)

We construct our own system of thought and value, and then live "as if" reality conformed to it. (Shattuck, 1960)

We must somehow get hold of some kind of eye-bath—something to cleanse our eyes of an accumulated grit of cliches, slogans, and meaningless words. (Halpin, 1960, p. 17)

Six

Preparing Leaders for Tomorrow's Schools

> Undergirding these continuing reports, conversations and critical exchanges is the inescapable conclusion that substantive changes are needed in educational administration programs. (Prestine & LeGrand, 1990, p. 1)

> To cultivate and develop school leaders who can meet the challenges of creating new structures and reforming schooling practices will require a dismantling and restructuring of the ways in which such leaders are prepared and trained. (Roberts, 1990, p. 135)

> We cannot advocate practices for . . . schools that we are not willing to advocate and practise ourselves. (Fullan, 1991, p. 3)

This final chapter sketches a design for transforming preparation programs to meet the challenges of educating leaders for tomorrow's schools. Because, as Cuban (1988) says, "defining problems carefully at the outset is far more important than generating clever solutions to ill-defined problems" (p. 343), and as Reyes and Capper (1991) report, "how a problem is defined can determine if and how the problem is addressed" (p. 551), considerable effort has been devoted in earlier chapters to framing the nature of the problem. Building on that work, the guidelines presented here are grounded upon three propositions: (a) that the "proper means for reconstructuring our social institutions are best suggested by a careful accumulation and analysis of our institutional experience and [that a] wider accumulation and saner interpretation of the facts

of our educational history" (Cubberly, cited in Culbertson, 1988a, p. 9) can help establish a framework for the transformation of leadership preparation programs; (b) that new training models must unequivocally address the weaknesses that plague current programs; and (c) that the transformation must fit our vision of society, schooling, learning, and leadership for the twenty-first century. The guidelines themselves are presented in two sections. The first section examines the objectives of proposed reconstructed preparation programs. We discuss values, education, inquiry, and knowledge of the human condition. The second half of the chapter develops a set of principles to shape the knowledge base, delivery systems, and support structures that would comprise these alternative educational programs for school administrators.

It is difficult to analyze the state of affairs in administration programs without becoming despondent. Indeed, the fundamental tenet of this volume is that we must be about the business of improving things dramatically. At the same time, however, we must avoid the sins of past reforms, especially that of zealotry. We need to examine alternative perspectives critically. The history of shifts from the ideological to the prescriptive era and from the prescriptive to the social science era reveals three types of overzealousness: *excessive* criticism—the demand "that almost everything that had been done in the past . . . be changed" (Callahan, 1962, p. 191); a belief that *one* true path had been discovered (e.g., scientific management, behavioral science research); and a virtual absence, especially in the yeasty time of ferment, of close scrutiny of the "new" model.

Caveats introduced in Chapter 1 are also worth revisiting, especially a warning against March's (1974, 1978) ideology of administration—the rational,[1] linear "conceit" (1974, p. 21) that training will noticeably enhance leadership, which in turn will significantly improve education and schools, resulting in solutions for the complex problems confronting society. As previously documented, all the links in this chain have been subject to fairly persuasive criticism. Particularly troublesome in this discussion is the first coupling—improved training to better leadership.[2] Because "graduate training [is] a low-gain enterprise" (Tyack & Cummings, 1977, p. 59), "it is important to have a realistic understanding of possible reform of educational leadership through improved training" (p. 63).

It is also useful to remind ourselves that nearly every dimension of preparation programs treated below (e.g., emphasis on training

the person versus training for organizational roles, generic versus specialized training content) has been debated throughout our field's short history (Campbell et al., 1987). Different answers have found acceptance in various eras.[3] Therefore, it may be naive to assume that the resolutions proposed here for recurring issues will hold over time. It is perhaps unrealistic even to believe that they will take root.[4] As D. Cohen (1988), Cuban (1984, 1988), Elmore (1987), and other scholars have shown, fundamental change in educational institutions is rare indeed. Changes in programs of educational administration may be even more problematic (J. Murphy, 1989b, 1991a). Although Milstein (1990) argues persuasively that "it is clearly to our advantage to take the leadership" (p. 130) in the effort to improve preparation, we have been reluctant to do so (Griffiths et al., 1988b; McCarthy et al., 1988). Furthermore, because institutions of higher education are characterized by a good deal of "organizational sediment" and inherited "instructional guidance" (D. Cohen, 1989, pp. 6, 8) most changes in preparation programs have been "superficial, reactive, and cosmetic" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 299) or at best evolutionary in nature (Miklos, 1983).

Campbell and Miklos also add some cautionary comments to our discussion. Campbell and his colleagues (1960) reinforce a point made in Chapter 4—that a clear path of what needs to be done is far from obvious:

> I see us in a forest replete with trees, vines, and brambles, with a number of open spaces generally scattered. There are few clearly marked trails or signposts—worst of all, we administrators are not quite sure from which side of the woods we hope to emerge. (pp. 188-189)

Miklos (in press) in turn maintains that the knowledge base necessary to inform change efforts is far from robust:

> Not only is there an uncertain knowledge base for administrator preparation, there is also an inadequate research base for efforts to improve programs. Most of the current proposals for reform—even though they may be persuasive—are not grounded in an extensive body of research. If there is to be a sound base for future reforms, various aspects of administrator preparation must be subjected to more intensive research than has occurred in the past.

Program Purpose and Goals

> Shaping the character and the scope of every preparatory program is a set of educational goals. Sometimes relatively implicit and sometimes more explicit, these goals reflect the image of the administrator which a given program would produce. Defining the desired facets of the image is the most fundamental of all acts in program development; the definition attained will and should affect every major aspect of preparation. (Culbertson, 1962, pp. 151-152)

Material for the design of preparation programs presented herein is drawn from the three areas described in Chapters 2 through 5: a deep understanding of our history; analysis of current conditions in training programs; and a vision of the future of society, education, and leadership. Given our understanding of that material, the following purpose of training programs for school leaders emerges: to provide leadership to communities so that children and young adults are well educated, in the deepest sense of the term. The key words here are *leadership* and *education*. Yet the sad fact is, as we have discovered repeatedly throughout this volume, that current preparation programs have little to do with either of these core dimensions of school administration: "Much . . . training is at best tangential and often merely conjectural with respect to the goals our institutions strive to achieve" (Erickson, 1977, p. 125). Taking this purpose seriously, then, will require a quite different set of goals for training programs than those currently driving the education of prospective administrators.

PROGRAM GOALS

> [A] critical challenge facing those involved in preparation and training programs for school leaders is to help these potential leaders purposefully shape their own leadership paradigms in ways that enable them to take on the role of school leadership with vision-driven, action-oriented, and reflective confidence in their ability to instigate reform and stimulate success. (Roberts, 1990, p. 136)

As we have seen throughout earlier chapters, the implicit—if not explicit—goal of most preparation programs has been to help students of administration master a body of knowledge, often for a specific role (Campbell et al., 1987). For approximately the first 50 years of this century, that content consisted of rough-hewn principles of practice couched in terms of prescriptions. Since the end of World War II, the focus has been on knowledge from the social science disciplines. In both eras, administrators were to apply the knowledge acquired at the university to the problems they confronted at the school or district site. Thus, throughout its brief history, the field of school administration in general, and preparation programs in particular, have been defined primarily by reference to a body of knowledge. This is not a particularly surprising finding given the drive to professionalize administration and anoint it as an area of study (applied or otherwise). Although it is perhaps inappropriate to argue that this was the wrong way to define the field and to establish goals for school administration training programs, it is fair to suggest that it was not the most appropriate method of proceeding (Sergiovanni, 1991b). Indeed, as Evans (1991) correctly concludes, the attempt in educational administration "to *construct* a field of study on a 'body of knowledge' or a set of propositional findings . . . diverts our thinking onto the wrong path" (p. 19). It seems more useful to suggest that the content in training programs should backward map from the goals of preparation, rather than vice versa,[5] or, as Culbertson and Farquhar (1971a) captured it nearly a quarter of a century ago, "the search for more effective structure must be based upon the search for more clearly defined program goals" (p. 12).[6] Four such goals for preparation programs for practitioners[7] are discussed below: helping prospective leaders to become moral agents, educators, inquirers, and students of the human condition. The discussion is based on the belief that tomorrow's preparation programs should highlight "the centrality of ethical and intellectual qualities" as opposed to administrative roles, and that their goal is to "prepare the person" rather than to prepare the person for the role (Campbell et al., 1987, p. 192).

Values

> It therefore follows necessarily that one of the principal emphases in the training of educational administrators—possibly the critical emphasis—must be placed on training in educational purpose and in the processes through which such purposes are defined. No amount of empirical description of schools or management, regardless of frame of reference, can supply the insights necessary for this task. (Harlow, 1962, p. 63)

> If preparation programmes for school administrators are to acknowledge the surfing characteristics of administrative life they will need to give far more emphasis to a concern for values. (Sergiovanni, 1989a, p. 11)

The first goal of preparation programs should be to help students articulate an explicit set of values and beliefs to guide their actions—to become moral agents (Beck & Murphy, in press-b), or what C. Hodgkinson (1975) calls "valuationists" (p. 16). This goal is based on the belief that "the specific things (answers) that can be taught to prospective administrators may be less useful in many ways than a set of values behind the answers" (Crowson & McPherson, 1987, pp. 50-51). This is a radically different starting point for program development than the one that has been used for the past 90 years (Evans, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1989a). Because "acts of leadership at critical junctures in human events seldom involve choices in which the implications are clearly evident" (Popper, 1982, p. 16), and therefore "one cannot act on the basis of knowledge alone" (Hills, 1975, p. 17), values may well be the appropriate starting point. Behavior in the absence of these values is little more than "artificial posturing" (Hills, 1975, p. 16).

Because administrators are "representatives of values" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 152)—that is, "since administrators occupy and operate within a value-saturated universe" (C. Hodgkinson, 1975, p. 17; Starratt, 1991)—and "because administrators perform acts which flow from value judgments" (Carlson, 1963, p. 25), the focus on "deliberate moral choice" (Willower, 1988, p. 737), the "ethics of administration" (Watson, 1977, p. 91; Farquhar, 1981), "ethical inquiry" (Starratt, 1991, p. 186), and purposing (Carlson, 1963; Culbertson, 1963, 1964; Harlow, 1962) must be conscious goals of preparation programs (Carlson, 1963; Culbertson, 1962; Farquhar, 1968; Harlow, 1962; Wengert, 1962). Adherence to this goal shifts the focus in training programs from characteristics of administration to the

character of administrators and from "administration as a science" to administration as a "moral act" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 137):

> [T]he determination of educational purposes is not a matter simply for an exercise in group dynamics. Neither is it a platform for the exhibition of a persuasive and charismatic personality. It is a matter for the most carefully reasoned, most carefully disciplined intellectual effort. It is in this fact that there is to be found an opportunity for the improvement of training programs for prospective educational administrators. (Harlow, 1962, p. 68)

Education

> [I]t must be asserted with some force that educational administration must derive its position and principles from more general assumptions about the nature of education in our society. (Foster, 1988, p. 69)

> The changing context in which we'll operate during the twenty-first century will place an even greater obligation on the principal to possess broader knowledge about teaching, learning, and curriculum. . . . What is involved here is more than the acquisition of recent research. It is an attitude of not only becoming expertly informed but of remaining informed and of preserving a habit of inquiry and reflection about the teaching and learning processes. (NAESP, 1990, pp. 13, 26)

Helping students become educators should be the second goal of restructured preparation programs. Earlier we cited the work of Bates (1984), Callahan (1962), Evans (1991), Foster (1988, 1989), and J. Murphy (1990d, 1990e, 1990f) and his colleagues (J. Murphy et al., 1983; J. Murphy, Hallinger, Lotto, & Miller, 1987) which reveals that school administration became "conceived as a special field within a larger field of Administration" rather than as "a special field within the larger field of Education" (Boyan, 1963, p. 12). We saw how the focus in preparation programs—first on scientific management and then on the social sciences—and the desire to create a profession separate from teaching (Goldhammer, 1983) contributed to: (a) the institutionalization of administration qua administration (Boyan, 1963); (b) the "separation of problems in administration from problems in education" (T. Greenfield, 1988, p. 144) in general; and (c) a

heavy "accent on administrative and maintenance functions" (Watson, 1977, p. 89) in preparation programs in particular.

Because this approach to the field produces men and women who, in Hills's (1975) eyes, are little more than spectators in their own schools, we now know that "there is room for, and need for, dramatic changes in how principals understand their vocation" (Miklos, 1990, p. 339). The organizing framework for school administration as a field of activity is student learning, the effects of schooling on children and young adults (Erickson, 1977, 1979). Or, as Evans (1991) puts it, "the deep significance of the task of school administration is to be found in the pedagogical ground of its vocation"; it is, in fact, "the notion of *education* that gives the idea of leadership its whole purpose" (pp. 17, 3). Therefore, "the first quality . . . educational leaders of the future should have is a deep, empirically grounded, and unsentimental understanding of some aspect of teaching and learning" (Elmore, 1990, p. 64). The school administrator of the future "needs to be reasonably well grounded in developmental psychology, learning situations, socialization, cultural variation, instructional methods and materials, and curricular development" (Hills, 1975, p. 13). Programs for tomorrow's leaders need to restore "to educational administration what belongs to it, namely a deeply educative and pedagogic interest in the lives of children and young people" (Evans, 1991, p. 17). This shift in goals leads to a redirection in training programs from management to education by reconnecting administration with its original roots in teaching (Goldhammer, 1983).

Inquiry

> [W]e need to reconceptualize our research training [for professional educators] so that the process of inquiry becomes central. (Muth, 1989, p. 5)

Facilitating the development of inquiry skills, or enhancing the thinking abilities of students, should be the third goal of reconstructured preparation programs. Consistent with the tenets of the behavioral psychology approach to learning that undergirds existing preparation programs (see Chapter 5), the operant goal in training programs is the transfer of knowledge from faculty to students. Furthermore, "most programs have emphasized the solutions to

algorithmic tasks as opposed to heuristic ones" (Bryant, 1988, p. 10). In addition to the weaknesses of the transmission model of learning discussed in Chapter 5, knowledge *transfer* is an inappropriate primary goal for a variety of reasons. To begin with, as we have noted repeatedly, the process of defining educational administration by establishing a knowledge base and then backward mapping preparation from this content leads to distortions and dysfunctions in training programs. Furthermore, since it is becoming more obvious that there is not a codifiable knowledge base in educational administration and that efforts to develop one are not likely to be especially fruitful, making the transfer of predefined chunks of information the center of preparation seems counterproductive.[8] Such a process is also inconsistent with the dynamics of the administrative environment, a "scruffy" world (Sergiovanni, 1991b, p. 4) "full of unknowns where creative problem solving is likely to pay more dividends over the long run than superficial answers in the short run" (Bryant, 1988, pp. 13-14). Finally, as Culbertson (1964) reminds us, inquiry is central to the moral and educational goals discussed earlier, especially "in updating the meaning of educational purposes" (p. 321).

In programs to prepare tomorrow's leaders, it is important that inquiry occupy the high ground—that our students "acquire, above all else, the attitudes and skills of inquiry" (Erickson, 1964, p. 60). The focus should be less on acquiring information and discrete technical skills than on "cognitive and metacognitive processes" (Prestine & LeGrand, 1990, p. 13) and on learning the skills and habits of "conceptual literacy" (Giroux, 1988, p. 8) and "clinical reasoning" (Copeland, 1989, p. 10). Within the context of values, and based upon firm pedagogical foundations, process issues should displace content coverage at center stage (Hills, 1975). Procedural knowledge —"knowledge about how to perform various cognitive activities" (J. Anderson, 1990, p. 219)—rather than declarative knowledge—knowledge about facts, things, and associations—becomes the primary focus (Ohde & Murphy, in press). Construction of knowledge should move to the foreground, the dissemination of information to the background (Bransford, 1991; Fisher, 1990; Stigler & Stevenson, 1991); "Course content becomes a part of the process rather than an end in itself" (Prestine & LeGrand, 1990, p. 15). The spotlight should be on "those thought processes that precede purposeful . . . action" (Copeland, 1989, p. 10), on the construction of knowledge, and on

understanding: "A preparation program with an inquiry orientation . . . would have the virtue of producing seekers of knowledge rather than the providers of answers" (Bryant, 1988, pp. 14-15). Specific inquiry foci that would shape educational experiences—within the framework of practice-driven, problem-based activities —include ways of perceiving and knowing[9] (e.g., seeing issues from multiple perspectives, reading situations), interpreting (e.g., critical analysis and reflection, including unpacking the concepts, language, and values of daily life[10]), and shaping activity (e.g., problem framing). "The common language and skills developed in such programs would be those [of] inquiry, problem finding, problem defining, and problem solving" (Muth, 1989, p. 12). The paradigmatic shift here is from behavioral psychology to cognitive constructivist approaches to learning.

The Human Condition

> The significant influence of study comes . . . through altering the conceptions . . . of the human being and of human behavior which serve as the context for administrative practice. (Hills, 1975, p. 3)

The final major goal of preparation programs for the future is to help our students learn to work productively with people, to lead in the broadest sense of the term. Although we have known for some time now "that the crucial task of the school administrator is that of helping people make good decisions" (AASA, 1960, p. 176), we have not approached this goal with much reflection or imagination in our training programs. As we saw in Chapter 5, the bureaucratic conception of management has focused on people as means rather than as ends. If Hills (1975) is right, and I think he is, that "the heart of the matter [educational leadership] seems to be how one behaves toward people," and that it is "far more important . . . that [the leader] have a reasonably adequate conception of the human condition than he have at his fingertips the most recent work in 'the politics of education,' 'the economics of education,' or 'organizational change' " (p. 12), then we need to rethink strategies to ensure that our preparation programs more effectively promote understanding of the human condition and more systematically provide a context for bringing that knowledge to bear on problems of education. Changes required in preparation programs in order to highlight this goal

include: the creation of learning communities that incorporate understandings of the human condition; the infusion of content from a greater variety of areas, especially the humanities; and the use of instructional approaches that promote cooperative effort, dialogue, and reflection.

Principles for Developing New Programs

> The paradigm shift and the presence of alternative perspectives in administrative theory suggest that the time is right for allowing administrator preparation programs to reconsider their standard coursework and to try out different training models. (Foster, 1988, p. 78)

> Perhaps the day may come when entire preparation programs in educational administration are focused on the development of ethical competence, with the selection of social science and humanistic content and of instructional materials and field experiences being determined by the nature of a few crucial ethical problems around which the programs are built. (Farquhar, 1968, p. 203)

As with the issue of goals, the essential problem in defining principles consists of clearly identifyinig a few broad areas. In educational administration, we have invested considerable energy in trying to develop analogs to the periodic table—especially lists of functions, competencies, skills, courses, and so forth. Similar efforts at this juncture in our history may not present us with an especially clear path. What the field lacks is not lists but "over-arching gestalt conceptions shaping preparation programs" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971a, p. 11). Perhaps it makes most sense at this transition period to develop a relatively short but robust set of principles that comprise a gestalt of preparation and then to orient the education of school administrators toward these ideas. This strategy is both different from the catalog development procedures currently employed and consistent with the emerging views of knowledge construction presented in Chapters 5 and 6. For organizational purposes only,[11] essential principles for the development of preparation programs for leaders of tomorrow's schools are divided into two sections—curricular and instructional revisions.

CURRICULAR REVISIONS

> More of the same—more courses, more requirements, more programs—may not be the best way to improve training and prepare administrators for the 1990s and beyond. (Mulkeen & Cooper, 1989, p. 10)

The curriculum in reconstructed preparation programs should be characterized by authenticity, complexity, and interrelatedness. The following principles appear particularly appropriate for the redesign work:

1. The program should be designed to help students develop the capacity to learn (as opposed to accumulating information).
2. The program should feature multisource, interrelated content (as opposed to a single-source, multidisciplinary approach).
3. The curriculum should be constructed "out of *generative topics*" (Perkins, 1991, p. 6), "essential questions" (Wasley, 1991, p. 42), or around authentic problems of practice (as opposed to being based on roles or academic disciplines).
4. The emphasis should be on depth of experiences (as opposed to content coverage).
5. The program should use original source documents (as opposed to textbooks).
6. The program should feature a single core curriculum (as opposed to specialized programs).
7. Professor choice is a key to developing good curricular experiences (as opposed to prescribed learning sequences).

Implicit in these principles is a rejection of the following norms that characterize current preparation programs: (a) the belief the administrators can be prepared to deal with the specific content of their jobs, and that we can do this better by preparing people for ever more discrete roles; (b) equating preparation with the transmission of a "systematized body of knowledge" (Gregg, 1969, p. 997)—either discrete technical skills[12] or discipline-based content; (c) the separation of administration from education and values; and (d) distinctions between theory and practice.

In the stead of the above norms stand a variety of new conceptions about preparation content. At the most fundamental level, the principles listed above portray a dramatic shift in our understanding of knowledge. Knowledge is a tool, not a product. Starting from this viewpoint,

> whether or not one finds specific applications for specific learnings, is less important than the general orientation, world view, or whatever, that one constructs out of the variety of things experienced and learned. (Hills, 1975, p. 15)

At the same time, we are experiencing a shift in the nature of knowledge—to "a kind of knowledge that is rooted in action rather than cognition" (Petrie, 1990, p. 20; see also Perkins, 1991). The principles that should guide the restructuring of program content are grounded in the belief that the type of "knowledge needed to act competently as a principal relies more on the capacity to grasp meaning (a hermeneutic activity) than it relies on the possession of an abstract body of empirically derived skills and knowledge" (Evans, 1991, p. 7). Because administrative behavior in reality is "governed to a considerable degree by a rather generalized, closely interrelated mixture of empirical beliefs and values" (Hills, 1975, p. 2), they also acknowledge the fact that meaning is best nurtured in a context that underscores the development and use of three types of knowledge —craft, scientific, and moral. The design principles also reveal that educational administration needs to be studied as "a field of practice on its own turf and in terms of its own dynamics" (Immegart, 1990, p. 6; see also Cunningham, 1990a; Miklos, 1990). Finally, founded on the belief that the theory-practice dichotomy is largely an artifact of perspective and that efforts to bridge this perceived gap will fail as long as we continue attempting to map one domain onto the other, the view of knowledge contained in the seven principles outlined above is based on a model of integrated spirals of ways of knowing and acting. This mindscape both rejects out of hand the separation of theory from practice (and practice from theory) and, within the context of preparation, links these two formerly discrete concepts in such a way as to render meaningless a discussion of one without the other (Prestine & LeGrand, 1990).

These principles differentiate content in the new preparation programs from more traditional ones in other ways as well. To begin with, they require a multisource approach to providing students with educational experiences. Such an approach stands in stark contrast to earlier attempts to identify the one most appropriate content base for preparation programs. Equally important, the "multisource approach suggests abandoning the practice of simplification by isolation and adopting the strategy of simplification by integration" (Iran-Nejad, McKeachie, & Berliner, 1990, p. 513). The multisource strategy, developed "out of the vastness of organized knowledge . . . that appears most relevant to the practitioner's tasks" (Walton, 1962, p. 93), focuses attention on three broad areas or ways of knowing: philosophy (Culbertson, 1962; C. Hodgkinson, 1975) and the humanities (Culbertson, 1964; Farquhar, 1968; Halpin, 1960; Harlow, 1962; Popper, 1982, 1987); the social and behavioral sciences (see Chapters 3 and 4); and other professions (Soder, 1988), especially the helping professions (Cunningham, 1990a; Harbaugh, Casto, & Burgess-Ellison, 1987). It is humanities-oriented, scientifically grounded, and interprofessional in conception. It focuses on values, on education broadly defined, and on "the uniqueness of administrative functions in education" (Miklos, 1983, p. 164). In terms of integration, the new design encompasses two changes. The construction principles facilitate the fusing of knowledge from the three sources noted above by situating learning in context. Establishing interconnectedness through simplification also means a shift from macro-level integration strategies that focus on developing multidisciplinary expertise, often at high levels of abstraction, to micro-level strategies that highlight an "ongoing process that brings together diverse influences of many sources bearing on the solution to a complex problem" (Iran-Nejad et al., 1990, p. 511) of practice. Separate disciplines are accepted for what they are: "artificial partitions with historical roots of limited contemporary significance" (Perkins, 1991, p. 7).

These principles signal a fairly substantial shift in the way we think about the content that shapes learning experiences. At the structural level, the design acknowledges "the inadequacies of the usual course-added-to-course approach to the preparation of school administrators" (McIntyre, 1957, p. 4). It also makes clear that "departments which undertake to nurture educational vision will

also have to eliminate content from established programs" (Culbertson, 1988b, p. 30) and that developers will need to value the depth of learning experiences more highly than the number of courses completed. At the heart of the new structure is a substantive change in the conception of program content, a shift from the nearly exclusive focus on the liberal arts/philosophy of the ideological era, from the folklore base of the prescriptive era, and from the behavioral science methods of the scientific era. The change is to a " 'learning-in-action' context for graduate education" (Silver, 1978a, p. 205), or what are becoming known as "real people, real life" (Willower, 1988, p. 731), clinically based (Griffiths, 1977), and problem-based strategies (Bridges & Hallinger, 1991).[13] The "alternative model . . . recognizes the legitimacy of, and addresses, the practitioner orientation" (Muth, 1989, p. 9). It locates the development of needed knowledge and "research skills in the problems and contexts with which practitioners must contend" (p. 9). The seven design principles address the calls of both humanities-oriented and social science-oriented professors for a more inductive approach to preparation—one that "starts with a primary focus on real, contemporary ethical problems confronting educational administrators and then delves selectively into humanistic content from time to time as circumstances dictate" (Farquhar, 1981, p. 200), and one that begins "with a specification of the substance of administration and attempt[s] to identify the areas in which this overlaps with the substance of the various social sciences" (Cunningham et al., 1963, p. 97).[14]

The problem-based framework draws upon a variety of forces. To begin with, this approach recognizes "that attention to administrative functions such as budgeting, finance, school law, organizational theory, curriculum development, and supervision lacks transformative power" (Cunningham, 1990a, p. 5) and is consistent with a growing recognition of the need for the development of a "knowledge base organized around problems of practice" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 301; see also J. Murphy, 1990h; Silver, 1986, 1987). It reorients preparation in such a way that the "distinctive quality" of the knowledge base becomes its "*relevance* to the problems faced by practitioners" (Lortie, 1962, p. 78). At the same time, there is a developing belief in the field that this approach is particularly useful in meeting the four program goals discussed earlier (J. Murphy, 1990h). For example, because many "of the past findings have simply shown that our approaches to direct teaching of values or

teaching by example have been dysfunctional" (C. Hodgkinson, 1975, p. 13), Farquhar (1981) suggests that "ethical competence . . . should be approached inductively in an educational administration problem solving way" (p. 203). Evans (1991) makes a similar claim when he argues that "questions of meaning cannot be addressed in the abstract but must be referred to the practical world of the here and now, the experienced and experienceable world of concrete acts and real events" (p. 5). Similar arguments for mastery of the other preparation goals—education, inquiry, and knowledge of the human condition—have been drawn by J. Murphy and Hallinger (1987), Muth (1989), and Hills (1975), respectively.

Considerable support is also being generated for the propositions that: (a) anchoring learning in "macrocontexts" or "complex problem spaces" (Cognition and Technology Group, 1990, p. 3) for extended periods facilitates learning to learn or the construction of meaning (Bransford, 1991; Brown et al, 1989; A. Collins et al., 1991); (b) "the most important goal of education is to prepare students for action . . . and that the best way to do this is, presumably, to provide students with problem-solving experiences that are similar to situations that they will encounter later on" (Bransford et al., 1989, p. 493); and (c) "problem-oriented learning environments" (p. 470) that focus on "complex, meaningful task[s]" (Means & Knapp, 1991, p. 9) and "situated cognition" (Brown et al., 1989, p. 32) promote clinical reasoning and the use and transfer of knowledge more effectively than do more traditional learning formats (Cognition and Technology Group, 1990; Copeland, 1989; Stigler & Stevenson, 1991).

Finally, the practice-oriented, problem-based approach is drawing momentum from the fact that it provides a learning context more consistent with the context that students face on the job (Bridges & Hallinger, 1991). In an influential 1974 essay, March reminded us that one

> of the persistent difficulties with programs for reform in the training of administrators is the tendency to try to improve managerial behaviour in ways that are far removed from the ordinary organization of managerial life. Unless we start from an awareness of what administrators do and some idea of why they organize their lives in the way that they do, we are likely to generate recommendations that are naive. (p. 25)

The real-life, real-people model proposed to prepare leaders for tomorrow's schools confronts this issue directly. Its framework reflects the beliefs: "that the most obvious characteristic of school administration is the job's uncompromising insistence that a host of things *get done*" (AASA, 1960, p. 175); that "understanding practice is the single most important precondition for improving practice" (Levine et al., 1987, p. 160); and that this understanding is best forged in an environment—one more disorderly than orderly (Erickson, 1977; Sergiovanni, 1991b)—that matches the one confronting administrators. Underlying these beliefs is the tenet that "clinical reasoning . . . appears to develop as a consequence of experiences with clinical environments" (Copeland, 1989, p. 12). Implicit in the design is recognition of T. Greenfield's (1988) admonition that "administrators know administration, scientists don't" (p. 155). The focus of attention is thus on real issues in the field (Crowson & McPherson, 1987; Muth, 1989).

How would a curricular program based on the ideas and principles noted above differ from current practice?[15] To begin with, most discrete courses in preparation programs would disappear. There would be no courses in school law, politics of education, administrative theory, statistics, or any of the other titles that combine to create the curriculum in most preparation programs. Specialized courses designed to prepare learners for roles such as the principalship, the superintendency, the department chair, and so forth, would be eliminated as well. The somewhat confusing segregation of inquiry skills into separate research methods courses would cease (Muth, 1989). The function of preparation programs—having students cover 8, 10, or 12 essential blocks of knowledge (i.e., separate courses) that they need to be certified and/or to graduate—would change. The goal would be to help students develop the capacity to learn, a foundation from which they can acquire information and develop understanding.

What, then, would a restructured curriculum in these preparation programs look like? Something like this makes sense: During the course of their tenure at the university, students would grapple with a select number of authentic and significant *educational* problems. Because this plan acknowledges that no particular discipline is essential, the particular nature of the problem is less critical than the extent to which it promotes the development of the four program objectives discussed earlier. In addition, the issue selected should

be an authentic aspect of practice rather than discipline-focused concern. That is, the design is both practice-driven and problem-based. Discipline-based knowledge can then be brought to bear on the problem as appropriate and needed. Knowledge would be linked to problems and the disciplines would be employed in the service of the profession, which, as we have seen, is a reverse of the current order. The opportunity is also created for the humanities to become an integral and integrated aspect of preparation programs. What students learn about the particular problem under study would be much less important than their ability to employ the solution strategies in dealing with future problems (Hills, 1975). The goal is to allow students "to construct their own cognitive understandings which could then be used for future clinical reasoning" (Copeland, 1989, p. 14).

How might this type of curriculum unfold in the real world? A cohort of students would matriculate in the fall. During their first year in the program they would tackle a real problem, similar to the following, for which they would receive 12, 15, or 18 hours of traditional course credit:

> The Cleveland City Schools are seriously considering "restructuring" their schools. We have been asked by the superintendent to work with her and her staff to study the issue and develop a plan of operation. Your responsibility is to conduct the study and develop the plan.

The learning activity would be shaped, facilitated, and evaluated by a core team of instructors working cooperatively. It is critical that the team be interdisciplinary in nature and include instructors from both the university and the field. The interdisciplinary (and/or interprofessional) team might include university faculty with interests in organizational theory, educational ethics, finance, qualitative research methods, and the principalship, as well as full-time adjunct professors from the field who have additional expertise (especially craft knowledge) to offer on this particular topic. If thoughtfully planned and guided by the faculty team, the learning activity would form a tapestry in which practice and theory could be inexorably linked, and in which the individual disciplinary threads and understandings from philosophy and the humanities would be tightly interwoven. Comprehensive contact with a small number of issues

(depth) would be the focus, rather than maximum exposure to a variety of knowledge domains (breadth). Original sources—such as reports of original studies, analyses of major theoretical constructs as first developed by their authors, and studies conducted (by students and others) in service of the problem under investigation—would be used. The hodgepodge of textbooks common to most preparation programs would be conspicuous by its absence. Much of what would be needed to solve this problem could be anticipated and structured for students (for example, readings about attempts to implement school-based management in other localities, site visits to districts/schools that are pioneering restructuring efforts, a sourcebook of both poor and excellent qualitative studies, and so forth). A good deal of the work plan, however, would need to be created as the investigation unfolded. The students would contribute much more of the developmental work in this type of revised training program than they do in traditional preparation settings.

CHANGES IN THE DELIVERY SYSTEM[16]

> If creativity is to be fostered, responsibility for much of the learning in preparatory programs will need to be shifted to trainees. (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971c, p. 14)

Preparation programs designed to prepare tomorrow's leaders will also employ dramatically different instructional strategies. In many ways, these new approaches will be so tightly interwoven with issues of program content that it will be impossible to pull them apart. The following principles appear appropriate for rethinking the current instructional "delivery system" in preparation programs for school leaders:

1. Learning should be student-centered (as opposed to professor-centered).
2. Active learning should be stressed (as opposed to passive consumption).
3. Personalized learning should be emphasized (as opposed to collective consumption).
4. A balance of instructional approaches is needed (as opposed to dominant reliance on the lecture-discussion model).

5. Cooperative approaches to learning and teaching should be underscored (as opposed to individualistic competitive strategies).
6. Outcome-based (or mastery-based) learning should be stressed (as opposed to process-based learning).
7. Delivery structures should be built on developmentally based learning principles (as opposed to universally applicable principles).

At the heart of these principles is a shift that would make instruction increasingly less teacher (professor)-centered and increasingly more student (learner)-centered. Currently, as reported in Chapter 4, instructional methods in preparation programs mirror teaching approaches in elementary and secondary schools. Professors are jugs of knowledge whose job it is to pour information into empty mugs (i.e., students). In the future, professors will need to be seen as managers of learning activities and students will need to be viewed as producers of knowledge: "The instructional program should stress 'doing' rather than passive listening" (Griffiths, 1977, p. 433). The notion of student-as-worker that is at the core of this change (J. Murphy, 1991b) will need to be institutionalized in training programs. The current focus on acquiring information will be replaced by a concern for students' abilities to use knowledge and to learn how to learn. Professors will act less as founts of knowledge and more as facilitators, modelers, and coaches who invest students with responsibility for their own learning and then guide them in a highly personalized process of developing understanding (Bridges & Hallinger, 1991; Prestine & LeGrand, 1990).

The lecture-discussion (teaching is telling) model that dominates instruction in traditional preparation programs gives way to "methodological flexibility" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971c, p. 14) and to a greater variety of approaches when teaching for meaningful understanding replaces content coverage as a goal. Since what "the individual *learns* about *himself* could well be the most important learning that he experiences . . . [and since] the mass-produced graduating class is a crime against human dignity and intelligence" (McIntyre, 1957, p. 21), instruction in restructured programs becomes less generic and more personalized.

There is a dramatic shift in the primary learning mode in these programs. Because "learning and planning together to create change in education is probably the best way for a person to develop as a

leader" (Egan, 1990, p. 59), the "process of collaborative inquiry serves as a model" for instruction (Rogers & Polkinghorn, in press). Stable "teams of learners," or cohorts, within the framework of a learning community, systematically engage in "the social construction of knowledge" (Achilles et al., 1990, pp. 8, 9). Cooperative learning activities based on psycho-sociological models of understanding replace many of the individually competitive activities that are grounded upon traditional psychological views of learning. Instruction in restructured training programs becomes more cooperative for students and more collegial for professors. Professors act less like individual discipline-based entrepreneurs and more like colleagues engaged in a cooperative interdisciplinary endeavor (Fullan, 1991). More responsibility for learning will be passed to their colleagues, with whom they plan, and to their students, who play a stronger part in helping to chart their paths, and who have a much more active role in their quest for understanding.[17] Like the curriculum, instruction becomes both more complex and more cohesive.

Revisions in instructional format are designed to underscore the centrality of human relations in training programs, to reduce program segmentation, and to emphasize demonstration of skills and knowledge. At the core of these alterations is a shift away from impersonal, certification-based, calendar-based, and discipline-based arrangements. There is a movement away from the current emphasis on seat time and units completed. Structures in the reformed training programs are based more on learning theory and exhibits or demonstrations of learning than on administrative convenience.

One major change is the enhanced use of outcome-based education. Under this approach, it is the expected outcomes, "not the calendar, that determine credit and, in turn, define what constitute a 'course' and the content needed in that course" (Spady, 1988, p. 5). In restructured preparation programs, different students (and groups of students) will demonstrate mastery at different times depending on the order in which they tackle issues, the paths they select (with professorial guidance) to reach an outcome, and the capacity they bring and the amount of effort they devote to the endeavor. Mastery can be exhibited in a greater variety of ways than is currently the case. For example, assessment of a videotape of a student conducting a small group meeting makes more sense than evaluation of a written exam if one is trying to judge competency in running meetings.

Emphasis on the principles of adult cognition is consistent with a mastery approach to learning, as well as with the instructional strategies noted earlier. Developmentally appropriate strategies for adults are those that allow individuals and small groups to assist in defining problems and charting solution strategies, to work at their own rates, and to bring craft knowledge to the problem-solving process (J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1987). The use of developmentally appropriate strategies helps nurture the formation of a community of student and professor learners who are engaged in active pursuit of a serious academic task.

Central to changes in the core technology of preparation programs is a more serious engagement by students in their learning. The goal here is to break the highly dysfunctional system of bargains, compromises, trade-offs, and treaties discussed in Chapter 4, in which professors, in return for continued enrollment and compliant behavior, ask little of their students. By providing students with meaningful content, while turning them loose on the quest for understanding, by providing direction, by holding students accountable for results, and by creating a learning structure supportive of this type of curriculum and instruction, the restructured preparation program fosters the type of sustained personal engagement that promotes both understanding and learning to learn. It leads to the development of what Culbertson (1964) has labeled "the perceptive generalist" (p. 54)—a leader who is "a sophisticated analyst *and* a vigorous actor" (Culbertson, 1962, p. 154), an administrator who is seen "as a champion of values, as a proponent of change, [and] as a messenger of participation" (Foster, 1988, p. 78).

STRUCTURAL ISSUES[18]

> Without belaboring the point further, it is suggested that unless legislatures, professional associations, certifying officers, college administrators, and professors are willing to put more emphasis on quality and less on numbers, the quality of school administration in this country will continue to be a major educational and social problem. (Hall & McIntyre, 1957, p. 398)

> Supporters of alternative models believe that until the basic structure of the prevailing model is changed the result will not be appreciably improved. (Cooper & Boyd, 1987, p. 16)

Throughout the history of education in general and of school administration in particular, we have often allowed structural issues to determine our goals and actions. Thus, in many ways, structural matters define our views of schooling and education. It is for that reason that I have deliberately kept discussion of program structure to a minimum and to the end. It is my belief that structural decisions should backward map from—rather than establish—goals and program principles (J. Murphy, 1991b). The specific objectives and design principles discussed earlier may be used to construct programs in a variety of ways; different structures will work best at different times in different places. Consistency and coordination of effort within an institution around an appropriate vision of preparation will go a long way toward ensuring the creation of a strong program.

Starting with goals and principles helps us see persistent questions in new ways. For example, one long-standing issue in preparation programs is the amount of choice students should have in building their individual program of studies—what Farquhar (1977) calls the "freedom-control" issue (p. 348). Under current arrangements, freedom means the ability to select a number of individual courses. Given the part-time nature and well-documented lack of coherence of most programs, choice has produced a situation of "academic drift and curricular debris" (J. Murphy, Hull, & Walker, 1987, p. 341). However, within the alternative framework presented in this chapter, choice means deciding how to work with colleagues and how to proceed in constructing meaning. It is not something that needs to be balanced—some point on a continuum that needs to be established—but, within the context of a situated learning problem, something that is desirable.

Nonetheless, it still appears that the resolution of structural decisions in certain directions is more likely to facilitate the evolution of programs that more easily accommodate the design principles presented earlier. For example, a number of thoughtful scholars have argued recently that the vision of preparation described in this volume will require a movement away from our infatuation with the arts and sciences (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Griffiths, 1988b; NPBEA, 1989a), that the "school of education [that] has been cast in the role of the ugly stepsister of arts and sciences instead . . . [must take] its place with the other professional schools housed in the university" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 291). As noted in Chapter 4, some of the most ingrained problems in our field can be traced to programs that

distance themselves from the professional dimensions of school leadership. The development of a new structure to house preparation, that is, the movement to a "professional preparation model" (Miklos, in press), will help address two specific problems that hinder our capacity and effort to develop alternative training frameworks. It will provide the context in which reward systems in universities can be restructured (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Griffiths et al., 1988b). It will also allow the profession to gain control over the occupation of school administration, thus reversing the current situation. Absent some progress on both of these issues, our best efforts at reform are likely to be ineffectual.

A corollary of the move to a professional model is the need to develop structures that create "greater tie[s] between universities and schools" (Spaedy, 1990, p. 158). To bring the goals and principles of this chapter to life, "[d]epartments of administration need to develop strong cooperative relations with *local school systems*" (Wynn, 1957, p. 474). In the future, "the responsibility for preparing educational administrators should be shared with the profession and the public schools" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, p. 293). Alternative designs that capture a rich mix of ingredients from both arms of the profession are likely to prove necessary to help prospective administrators meet the four program goals discussed earlier (NCEEA, 1987; NPBEA, 1989a). Cooper and Boyd (1987) maintain that one way to break the current model is to establish an alternative structure in which "programs [are] sponsored jointly by school districts, universities, and professional associations" (p. 19; see also NAESP, 1990).

Throughout our history it "has been assumed tacitly that the same program that prepares administrators can prepare professors of administration" (Wynn, 1957, p. 493). That solution to what Miklos (1983) labels one of the profession's "long-standing questions" (p. 168) appears to be less than ideal. The goal framework underlying the alternative perspective proposed above acknowledges that the responsibilities of professors of administration and of practitioners of administration differ and that "the kind of people who are good at one may not be good at the other" (Walton, 1962, p. 92). I concur with Wynn (1957), and others (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971b; Griffiths, 1977; NPBEA, 1989a; Prestine & LeGrand, 1990), who have argued for 35 years that "the two functions be differentiated and an educational program be designed for each" (p. 468). "The functionally appropriate vehicle for professional

educators is the doctor of education degree" (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988, p. 359). Like Griffiths (1977), however, I believe that the development of distinct programs does not require that they be totally separate. As a matter of fact, paths where programs intersect will need to be carefully developed or we will be likely to develop professors who are unable to work effectively in the proposed alternative program design. These points of intersection should be created in many places throughout the two programs.[19]

At the same time, given the importance of educational matters and situated learning in the framework we have developed, it seems reasonable to suggest that a structure be created that allows for considerably more overlap between the education of teachers and that of administrators than has been the case throughout the 20th century.[20] If the future is anything like the picture drawn in Chapter 5, then the notion of a more unified profession becomes a distinct possibility (J. Murphy, 1991b; Sergiovanni, 1991a), both at the macro level of the profession and at the micro level of the individual school. It can be argued that the knowledge work of tomorrow's leaders will have more in common with teachers than with professors of educational administration. The structure of preparation should evolve to reflect these realities.

Finally, a framework for the program that provides sufficient time for students to engage seriously with real problems in a sustained fashion appears necessary. In short, "[r]esidency requirements in preparation programs will also have to undergo important changes" (Culbertson, 1963, p. 58). I agree with both earlier (Callahan, 1962; Culbertson, 1963; Goldhammer, 1963; Gregg, 1969) and more recent (Griffiths et al., 1988b; NPBEA, 1989a) assessments that, if "quality instruction and learning are to be achieved it appears necessary that able, career-committed students should have the opportunity to devote themselves to full-time study for a prolonged period of time" (Gregg, 1969, p. 998). As a matter of fact, the design principles at the heart of the preparation framework discussed in this volume make the need for large blocks of time even more imperative (see McIntyre, 1957; Prestine & LeGrand, 1990; Reed, 1991). Thus I concur with the NPBEA (1989) that, although a number of difficulties are involved, for tomorrow's leaders "the study of educational administration should be a full-time endeavor" and, "if the difficulties are too great, alternatives to full-time study should be developed that will guarantee the benefits available to full-time students" (Griffiths et al., 1988b, pp. 292-293).

In closing, it might be helpful to say a few words about the faculty who will work in these reconstructed programs.[21] What knowledge should they possess? What frames of reference or specializations make most sense? These are complex questions and there are differences of opinion on how to proceed to answer them (see Burlingame, 1990, and Campbell et al., 1960, for views different from the one presented herein). We know that to date faculty interests have concentrated on issues of the field *or* on matters of the university. In the former case, there has been specialization by administrative tasks, functions, and/or roles (Farquhar & Piele, 1972). In the latter case, specialization has occurred on the basis of academic roles (researcher, teacher, developer) or of disciplinary interest.

As we look to the future, it is likely that our infatuation with specialization of any variety may prove counterproductive. The principle of integration through simplification (as opposed to integration through isolation) discussed in our review of program content appears to be applicable here as well.[22] That is, the "ideal professor of educational administration ought to be a competent scholar, teacher, counselor, researcher, field worker, and professional leader" (Wynn, 1957, p. 493). The analog is to the perceptive generalist at the school site. The objective here is not to deny the importance of expertise but to embed it within a more integrative approach to preparing leaders for tomorrow's schools. A fallback position from the ideal is to develop faculty who, although they cannot be all things to all students, do nevertheless define their roles more broadly than many of us do now. Teams of these faculty could then shape preparation programs. What seems clear under this scenario is that a part of the faculty will need to be able to bring recent craft knowledge to the preparation mix (Hills, 1975; Pepper, 1988). For this to work, it is important that these members of the team be full-time professors, not be seen as adjuncts, and "be provided with significant status within the university community" (Muth, 1989, p. 14)—the same types of status afforded to those occupying more traditional professorial roles.

Alternative View on Preparation

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The Return of the Mayflower: British Alternatives to American Practice

Paul A. Pohland

Introduction

One of the predictable manifestations of the current school reform movement is the resurgence of interest in administrator preparation programs. Such interest is signaled in "state-of-the-art" reviews, (Pitner, 1982), in scholarly attempts to predict future demands (University Council for Educational Administration, 1983–1984), in the preparation of training guidelines and proposals by professional organizations (Hoyle, 1975, 1986), in revised certification requirements, and in the search for alternatives to existing pre- and in-service training models (March, 1976). In short, the field of educational administration is once again in a state of ferment.

Ferment is not altogether a bad thing. While it may be discomfiting, it also provides a legitimate opportunity to examine alternatives. Ferment in school administrator preparation allows for exploring alternatives generated without as well as within the boundaries of the United States. Canada and Australia, for example, have well-established administrator preparation programs, and more recently rich and varied approaches have been institutionalized in most countries of Western Europe (Buckley, 1985). It is the intent of this paper to examine one of the more developed European models—the British—with the intent of determining what might be learned that could inform and enrich pre- and in-service administrator training in the United States.

At the outset, however, I will state explicitly my basic assumptions and their corollaries as they guided my inquiry. In unranked order they were:

Assumption # 1. No compelling evidence exists to support the claim of "one best way" of training school administrators.
Corollary # 1. Almost any program can be rationalized, but some rationalizations are more compelling than others.
Assumption # 2. Viable alternatives to current practices exist.
Corollary # 2. To a closed mind no alternative is viable.
Assumption # 3. Learning from one another is possible given contextual and functional similarities.
Corollary # 3. Learning is not aping. Recall the U.S. experience with the British "open classroom."
Assumption # 4. Change is threatening.
Corollary # 4. Failure to change may be more threatening.
Assumption # 5. History is both bane and blessing.
Corollary # 5. It helps to be able to tell the difference.

Finally, a few words about the genesis and structure of this paper are in order. I have been a professor of educational administration for the past sixteen years and a department chair for eight of them. During that period of time I have been involved in a variety of program design activities. Further, during the fall of 1985 I spent three months in the United Kingdom focusing to a large extent on the question, "What's the nature of school administrator training here?" I gained an initial purchase on that question by attending the annual meeting of the British Educational Management and Administration Society and subsequently through immersion in the British literature on school administration, visiting campuses, attending a variety of other meetings, and, most important, engaging in dialogue with a considerable number of faculty colleagues in the United Kingdom. From these activities partial answers to the "What's the nature of . . . ' and "What can be learned . . . ' questions were derived.

The first part of this paper briefly presents my understanding of the historic and contemporary social forces that have shaped and continue to shape the training of school administrators in the United Kingdom. The second part answers the "What's the nature of . . . " question directly but incompletely by describing selected facets of such programs. Three things should be borne in mind, however: (1) the variation in administrator training programs is extraordinarily wide and rich; (2) systematic administrator training as a recent development is marked by fluidity and "conflicting tendencies and unresolved issues" (Hughes, 1986); and (3) program characteristics presented for discussion were selected largely on the basis of their contrast with their U.S. counterparts and hence their capacity to generate alternatives. The latter issue is the focus of the third part of this paper, in

which the "What can be learned . . . " question is addressed through a series of "What if . . . " questions. The paper concludes by presenting four choices available to the field of educational administration in the United States.

The Social Context of Administrator Training in the United Kingdom

The major premise of structural contingency theory is that there is no one best way of structuring an organization, but given a set of contingencies (for example, technology, history, environmental press, goals, and norms) there may be an optimal way of doing so. Minor premises include assumptions about the press for effectiveness, agreement on the dimensions and measurability of effectiveness, and the presence of sufficient organizational authority to secure coordinated, goal-oriented activity. Contingency theory, however, is not limited to organizational design: It is equally applicable to program design. This part of the paper attempts to identify those historic and contemporary contingencies that have been instrumental in shaping administrator training in the United Kingdom. Contingent similarities and differences between the United Kingdom and the United States will be described.

Similarities

An American observer of the contemporary educational scene in Great Britain is struck by a set of similarities between the countries. Headlines trumpet, for example, "Teachers' Union in New Strike Threat"; "Well-paid Staff Seen as Key to Quality in Schools as Support for Action Hardens"; and "Teacher Union will Oppose Appraisal."[1] Articles on pay disputes, curriculum reform, cuts in funding, student test performance, merit pay, the length of the school day, multicultural education, declining enrollments ("falling rolls"), white flight, and the plight of inner-city schools are part of the daily fare. Professional associations and professional politicians alike are cognizant of such issues. For example, the theme for the 1985 Annual Conference of the British Management and Administration Society was "Education and the Market Place: The Changing Roles of Resources, Producers, and Consumers," and the keynote speaker for the conference, the Rt. Hon. Neil Kinnoch, M.P., developed his remarks around the issues of parental choice (vouchers and choice of school included), curriculum reform, and standards (the decline in standardized test scores). Finally, there has been increased concern "for standards of efficiency and effectiveness" and the concomitant press for educational administrators at all institutional levels to draw on the

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement* is the best single source for determining the most pressing current issues.

accumulated wisdom of industrial and commercial managers (Department of Education and Science, 1985c). As Taylor (1976) wryly observes, there is a high positive correlation between the public's demand for efficiency and the fiscal resources required to support the enterprise. These issues sound all too familiar.

And Differences

Despite the above contextual similarities a set of contingencies has made the British experience in educational administration unique. Among the most significant historically have been social stratification based on birth, the headmaster tradition, and the governance structure of education. Among these three, the most powerful has been " . . . the self-conscious stratification of English society [in which] processes such as leadership, management, and decision-making can be seen more as properties of behavior of certain classes than as actions associated with the performance of particular tasks"(Hoyles, 1968).

The belief system embedded in that "self-concious stratification" gave rise to the great nineteenth century English "pub'ic" (that is, private) schools, and it was in those boarding schools that the behaviors of "certain social classes" were nurtured over extended periods of time.

Intimately related to and derived from the public schools was the headmaster tradition, the principal factor in shaping the twentieth-century "maintained" secondary school headmastersh.p (Baron, 1956). Briefly, the early-nineteenth-century head was likely to be an Oxbridge- (Oxford-Cambridge) educated gentleman and clergyman whose essential task was to run a custodial institution (Bernbaum, 1976). Over time the definition of the role came to include: (1) a highly personal anc charismatic leadership style; (2) high paternalism (the "pater pattern") (Ree, 1968): expressive rather than instrumental leadership;[2] high autonomy and autocracy;[3] and amateurism in administration. As Bernbaum (1976, p. 25) observed, "It has often been a source of pride to profess one's lack of expertise in the business of organization and administration. A concern for skill in management has been something to disown since it is felt that it affects one's profession as an educator." Further, until very recently this sentiment has been pervasive.

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[2] The classic statement about the primacy of expressive leadership was attributed to Thomas Arnold, Headmaster at Rugby: "My object will be to form Christian men, for Christian boys I can scarcely hope to make" (cited in Peters, 1976a).

[3] The classic statement on this point is from the Headmaster of Uppenham, Dr. Thring: "I am supreme here and will brook no interference" (cited in Peters, 1976b, p. 2).

According to Taylor (1976, p. 46), "It is likely that as yet only a minority of serving heads and senior staff have had opportunities to experience any form of systematic in-service training in school administration, and fewer still have been exposed to courses that embody a thorough-going management approach."[4]

Clearly, both the historic British attitude toward management training and the consequences of that attitude are at marked variance with the American experience. At a minimum, since the days of Cubberley and scientific management, American school administrators have in the main embraced "the cult of efficiency" embodied in management training (Callahan, 1962). Further, belief in the efficacy of such training has been instrumental in formulating licensure requirements, which have ensured that only individuals managerially trained have been appointed as school administrators.

More recently, however, the British perspective on headship and thus on the training of heads has changed significantly. Major factors affecting the change have been the 1944 Education Act, school reform and reorganization during the 1960s and 1970s, national debates focusing on education, the emergent "extended professionality" of teachers combined with strong trade unionism (Hoyles, 1973), societal incursions into once sacrosanct school boundaries, and consistent pressure from the Department of Education and Science to reconceptualize headship in terms of "consultation, team-work, and participation" (Department of Education and Science, 1977). All of these have combined to produce a less Dickensian conception of headship while simultaneously legitimating the need for managerial expertise formally acquired. In the latter regard change was clearly achieved. Buckley (1985) reports that by 1980, 1,600 students were enrolled in "long award-bearing courses" offered by twenty-two universities, thirteen polytechnics, and twenty-one other colleges of higher education (p. 86). In addition, over 20,000 individuals were registered for short courses of three to five days duration in that same year (p. 87). In short, the growth rate of programs in education management in the United Kingdom has, since 1972, been nothing short of phenomenal. Some sense of that can be obtained by reviewing the developmental history of programs in educational administration at the Ulster Polytechnic:

1972 First short course in Education Management offered jointly by the Faculty of Education and Centre for Management Education.
1977 Education Management option added to the in-service B.Ed.

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[4] The same observation could be made of European school administrators' training in general. Buckley suggests 1971 as the initiation date for France, 1972 for England, 1974 for Norway, and 1976 for Sweden and the Netherlands. See Buckley, 1985.

1978 A part-time B.A. in Public Sector Studies introduced with a specialist option in Education.
1979 A one-year, full-time diploma in Education Management introduced.
1980 Approval process begun for a M.Sc. in Education Management.(Ulster Polytechnic, 1980, p. A1).

Finally, a brief description of the educational governance system in Great Britain seems important for understanding the context of administrator training. Educational governance in England and Wales is, as the Cambridgeshire *Handbook for Governors* puts it " . . . a partnership in responsibility, locally planned and administered, but set in a national context" (p. 1). In essence, there is a three-tiered governance structure—the central government represented by a Secretary of State heading the Department of Education and Science (DES); the local education authorities (LEAs), of which there 104 in England and Wales and which operate functionally as subcommittees of the county (shire) or city councils; and the local "governing bodies," which are, in effect, individual schools' school boards. The DES establishes national priorities, allocates fiscal resources, establishes teachers' salaries and staffing formulas, and communicates its concerns to the LEAs. The LEAs, in consultation with the DES, build and equip schools, formally employ staff, and, in general have oversight over all schools within their jurisdictions, including colleges of "further and higher education" and polytechnics. Local governing bodies are charged with responding to community needs, and, in general, "with exercising the general direction of the conduct and curriculum of the school" (p. 5 of the *Handbook for Governors*).

Recent efforts to institutionalize administrator training provide a context for examining the tripartite governance arrangement. Following the debate on schools in the 1970s, Education Secretary Sir Keith Joseph announced a national initiative "to develop the [management] expertise needed to organize schools and their curriculum, and to handle resources" (Buckley, 1985). The three explicit objectives of this key 1982 initiative were: (1) to encourage the development of basic short courses (minimum twenty days) in school management on a regional basis; (2) to create a National Development Centre designed to develop a national management training capacity; and (3) to release experienced heads and senior staff on "secondments" (leave with full pay) to attend one-term training programs addressed to particular aspects of school management. In the latter case a multiplier effect was sought as trainees were expected to become trainers in their respective LEAs. Subsequently, the DES funded the initiative at six million pounds (approximately eleven million dollars). Thereafter, LEAs, singly or in consort, directly or indirectly through LEA-controlled polytechnics and colleges of further and higher education or in collaboration with non-LEA-controlled institutions (for example, universities) were charged with conducting mana-

gerial needs assessments, developing "courses" for DES approval, making funding applications, and approving secondments. Local governing bodies were held responsible for nominating heads or senior staff for secondments, securing staff replacements, identifying management issues for course inclusion, and approving the use of school facilities as training sites. In all of this the formal flow of influence was from top down, but in a historically conditioned way of heavily dependent on consultation with and receptivity to influence from below.

To summarize, it has been suggested that the contemporary British educational scene would, in many respects, appear quite familiar to an American. Appearances, however, are frequently deceptive, and close inspection would reveal some fundamental differences in attitudes toward and preparation for the role of school administrator. Ultimately such differences are rooted in social history and the evolution of social institutions. The twentieth-century conception of headship in the United Kingdom could, until fairly recently, trace its evolution through an unbroken, two-hundred-year-old, elite, clergy-dominated, private school tradition. In the United States, in contrast, the contemporary conception and practice of school administration evolved from an eighty-year-old, egalitarian, lay-oriented, public school tradition. Only recently, and largely as a function of similar economic pressures, have those two traditions begun to merge. In the United Kingdom, headship is being leavened with management, and in the United States, management with headship.[5] It is the blending of these two distinct traditions that makes mutual learning both possible and profitable.

Initial Administrator Training in the United Kingdom

Introduction

This section identifies selected features of administrator training programs in the United Kingdom that appear to have considerable potential for generating alternatives in training programs in the United States. However, in order to provide a context for comparison, a generalized thumbnail sketch of initial (M.A./M.Ed.) administrator training programs in the United States will be presented first.

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[5] Such melding appears to be taking place independently on both sides of the Atlantic; neither side appears conscious of the other. Yet much of the best current literature on effective schools, institutional leadership, and organizational culture has much in common with the best of headship.

U.S. Programs

Students enrolled in initial (preservice) administrator training programs in the United States typically are tenured teachers who have five to ten years classroom experience but little or no administrative experience. The motivation for enrollment appears to be a combination of the desire for new challenges, professional advancement (out of the classroom and into the office!), and salary advancement. Part-time study is the norm, with students enrolled at their own expense for a course or so per semester over a period of three to five years.

Programs of study tend to consist of ten to fifteen loosely linked three-hour courses, to be sensitive to state certification requirements, and to be distributed (unevenly) over intellectual and clinical training. Taught syllabuses and instrumental learning are the norm, and considerable choice exists vis-à-vis electives. Independent study tends to be minimized, and the thesis as the culminating experience for the master's degree is becoming increasingly rare.

Programs are typically under the jurisdiction of university graduate schools and are offered by departments of educational administration or larger units under which educational administration is subsumed. Programs are typically developed and taught by faculty largely independent of LEA input, and approved via internal university processes; external approval is secured, if at all, for state or regional accreditation purposes. University policies govern most administrative processes connected with the program, and processes such as semi-annual admissions tend to become highly routinized. Given these characteristics of U.S. administrator training programs, British alternatives can be examined.

1. In-service/Professional Development Emphasis

In part, the in-service professional development emphasis is a function of: (1) the British assumption that heads need teaching experience before moving into administrative roles; (2) the headmaster tradition; (3) the absence of unique administrator certification requirements; (4) school reform and reorganization, which created new organizational leadership demands; and (5) a pervasive sense of urgency to respond to societal demands for increased school efficiency and effectiveness. Clearly it was the latter factor that impelled the 1982 DES initiative. More recently that same sense of urgency within the context of fiscal austerity has been articulated by the DES in its expressed preference for LEA-sponsored "short and sharply focussed" non-award-bearing courses (Department of Education and Science, 1985a). Such courses, in contrast to long, generalized award-bearing courses, are perceived by the DES "to represent good value for [the] money" (Depart-

ment of Education and Science, 1985a) in addition to being "more effective for many purposes." (Department of Education and Science, 1985b, p. 53) In order to implement this policy preference, the DES has also shifted to direct block grant funding to LEAs for in-service purposes. LEAs are nominally free to allocate funds as they see fit, but are equally constrained by DES "guidelines of priorities." All of this is to say that in Great Britain the in-service and professional development of school administrators is a matter of national import. It is clearly reflected in, for example, the "Rationale for the Diploma in Professional Studies in Education" offered by the Oxford Polytechnic (1984, p. 6):

> Proposals for the Diploma arose from the growing recognition of the need to provide those members of schools and colleges who exercise responsibility beyond that of the normal teaching function with the skill necessary to meet the organizational and administrative demands of a complex and dynamic institution.

Given the in-service and professional development focus, the target population is also specified as at the Ulster Polytechnic (1980, p. A7):

> The course [M.Sc. in Education Management] is intended especially for principals and senior staff in schools and colleges.

Even more specifically:

> It is hoped that participants [in the 22-Day Management Course for Secondary Headteachers, 1986] will have had at least five years experience as a headteacher . . . [Mid-Kent College of Higher and Further Education, 1986, p. 1.]

There is ample evidence to suggest that the target audience has been reached. The University of Birmingham reports, for example, that the 1985–86 School Organization and Management Course counted among its members one head, three deputy heads, one acting head, four department heads, two heads of year, three teachers, and one assistant teacher. Equally, the Scottish Centre for Studies in School Administration reported that sixty-four head teachers, sixty-nine deputy heads, fifty assistant head teachers, and nine principal teachers attended twelve courses offered under its auspices in 1984–85 (The Scottish Centre for Studies in School Administration, 1984/85). Finally, Hughes, Carter, and Fidler report that 53 percent of the non-award-bearing primary management courses and 39 percent of the secondary management courses provided by LEAs were for heads only or for heads and senior staff (Hughes, Carter, and Fidler, 1981). Other indicators of the in-service and professional development focus are present. The Open University, for example, markets its programs as "Professional Development in Education."

A second indicator of the in-service emphasis is the delivery of off-campus services. A publication of the Cambridge Institute of Education (CIE), for example, reads in part, "In addition to courses currently running in Bedford,

Colchester, and Ipswich, new part-time courses will start in September in Cambridge, Kings Lynn, and Letchworth (Cambridge Institute of Education, 1985, p. 2). A third indicator, as implied in the above, is recognition of the full-time role of the professional in organizing part-time programs. As a matter of fact, full-time-only programs are relatively rare, with part-time programs or parallel part-time and full-time programs the norm. Such part-time programs may be variously organized—as "part-time day release," as "block release," as evenings only, as weekends only, or in some combination of part-time and full-time study. A fourth indicator is that "course providers" are likely to identify themselves institutionally with in-service functions. The CIE, for example, defines itself as ". . . a centre for in-service education of teachers and research in education (Cambridge Institute of Education, 1985, p. 2). Further, the director of the CIE spoke of its ethos as "consciously parochial," that is, officially and in practice attendant to the particular needs of educators in its East Anglia service area.

Parochialism is strongly associated with a fifth indicator of an in-service emphasis—strong LEA linkages. In part, such linkages are a function of the governance structure of higher education, which places colleges of further and higher education and the polytechnics under the jurisdiction of the LEAs. Those legally binding linkages are maintained through such administrative devices as LEA-sanctioned "secondments" and institutional requirements for "professional references" as part of the matriculation process. But in much larger part, the course provider-consumer linkage is a function of institutional commitment to in-service and professional development programs and a shared mission.

2. Diploma Emphasis

Closely related to the in-service emphasis is the award-bearing diploma emphasis. It is far more likely that persons currently enrolled in "long, award-bearing" courses in the United Kingdom will be working toward completion of a professional diploma equivalent to the Education Specialist or Certificate of Advanced Study than a graduate degree.[6] In part this is accounted for by the location of diploma programs in the structure of higher education. On this point the *Prospectus 1986–87* of the Institute of Education, University of London, reads: "In the Institutes 'progression of qualifications' diploma courses stand midway between initial training 'certificate courses' and the taught Master's courses and research degrees in education" (Institute of Education, 1986, p. 91). Several explanatory comments may be in

[6] It is expected, however, that as the cadre of B.Ed.persons increases, the shift will be away from the diploma and toward the M.A. This trend is already in evidence at, for example, the London Institute of Education.

order. First, the "progression of qualification" refers to the degree or program sequence, that is, certificate, bachelor's degree, diploma, master's degree, doctorate. Note that the diploma precedes rather than follows the master's degree. This is crucial, as will be pointed out shortly. Second, the reference to "initial training 'certificate' courses" must be understood in relation to entry into teaching in the United Kingdom. There are three basic modes of entry: (1) via a three-year certificate program (the historic norm); (2) via completion of a four-year combined B.Ed. *and* professional training program (rare, but possible in selected fields at, for example, the West London Institute of Education and Brunel University), and (3) via a baccalaurate degree other than the B.Ed. *plus* a 1-year Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). Third, and more relevant to understanding the emphasis on diploma rather than degree programs, the pattern of options for entry into teaching is also operative for admission to diploma and certificate programs. For example, and to draw again upon the University of London's Institute of Education to illustrate, six options are available for admission to the diploma program, only one of which requires the baccalaureate. Similarly, three options are available for entry to the master's program, including (roughly speaking) (1) a B.Ed. with honors, (2) a first degree plus an approved teaching qualification, and (3) an approved non-graduate certificate in Education plus a Diploma in Education. In short, the diploma program provides a mechanism for non-degree-holding teachers (the majority) to engage in advanced study at a professional level. Further, it may be used as a screening mechanism for the master's program. In, for example, the M.Sc. *or* Diploma in Education Management ("linked scheme") offered by the Crewe and Alsager College of Higher Education, admission to the M.Sc. is contingent on obtaining the "necessary standard" in the diploma portion of the program.

Four other factors help explain the popularity of diploma courses. First, the diploma as an academic award in its own right carries considerable status. As the London Institute's *Prospectus* observes, ". . . a diploma qualification is of considerable standing in its own right and certifies that the student has undergone a course which requires advanced and specialist study . . . recognized by the Department of Education and Science . . ." (Institute of Education, 1986, p. 91). Second, it may well be that the instrumental training needs of school administrators are more effectively satisfied through the course structure of diploma programs than the research structure of graduate programs. Third, the context of training may provide a bias toward the *practice* rather than the *study* of administration. Most administrator training programs are conducted under the auspices of LEA-controlled polytechnics and of further and higher education colleges rather than the universities. Even in the latter case, LEA linkages may be very tight. Insofar as LEAs are likely to have a pragmatic orientation, the practice-

oriented diploma intuitively fits better than the theoretically oriented graduate degree. Fourth, the magnitude of the training task and the "progression of qualifications" in British universities conspire to emphasize the diploma courses. This condition is likely to prevail in the foreseeable future.

3. Experiental Learning

Closely related conceptually to in-service training and professional development is experiential learning. As used here, experiential learning is an umbrella term encompassing three kinds of learning—instrumental, dialogic, and self-reflective (Mezirow, 1985). Instrumental learning is essentially task focused, prescriptive, and based on models of technical learning rooted in the "empirical sciences" (Marsick and Watkins, 1986). Dialogic learning takes a more qualitative, conventionalist stance in its focus on apprehension of the meaning framework of organizational participants. Self-reflective learning focuses on personal change, and essentially involves a process of "perspective transformation" through "critical reflectivity," that is, "the bringing of one's assumptions, premises, criteria, and schemata into consciousness and vigorously critiquing them" (Mezirow, 1985).

The argument for incorporating large portions of experiential learning into administrator training programs has been made by Dennison (1985). In brief, he argues that management is a skill-centered rather than a knowledge-based undertaking, and hence experiential learning is the preferred instructional mode. In U.S. programs, such learning is largely evidenced in the "clinical" portions of preparation programs, such as internships, and is largely limited to instrumental learning.

A somewhat different approach to experiential learning exists in certain programs in the United Kingdom. At Ulster Polytechnic, for example, experiential learning is at the heart of the M.Sc. in Education Management. In developing its 1980 Proposal to the Council for National Academic Awards, the Planning Team took the position that "the professional experience of the participants should be the proper focus of the course (Ulster Polytechnic, 1980, p. A3). Further, one of the aims of the program was to "help participants interpret their managerial experience critically through exposure to the views and experiences of others"(p. A9).Thus students "would be expected to test the theories being studied against their own experience of innovation and to examine and clarify the bases of their practice"(p. B20). Finally, the students would be assessed in part on "evidence of the development of personal understanding and the generation of new insights"(p. B31). Clearly, what was intended in the program was not instrumental but dialogic and self-reflective learning to an extraordinary degree.

4. Program Design, Content, and Assessment

An American viewing administrator training programs in the United Kingdom is struck by four design features—holism, limited flexibility, the provision for substantial independent work, and rigorous assessment. Each will be discussed in turn.

Holism has multiple facets. At its simplest it refers to the organic unity of the program. In part, that unity is communicated by a language system that speaks simply of "the course." Further, if the course is structurally subdivided, and that is not necessarily the case, the subunits are large—Parts A and B (The Open University, Sheffield City Polytechnic), Parts I and II (North East Wales Institute of Higher Education), or Stages I and II (Mid-Kent College of Higher and Further Education). Similarly, subdivisions within the parts or stages tend to be large. The North East Wales Institutes' Part I (theoretical background) has four units—The Environmental Context of School Management, The School as an Organization, Curriculum Management, and Management of Change. In short, the missed frameworks are radically different from American patterns of multiple, discrete three-hour units.

Holism is also reflected in internal program consistency or emphasis. A probable planned program for an M.A. student at Brunel University with an emphasis in school administration would be:

Group I: Theories and Methods
- a. Methods in Social Research
- b. Social and Political Thought Underlying Social Policy
- c. The History of Social Policy and Administration

Group II: Social Policy and Administration
Group III: Educational Policies and Government
Group IV: Dissertation

The policy focus throughout the course is obvious.

Implicitly embedded in the program described above is a second major design feature—*limited student choice.* Programs as a whole tend to be tightly structured; electives are reasonably rare events. This is particularly true with respect to the "taught" portion of the program, usually Part I. The operative assumption appears to be that students have exercised choice upon entry, and further individualization is accomplished through independent study.

Independent study is accorded far greater importance in U.K. than in U.S. administrator training programs. Where programs are divided into parts or stages, it is not uncommon for Part II or B to be devoted to independent study with few, if any, taught courses. For example, in the Crewe and Alsager "linked" M.Sc./Diploma in Educational Management, the M.Sc. portion has only one taught course, "Research and Evaluation Methodology," and that course "is not formally assessed"(Crewe and Alsager College

of Higher Education, n.d., p. 16). Part II of the Sheffield City Polytechnic's M.Sc. in Educational Management is "The individual study program" and consists in part of an individual field project and "five assignments usually negotiated individually." Part II of the North East Wales Institute's program is a ten-thousand-word project, and in the Ulster Polytechnic program described earlier, thirty of the ninety weeks of the course are set aside for independent study. In brief, it is not unusual to find one-half to one-third of a management training program set aside for supervised independent study. Such emphasis is conceptually consistent with experiential learning.

Finally, it is appropriate to note the emphasis placed on *formal assessment of performance*. Such assessment may be formative or summative (the Cambridge Institute would rank high on the former; the London Institute high on the latter); written or oral; examination-based or project- or dissertation-based; conducted by internal or external examiners. But whatever the configuration of the above variables, assessment is taken seriously. To draw again from the Ulster Polytechnic (1980) Proposal:

> There are eight assignments throughout the course which form the assessment items. These are:
> - one assignment of 4,000 words in each of the syllabuses—Context, Decision-Making, and Innovation
> - two assignments of 4,000 words each in Organization
> - one assignment of 4,000 words in Group Studies
> - the Project (10,000 words). [P. A20]

The Proposal goes on to note that the project "will be assessed by the Internal and External Examiners, and will normally include a *viva voce* examination" (p. A21). Further, it will be assessed on the basis of five explicit criteria, including potential value to the "host organization" as well as the "potential contribution to the improvement of the participant's personal managerial capabilities" (p. B31).

Finally, it must be noted that while assessment on the basis of written papers is the norm, and indeed the London Institute of Education described the substance of its "Examination" for the diploma in terms of "four papers, two for each of the subjects taken," (p. 94), course or final examinations as we know them in the United States are not unknown. An excerpt from the *Assessment Requirements* at Brunel University makes this clear: "Students must take an advance notice examination in Group III (Special Subject). Three questions must be answered in essay form in a specified period of five weeks. They will carry 75% of the Group III marks" (Brunel University, 1986, p. 7).

5. Institutional Processes

Four institutional processes round out the description of administrator training programs—legitimation, admissions, staffing, and scheduling. Each will be considered briefly.

Legitimation. Legitimation refers to the process of securing both internal and external program approval. The internal processes are not substantially different from those in the United States, but the legitimation process becomes more complex and tedious, as approval must also be secured from either the Council for National Academic Awards or one of the royally chartered, degree-granting universities. While the combination of internal and external reviews presumably increases quality control, the external review by a national body also reflects the tripartite system of governance, particularly with respect to the funding implications of new programs.

Admissions. Admissions processes in the United States and the United Kingdom are, with two exceptions, quite similar. The first exception is that ordinarily students are admitted annually only. This is consistent with the highly structured nature of most programs, particularly with respect to the "taught syllabuses," and the administrative constraints associated with "secondments." The second exception strictly speaking refers more to program options than admissions per se. It is simply noted here that the range of programs to which a student might be admitted to study school administration is wider than in the United States. At the University of London Institute of Education, for example, such options include the B.Ed., the Postgraduate Certificate in Education, the Diploma in Education, the Specialist Diploma, the M.A., the M.Phil., the Ph.D., and the Associate of the Institute.

Staffing. Several dimensions of staffing need to be considered. The first identifies the academic unit or units authorized to offer the course. In the United States the authorized unit almost without exception is a department of educational administration or a somewhat larger unit of which educational administration is a part. This is not necessarily the case in the United Kingdom. Programs at the Cambridge Institute of Education, for example, are sponsored by the Institute, while the Diploma in Education Management offered by Oxford Polytechnic is jointly sponsored by the Department of Educational Development and the Department of Management and Business Studies. In brief, the training of school administrators in Great Britain tends to be a more widely shared function than in the United States.

Second, four discrete staffing patterns can be identified. From more to less similar to U.S. patterns, they are: (1) responsibility for the program divided among faculty within or outside the sponsoring department, each of whom takes individual responsibility for one or more courses; (2) team teaching, but with a designated team leader ("course convener"); (3) heavy reliance on guest lecturers drawn from the ranks of practicing administrators, but under the general supervision of an instructor of record; and (4) major if not sole responsibility assigned to a course tutor.

The tutorial system, that is, a pattern of highly individualized interaction

between tutors and students, is a distinguishing feature of higher education in the United Kingdom. It is a long-standing system, closely linked to the research-based model of the ancient universities yet conceptually and operationally consistent with the emphases on professional development, independent study, dialogic and self-reflective learning, and, more generally, on learning rather than teaching. This configuration is at considerable variance with U.S. practice and belief, and its corresponding emphases on large lecture classes, "taught syllabuses," instrumental learning, and teaching. Few U.S. students have genuine tutorial experiences short of the dissertation. However, the British propensity for tutorials is also a response of necessity. Department faculties in British universities tend to be small: faculties of one are not uncommon; faculties of ten to twenty, as in the United States, are. The entire 1985 tutorial staff of the Cambridge Institute of Education, for example, numbered sixteen, including two on study leave.

Scheduling. Three features of course scheduling ("timetabling," to use the British vernacular) strike an American observer. First, scheduling tends to be long range. A two- or three-year program may be plotted out entirely in advance, including lecture dates, examination dates, specified course topics, readings, and the like. Second, few, if any, provisions are made for accomodating individual student schedules, preferences, or other contingencies. This is consistent with the general stance toward limited flexibility. Third, time frames for program completion tend to be brief and inflexible statements like, "The dissertation must be submitted by 5:00 P.M. on the last working day of January following year two of the course" (Oxford Polytechnic, 1984, p. 24). In short, the flexibility accorded most U.S. students with respect to program completion is conspicuously absent.

To summarize, the second part of this paper has described selected features of initial administrator preparation programs in the United Kingdom, many of which vary from their U.S. counterparts. These variations are summarized in Table 33–1.

Implications

In the introduction to this paper this question was posed: "What might be learned from the British experience in educational administration that could enrich and inform pre- and in-service professional training in the United States?" Subsequently, the first part sketched some contingencies that have shaped the British experience, and the second part provided data on that experience as it is reflected in administrator training programs. This third part considers the implications of that experience for U.S. practice through a series of "What if. . ." questions. The questions are illustrative of "what might be learned," and are designed primarily to provoke thought.

Table 33–1

Major Variations Between the United Kingdom and the United States in Initial Administrator Preparation Programs

Program Variables	U.K. Practice	U.S. Practice
Program emphasis	In-service/professional development	Preservice/graduate
Program intent	Enhancement of individual and group skills (multiplier effect)	Enhancement of individual skills
Field relations	Strong LEA linkages ("parochial")	Weak LEA linkages ("cosmopolitan")
Initial award granted	Diploma	M.A. or M.Ed.
Mode of learning	Major emphasis on dialogic and self-reflective learning	Major emphasis on instrumental learning
Mode of instruction	Tutorial; individual and small group	Large group lecture
Program design	Holistic/tightly linked	Fragmented/loosely linked
Degree of choice	Limited	Broad
Independent study	Strong emphasis	Weak emphasis
Assessment	Cumulative with emphasis on formal papers	Examination based
Program legitimation	Internal and external	Essentially internal only
Staffing	Heavy reliance on tutors and part-time staff	Heavy reliance on department faculty
Admissions	Annually by cadre ("members of the course")	Semi-annually and individually
Scheduling	Long term; relatively inflexible	Short term; relatively flexible

1. What if administrator training programs were oriented more toward in-service and professional development and less toward preservice and role entry preparedness?

Proponents of such a stance have a fairly strong case. If indeed there will be a 70 percent turnover in the elementary principalship within the next five years as some predict, and if the vast majority of those potential administrators have already been trained and credentialed, then it seems reasonable to begin shifting the emphasis from preservice to in-service (*Education Week*, 1986; *Wall Street Journal*, 1986). Further, one could argue that the demand for enhanced principal competencies targets individuals already in the administrative role, and to shift the training focus in that direction would indeed constitute responsiveness.

Opponents of such a shift might claim that current licensure requirements lead training institutions to emphasize pre-service. But suppose that objection could be overcome. What are some of the benefits and costs that might accrue? First, the U.K. experience would suggest that training institutions and their clients would be brought closer together. Second, it might cause trainers to become more attentive to the needs of trainees, and consequently persuade LEAs of the importance of professional development. "Secondments" need not remain a solely British institution.

Costs would also be incurred. "Conscious parochialism" is largely antithetical to "national reputation" and "cosmopolitanism." Service might have to replace research in the institutional reward structure of higher education. Narrow faculty specialization would of necessity be superseded by breadth of knowledge anchored in experience. As exemplars of costs, these are not insignificant.

2. What if administrator training emphasized experiential rather than academic learning?

Substantial ambivalence concerning experiential learning exists. A recent UCEA document entitled "Proposed Program for the Preparation of Educational Administrators" makes this quite clear. The draft criticizes contemporary programs for being too much "*about* educational administration rather than being *in* educational administration" (Hoyle, 1986, p.1) (emphasis in original), and recommends that programs should be "a blend of both intellectual and clinical training" (p. 2). However, a close reading of the document shows a decided bias toward the intellectual. Even the "clinical experiences" have a high cognitive component. The desired experience inferred in the "record of leadership" requirement for admissions is largely ignored as a learning resource.

Suppose it were otherwise. Glatter (1972, p. 4) has suggested that ". . . the main function of training is to assist administrators to structure and analyze

their own and their colleagues' experience so that they may use it more effectively as their principal learning resource." Clearly, according to Glatter, the major outcome of experiential learning is learning how to learn, and the pathway to such learning is marked by dialogue and self-reflection. This is a far cry from mastering instrumental skills no matter how strongly they may be anchored in the "empirical sciences."

Shifting from instrumental to experiential learning may also produce other favorable outcomes. The emphases in training programs might shift from teaching to learning, analyses of reality might replace analyses of simulations, and in the process a library of professional case data might be developed. Perhaps, too, the perceived gap between theory and practice might be reduced through engaging in "critical reflectivity." The latter outcome of itself would be no small accomplishment.

There would, of course, be costs, many perhaps in the psychological domain. It would be no easy matter to view students (and professors!) differently or to elevate learning above teaching. Imagine the trauma involved in selecting the Learner of the Year rather than the Teacher of the Year. The status quo is not relinquished easily.

3. What if administrator training programs were to be role and organization specific?

An article of faith of twentieth-century administrative science is that administration qua administration contains a large proportion of common variance. Consequently, major program differentiation by role or organization is warranted neither theoretically nor practically. But suppose one rejected this assumption as some U.K. colleagues do, and argued that the roles of superintendent, assistant principal, clinical supervisor, business manager, and so on and organizations like schools, school districts, state departments, corporations, and so on are substantially different and thus warrant basically different programs? Hypothetically, several things might happen simultaneously: (1) the number of programs might increase but focus might sharpen; (2) enrollments might rise overall but fall in specific programs; (3) faculties in cooperation with LEAs might have to really define priorities; (4) cooperative action might increase as a means of reducing resource strain; and (5) the concept of practice might receive more than lip service in training programs. The list of possibilities is almost endless, but one certainty is that old assumptions about program content would have to be reexamined.

4. What if administrator training programs were tightened and simplified through the elimination of electives and discrete courses?

Electives are democratically conceived "good" things, equally justified on the basis of uncertainty about the future and respect for freedom of choice.

But suppose one were to argue that given the strategic importance of schooling in society and the significance of the leadership role in schooling, student freedom of choice should be limited to the matriculation decision and subsequently constrained by the professional judgment of trainers and practitioners? Surely such a stance would increase trainer accountability, a sadly missing current element.

A similar statement could be made about most discrete courses. Fragmentation, frequently discipline based, is a notable characteristic of administrator training programs in the United States. Its roots lie in the presumed preeminence and economies of specialization in an academic context, and it is manifested in catalogues of discrete course offerings. Integration is left largely to students and to chance.

The British model as illustrated in the second part of this paper is quite different and offers a more integrated alternative. Further, the current emphasis in U.S. circles on "competencies" or "functions" provides an opportunity for restructuring programs along different lines. Imagine, for example, a master's program for school principals structured around four functions—the management of curriculum, the management of human resources, operations management, and the management of the environment. Imagine also that no further course specifications were permitted, that is, that traditional course content presented under such course titles as School Law or Supervision of Instruction would have to be incorporated into the new structure or deleted from the program. Finally, imagine a program for which course hours were computed after the syllabus was developed rather than before. The effects of such a reconceptualization might be quite salutary in forcing reconsideration of content, integration, and focus.

5. What if administrator training programs were designed to maximize independent study?

Ambivalence surrounds independent study as it surrounds experiential learning. Perhaps this is because the two are closely related. Also, like experiential learning, independent study in the United States is honored more in the breach than in the main. Even doctoral programs in the United States, to say nothing about M.A. and Ed.S. programs, consist largely of "taught" courses, internships and dissertations notwithstanding.

Imagine the consequences of shifting that emphasis, at least at the advanced levels. The consequences would be profound. Program emphases would shift from teaching to learning, paralleling the shift from instrumental to self-reflective and critical learning. Admissions committees might require an applicant to submit a prospectus detailing what was to be learned and how (interning as a possibility) rather than a Miller Analogies Test score. Institutionally defined "residencies" would become irrelevant as would the accumulation of credit hours. "Teaching" would largely be replaced by

"tutoring." All of these are, of course, hypothesized outcomes, but if even a fraction of them were supported, the impact on current practice would be substantial.

Conclusion

Reference was made in the introduction to this paper to the ferment that pervades the field of educational administration. What ultimately will be distilled from that fermentation is uncertain, but what is clear is that the field is now faced with making some difficult choices. It can choose from among at least four available alternatives. One, the field can blindly embrace as its own the program revisions promulgated by third parties. Such a choice is likely to be applauded publicly. It is also a choice sanctioned by history and one that entails low risk. What it also does, however, is increase the probability of "bloody-mindedness," and cloak the abandonment of professional responsibility in the garment of public responsiveness.

Two, the field can persist in its present practices, that is, turn a deaf ear to the call for reform. Such a choice entails more risk, since external bodies will then surely act to influence the form and content of administrator training programs through, for example, certification mechanisms and perhaps the identification of trainers. And there is no reason to believe that university-based departments of educational administration will be the trainer of choice.

A third choice available is to reclothe the emperor. That is to say, old designs, concepts, and structures can be repackaged, and with full fanfare paraded as revision and reform. This choice, too, entails some risk—innocence, as the emperor discovered, has a way of unmasking sophistry.

Four, the field can search out and test creative alternatives. Further, if the search extends beyond national borders, the number of alternatives available will increase measurability. Clearly, engaging in this course of action is the choice advocated here. It also entails the greatest risk: favorable outcomes cannot be guaranteed. Some alternatives chosen may well fail—perhaps disastrously so. Some may succeed beyond anyone's wildest dreams. Most will fall somewhere between dreams and realities. However, given the present opportunity and imperative to change, the fourth alternative is surely the most desirable.

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STAN DARDS (Md, GA, WI)

Requirements for Certification

of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators

for Elementary and Secondary Schools

Fifty-eighth edition, 1993-1994

John Tryneski

The University of Chicago Press
Chicago and London

b. The training of media specialists and other personnel should identify the ways in which they have been prepared to use computers.
c. Principals new in their position shall:
   1) Have a master's degree which includes 21 quarter or 14 semester hours of graduate work in education,
   or
   2) Have 57 quarter or 38 semester hours of graduate work, 24 quarter or 16 semester hours of which must be in education.

2. It is realized that changes in education create new and varied courses—some of an interdisciplinary nature, some very specialized, e.g., computers in education, special education classes, classes for deprived students, classes for slow learners. For these courses it is very difficult to set standards. Where it is not reasonable to follow the usual 24 quarter hours in the field and 9 quarter hours in subjects closely related to each specific subject, principals should write an explanation to the State Accreditation Committee which has authority to approve the exceptions.
3. Teachers who, as a result of a college placement examination, began above the elementary courses in college may count credits given for such waived courses as part of those applying to the minimum subject matter preparation. In no case, however, may such waived courses exceed 15 quarter hours.
4. Teachers shall have professional training of at least 21 quarter or 14 semester hours of education. This training shall include work in the fields of educational psychology, methods, and practice teaching. Teachers of special subjects who meet the requirements set up by the State for certification of such special subjects shall be considered eligible.
5. It is strongly recommended that the teacher have a major in the field in which he/she teaches. A fifth year of study, largely in graduate courses, should be encouraged. In some cases, especially in small schools, some teachers must teach in areas other than their major. The following minimum standards have been established:

   All subject matter teachers shall have a minimum of 24 quarter hours in each field or area, including 9 quarter hours in subjects closely related to courses assigned.

H. Standard VIII—Administration
I. Standard IX—Teacher Load
J. Standard X—Student Activities

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Elementary Schools

Private Schools

I. Administrative Requirements
   A. Administrative head of a school system (e.g., superintendent, president)
      1. Graduate degree from an approved institution.
      2. Graduate credit in administration and/or supervision, semester hours 18
      or

hold a nonemergency state certificate required for the position,
or
meet the legal qualifications specified by the state in which employed.

3. Completion of at least 6 semester hours in field for credit or the equivalent during each 5 year period of employment.

B. Administrative head of an elementary or middle school (e.g., principal, headmaster)
1–3 same as above, A, 1–3.

C. Administrative head of a nursery school or early childhood center
1. Bachelor's degree in early childhood education, child development, or elementary education from an approved institution.
2. Completion of at least 6 semester hours of graduate credit per year until a master's degree is earned in one of the fields listed in I, C, 1.
3. See I, A, 3 above.

D. Administrative or Supervisory Assistant (same as Administrative head of a school system; see A, above, except that only 15 semester hours of graduate credit are required).
1. Anyone holding a valid state certificate based on a bachelor's degree with certification in another area is to be regarded as meeting the requirements, contingent upon
   a. Completion of at least 6 semester hours toward proper certification
   b. Filing a plan for completion of such certification
   c. Completion of at least 6 semester hours annually until properly certified.

II. Instructional Personnel Requirements
A. Bachelor's degree from an approved institution.
B. College major, *or* a minimum of 24 semester hours in the subject area or grade level at which the teacher works, *or* nonemergency state certificate required for the position.
C. Professional education, semester hours 12
1. These courses must be appropriate to the grade level or subject area of assignment and may be either part of the requirements above or in addition thereto.
D. Completion of at least 6 semester hours of credit or the equivalent during each 5 year period of employment in field being taught.

III. Librarian or Media Specialist Requirements
A. Degree in library science or is certified by the appropriate state agency.
B. Professional education 12
1. These courses may be either part of the bachelor's degree or in addition thereto.
C. Anyone holding a valid state certificate based on a bachelor's degree with certification in another area is to be regarded as meeting the requirements, contingent upon
1. Completion of at least 6 semester hours toward proper certification
2. Filing a plan for completion of such certification
3. Completion of at least 6 semester hours annually until properly certified.
D. Same as Instructional Personnel, above, see II, D.

IV. Guidance/Pupil Personnel Specialists Requirements
- A. Master's degree from an approved institution with a major in guidance or certificate endorsement by appropriate state agency.
- B. See III, B, C, and D above.

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Secondary Schools

I. Administrative Requirements
- A. Administrative head of a school system (e.g., superintendent, president)
  1. Graduate degree from an approved institution.
  2. Graduate credit in administration and/or supervision, semester hours 15
     a. Training and experience may be accepted by the chairman of the State Committee in lieu of no more than 6 semester hours, 2 years to complete 15 semester hours.
  3. Shall earn at least 6 semester hours in field for credit or the equivalent during each 5 year period of employment.
- B. Administrative head of school (e.g., principal, headmaster)
  1–3 same as above, A, 1–3.
  4. A beginning administrative head of a school shall have 3 years of professional experience in education below the college level.
- C. Administrative or Supervisory Assistants (same as Administrative head of a school system; see A, above).

II. Instructional Personnel Requirements
- A. Bachelor's degree from an approved institution
  1. Teachers in special areas, such as vocational-technical, special education, and military science, who are certified or licensed by their state are considered to be in compliance.
  2. Professional education, semester hours 12
  3. Training and experience may be accepted for no more than 6 semester hours.
  4. Beginning teachers shall have 2 years to complete the 12 semester hours.
- B. Certificate or college major in field of major responsibility
- C. May work in other field for less than a major portion of the school day with semester hours in that field 12
- D. Teachers shall earn at least 6 semester hours of credit or the equivalent during each 5-year period of employment in field which they teach.

III. Librarian or Media Specialist Requirements
- A. Degree in library science or is certified by the appropriate state agency
  1. Professional education completed within 2 years, semester hours 12
  2. Training and experience may be accepted for no more than 6 semester hours.
- B. Additional professional staff shall have at least a bachelor's degree with 12 semester hours in professional education.

C. Same as Instructional Personnel, above, see II, D.

IV. Guidance/Pupil Personnel Specialists Requirements

A. Master's degree from an approved institution with a major in guidance or certificate endorsement by appropriate state agency

1. Professional education completed within 2 years, semester hours 12
2. Training and experience may be accepted for no more than 6 semester hours.

B. Pupil personnel support specialists (e.g., psychologists, psychometrists, psychiatrists) shall be licensed.

C. Shall earn at least 6 semester hours of credit in field during each 5-year period of employment.

III. Write the Superintendent of Public Instruction for details regarding requirements for specific areas (applicants must have a major or a master's degree in desired area): agriculture, art, business education, business education with shorthand, home economics, technology education, instrumental music, choral music, general music, and physical education

School Administrators

I. General Requirements
   A. Completion of an approved master's degree program or the equivalent at the appropriate level of school administration
      or
      A master's degree (or the equivalent) and an approved program for the level of the license being sought
   B. Graduate or undergraduate course work in each of the following—child psychology, early adolescent psychology, and adolescent psychology—or in human growth and development
   C. Completion of 21 graduate semester credits in the following areas:
      1. Human relations; oral and written communication; educational leadership; organization and operation of public schools; governance of education; supervision of instruction; evaluation of personnel; school law; school business administration and budgeting; and politics of education
   D. Completion of 18 semester credits of professional education course work which are not included as part of an approved program leading to an administrative license
   E. Hold or be eligible to hold a license to teach at
      1. the middle, middle/secondary, or secondary levels or to teach grades K–12 (for superintendent license)
      2. the elementary, elementary/middle, or middle levels (for elementary/middle principal)
      3. middle, middle/secondary, or secondary levels (for middle/secondary principal)
      or
      Hold or be eligible to hold a license as a school counselor, school psychologist, or a school social worker
      or
      Have completed an approved program leading to any of these licenses
   F. Completion of 3 years of successful experience at
      1. the middle, middle/secondary, or secondary levels or grades K–12 (for superintendent license)
      2. the elementary, elementary/middle, or middle levels (for elementary/middle principal)
      3. middle, middle/secondary, or secondary levels (for middle/secondary principal)
      or
      Completion of 3 years as a school counselor, school psychologist, or a school social

worker which includes at least 540 hours of successful classroom teaching experiences

II. Superintendent (valid 5 years)
  A. See I, A–F
  B. Hold or be eligible to hold a principal license
  C. Completion of an approved program or the equivalent, including 12 graduate semester credits in all the following areas:
    1. Superintendency; advanced program planning and evaluation; economics of education; advanced politics of education; personnel administration; collective bargaining and contract administration; practicum or internship
  D. Renewal—For each subsequent five-year license, 6 semesters of professional credits or an approved equivalent must be completed

III. Elementary/Middle Level Principal (valid 5 years)
  A. See I, A–F
  B. Completion of an approved program or the equivalent, leading to licensure as a principal, including 12 graduate semester credits in all the following areas:
    1. Principalship; coordination of special school programs; curriculum development at elementary/middle level; practicum or internship at elementary/middle level
  C. Renewal—See II, D

IV. Middle/Secondary Level Principal (valid 5 years)
  A. See I, A–F
  B. Same as III, B, except at the middle/secondary levels
  C. Renewal—See II, D

School Counselor

I. Complete or possess the following:
  A. A master's degree with a major in school counseling and guidance or a master's degree with at least 30 semester credits in an approved school counseling and guidance program and the institutional endorsement
  B. One of the following:
    1. Eligibility for a Wisconsin license to teach in the elementary or secondary schools, or completion of an approved elementary or secondary teacher education program and 2 years of successful teaching experience at the elementary or secondary school level,
    or
    2. An approved one-year, full-time internship in school counseling at the elementary or secondary level,
    or
    3. A minimum of 2 years of successful experience as a licensed school counselor in an assigned position of one-half time or more
  C. Demonstrated proficiency in the many areas necessary for the improvement of school practices related to counseling and guidance

1. Foundations of education including educational psychology (6); secondary education (6) including curriculum or principles of secondary education, and special methods in subject to be certified; supervised observation and student teaching (6).
2. Teachers of English and social studies (generic sense) must have, in addition to the 18 semester hours above, 3 semester hours in special methods of teaching reading.

Administration

I. Administrator I* (supervisor in instruction)
   A. Master's degree from an accredited institution.
   B. Twenty-seven months of satisfactory teaching performance or satisfactory performance as a specialist.
   C. Completion of one of the following:
      1. A Maryland State Department of Education approved program in administration and supervision;
         or
      2. An approved program in school administration having an on-site review as listed in the interstate contract approved programs;
         or
      3. An approved program using National Association of State Directors for Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) program approval standards;
         or
      4. Eighteen semester hours of graduate course work (twelve of which must be taken at the same institution) taken at an accredited institution in administration and supervision to include school administration; clinical and/or instructional supervision; curriculum design; group dynamics; school law; and verification of a practicum/internship.

II. Administrator II* (school principal)
   A. Completion of requirements for Administrator I certification.
   B. Successful completion of the Maryland Assessment Center Program or a state-approved equivalent program within the last five years before initial appointment as principal.

III. Supervisors and Principals
   A. Professional certificate appropriate to level of assignment.
   B. Master's degree.
   C. Additional semester hours of graduate credit 15
   D. Three years of successful teaching experience.
   E. Either as part of or in addition to B and C above, completion of a balanced program of graduate courses, 15 semester hours of which may be in State Department of Education approved workshops.
      1. Supervision, semester hours 18

To include a balanced program for such areas as administration, supervision, psychology of learning, guidance and counseling, group dynamics, human growth and development, oral and written communication, multi-media, and sociology of the community.

2. Curriculum, semester hours 12
   To include a balanced program from such areas as curriculum design and paradigms, strategy and influences in curriculum development, curriculum appraisal, programmed instruction, and data systems.
3. Content areas appropriate to level of assignment, semester hours 15

IV. Superintendents
   A. Eligibility for a professional certificate.
   B. Master's degree from an accredited institution.
   C. Three years of successful teaching experience and two years of administrative and/or supervisory experience.
   D. Successful completion of a two-year program with graduate courses in administration and supervision, in an approved institution. Must have a minimum of 60 semester hours of graduate work.

* These requirements are effective July 1, 1993.

Guidance Counselor

I. Requirements (Option 1)
   A. Master's degree in school guidance and counseling.
   B. National Board of Certified Counselors (NBCC) certificate.
   C. Two years of satisfactory performance as a teacher or counselor in a school setting.

II. Requirements (Option 2)
   A. Master's degree from a program in school guidance and counseling approved on-site using NASDTEC Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education or using standards deemed comparable by the Department of Education.
   B. Two years of satisfactory performance as a teacher or counselor;
      or
      Supervised practicum of 500 clock hours in school guidance and counseling.

III. Requirements (Option 3)
   A. Master's degree in school guidance and counseling from a program approved by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP).

IV. Requirements (Option 4)
   A. Master's degree in school guidance and counseling from an approved program under the Interstate Contract agreement for support services.
   B. Two years of satisfactory performance as a teacher or counselor.

Georgia Rule

505-2-.130 ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

(1) Professional Certificate

(a) To qualify for a Professional certificate in Administration and Supervision an applicant shall:

1. possess a master's or higher degree from a regionally accredited institution;

2. have completed three years of acceptable school experience;

3. complete an approved program at the master's degree level or higher in Administration and Supervision and obtain the professional recommendation from the preparing institution per Rule 505-2-.06 or provide documentation of out-of-state certification per Rule 505-2-.15;

(i) If requirements for the field of Administration and Supervision, at the master's degree level, were completed after 9-1-80, the certificate will be nonrenewable.

4. complete the special Georgia requirements per Rule 505-2-.08 applicable to Administration and Supervision as follows:

(i) special education;

(ii) certification test.

(b) Validity Period. This certificate field shall be valid for 5 years provided the Special Georgia Requirements have been completed. If any are missing, the certificate may be issued for one year upon the request of the employing Georgia superintendent.

(c) Renewal Requirements.

1. If the certificate field is issued with a one year validity period, it may be extended for four additional years after the special Georgia requirements have been completed.

2. If the certificate field is issued as a renewable certificate, the standard renewal requirement is 10 quarter hours of college credit or the equivalent local staff development credit specifically approved for certification renewal. This credit shall be completed in accordance with Rule 505-2-.13. Applicable special Georgia requirements will be required if not previously completed.

3. If the certificate field is a nonrenewable certificate valid for five years, additional course work must be completed during the validity period to qualify for the clear renewable certificate;

(i) If the highest acceptable degree earned is the master's degree, the applicant must complete an education specialist or higher degree in administration and supervision and obtain the professional recommendation from the training institution;

(ii) If the applicant holds an education specialist or higher level of education, the applicant must complete an additional 30 quarter hours of acceptable graduate credit in the field of Administration and Supervision, completed at a regionally accredited institution with an approved program in Administration and Supervision, to include:

(I) 25 quarter hours of course work in the area of elementary and secondary education leadership, administration and supervision, or related areas;

(II) five quarter hours in a leadership field experience. This must be for college credit or through a Leadership Academy state-approved SDU program. Only on-the-job experience in a leadership position while holding a professional certificate may substitute for requirement.

4. The nonrenewable certificate in Administration and Supervision may be extended for an additional three years under the following conditions:

(i) the individual can verify being admitted to and enrolled in an approved Education Specialist or Doctoral level program in Administration and Supervision;

(ii) the individual has successfully completed, and had accepted toward the specialist or doctoral program, a minimum of 25 quarter hours.

(2) The Emergency Certificate

(a) Emergency certificates are not issued in the field of Administration and Supervision.

(3) The Provisional Certificate

(a) Provisional certificates are not issued in the field of Administration and Supervision.

(4) To Add a Field

(a) To qualify for the Nonrenewable Leadership certificate an applicant shall:

1. hold a valid professional certificate in any teaching or service field;

2. have completed a master's degree at a regionally accredited college;

3. have three years of acceptable school experience;

4. affiliate with a regionally accredited institution with an approved program in administration and supervision and complete an approved program in Administration and Supervision or complete 35 quarter hours of acceptable graduate credit to include the following:

(i) 5 quarter hours in curriculum development;

(ii) 5 quarter hours in supervision of instruction;

(iii) 5 quarter hours in organizational leadership in education (school climate/discipline, planning, goal setting, interpersonal/group relations);

(iv) 5 quarter hours in the development and management of personnel;

(v) 5 quarter hours in school business management (physical and fiscal resources);

(vi) 5 quarter hours dealing with law, standards and policy for education leaders;

(vii) 5 quarter hours in a leadership field experience. This must be for college credit or through a Leadership Academy state-approved SDU program. Only on-the-job experience in a leadership position while holding a professional certificate may substitute for this requirement.

5. complete special Georgia requirements per Rule 505-2-.08 applicable to the field of Administration and Supervision.

(5) Probationary Certificate

(a) To qualify for a Probationary certificate in Administration and Supervision, an applicant shall:

1. hold a professional certificate in any teaching or service field;

2. have completed a master's or higher degree from a regionally accredited institution;

3. be employed in a Georgia school and have the certificate requested by an employing superintendent;

4. have completed 15 quarter hours of acceptable graduated credit toward requirements to establish the Nonrenewable Leadership (NL) certificate in Administration and Supervision.

(b) Validity Period. The maximum number of years one may hold a probationary certificate in Administration and Supervision is five. The standard validity period of the initial probationary certificate in Administration and Supervision is three years. The beginning validity date will be the date requirements for the certificate are met or July 1, whichever is most recent and will expire June 30 three years later. If the base certificate is not valid for an additional three years, the probationary certificate will expire with the base certificate.

(c) Renewal Requirements. To renew the probationary certificate in Administration and Supervision for an additional two years a minimum of 30 quarter hours toward requirements to add the field shall be earned during the three-year validity period. When 30 quarter hours or less are required to add the field, all requirements shall be completed during the three-year validity period. If the probationary certificate is issued for less than three years because the base field is not valid for the additional three years, the probationary certificate can be extended when requirements to renew or extend the base certificate have been satisfied. If the base certificate is an initial certificate in Georgia, and the test is required, the test in either the base field or Administration and Supervision will be accepted to renew the probationary certificate.

(6) In-Field Statement An individual with a certificate in Administration and Supervision is in-field to serve as a building or system level education leader in roles/jobs such as superintendent, associate/assistant superintendent, curriculum director, principal, assistant principal, system-level supervisor or in other types of administrative or supervisory positions in a school system.

Authority O.C.G.A. 20-2-200

505-2-.131 Reserved

teaching fields and the service field of speech and language pathology. No new performance-based certificates shall be issued.

G. Life Professional

Life Professional (D) certificates were issued to individuals who qualified for life certification before July 1, 1974. No new life certificates are issued.

Requirements for Administrative/Supervisory Certificates

Leadership certificates are issued in fields that prepare an individual to administer or supervise a school system, school or school program.

A. Leadership Fields

1. **Administration and Supervision**
An individual with a certificate in Administration and Supervision is in-field to serve as a building or system level education leader in roles/jobs such as superintendent, associate/assistant superintendent, curriculum director, principal, assistant principal, system-level supervisor or in other types of administrative or supervisory positions in a school system. This field is issued as a conditional certificate at the master's level and requires a higher level of preparation (Education Specialist, Doctorate, or ABD) in the field to reach Clear Renewable status. An experience requirement accompanies this field.

B. Leadership Endorsement Fields

1. **Director of Media Centers**
An individual with a Director of Media Centers endorsement is in-field to direct, administer or supervise school media programs in grades P-12. The individual must hold or be eligible for a professional certificate in Media Specialist or Career Library-Media Specialist as a prerequisite. This field may be issued at the Master's or higher level.

2. **Director of Pupil Personnel Services**
An individual with a Director of Pupil Personnel Services endorsement is in-field to direct, administer or supervise pupil personnel programs in grades P-12. The individual must hold or be eligible for a professional certificate in the field of School Counselor, School Psychology, or School Social Work as a prerequisite. This field my be issued at the master's or higher level.

3. **Director of Special Education**
An individual with a Director of Special Education endorsement is in-field to direct, administer or supervise special education programs in grades P-12. The individual must hold or be eligible for a professional certificate in any special education teaching field, and the service fields of Audiology, Speech/Language Pathology, and School Psychology. This field may be issued at the master's or higher level.

4. **Director of Vocational Education**
An individual with the Director of Vocational Education endorsement is in-field to direct, administer or supervise vocational education programs in grades P-12. The individual must hold or be eligible for a professional certificate in the field of Agriculture Education, Health Occupations, Home Economics Education, Technology Education, Industrial Arts, Marketing Education, Trade and Industrial Education, or any other specific vocational fields. This field may be issued at the master's or higher level.

5. **Instructional Supervision**
An individual with the Instructional Supervision endorsement is in-field to provide direction or supervision in the specific teaching (or Speech/Language Pathology service) fields held. The individual must hold or be eligible for a professional teaching certificate in the field in which the individual supervises or the service field of Speech/Language Pathology. This field may be issued at the master's or higher level. The Instructional Supervision endorsement is also appropriate for assistant principals when the assistant principal's assignment is instructional supervision for a major portion of the school day.

Requirements for Support Services Certificates

A. Types of School Service Certificates

The following school service certificates are available covering P-12 service: Audiologist, Media Specialist, School Counseling, School Nutrition Director, School Psychologist, School Social Worker and Speech/Language Pathologist. Also available is a Service Endorsement: Teacher Support Specialist.

1. **Audiology**
Requirements: master's or higher level degree licensed by the Georgia Board of Examiners for Speech/Language Pathology and Audiology.

Psychology of Learning

This course area investigates the principles, theory and nature of the learning and teaching process. It examines the elements of effective instruction, as well as effective thinking. Strategies to improve student motivation and retention are analyzed.

Human Development

The course area presents an interdisciplinary approach to human development and behavior throughout the life span. It emphasizes the practical implications of research into those disciplines that contribute to the knowledge of human development.

Educational Management and Organization

The course area deals with the development, administration and improvement of the institutions, organizations, agencies, and enterprises which will be the deliverer and locus of family education. The focus will be on education, training, and development services.

Issues of Adult Learners

This course area deals with issues of adult learners: methods, techniques and strategies to enhance adult learning; developing action oriented approaches in adult learning programs and assisting participants in applying adult instructional strategies to Jewish studies.

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE TEACHER OF TALMUD LICENSE

The National Board of License has adopted the following criteria and requirements for the Teacher of Talmud License. To receive a credential, a teacher must complete the requirements as detailed in the table below. In addition, the teacher must present at least two years of general college education (60 semester credits) and three years of successful teaching experience in a recognized school under proper supervision. The Board reserves the right to require an examination, oral or written, of any candidate.

TABLE V
REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHER OF TALMUD LICENSE

CATEGORY	UNITS	REQUIREMENTS
Talmud	30	Or 120 *blatt* Gemarrah with commentaries covering a minimum of three *masechtot*. The academic credits must be earned in a recognized school of higher learning (post-secondary school level).
Codes	12	Candidates must have studied Rambam, Tur and Shulhan Arukh or have completed the equivalent of 110 *se'iphim* in Shulhan Arukh.
Tanakh	15	
Jewish Education	12	At least one course in "Methods" must be presented. Courses common to the educational process (i.e. Education Psychology) will be accepted.
Jewish History	6	History courses must cover the Talmudic and Gaonic periods.

REQUIREMENTS FOR
JEWISH FAMILY EDUCATOR LICENSE

Jewish education is more effective when it encompasses the entire family. There is a growing recognition that family life issues, ultimate questions and Jewish skills and knowledge should be part of Jewish family education. The NBL certifies Jewish family educators in order to insure minimum, uniform standards. After completing courses and participating in the practicum, the educator will be able to deal with a variety of issues concerning family education. These issues range from discussing the moral, spiritual and faith development theories and applying them to the planning and execution of family education and programming to understanding how the make-up of the contemporary Jewish family affects ritual observance, life cycle events, and holiday celebrations.

Training will inform the educator on issues like parental roles throughout the life cycle, as well as their rights and responsibilities, drawing from both general and Jewish sources. The educator will be able to prepare units with emphasis on both skills and values, family life education, problem solving, and ultimate questions. Most importantly, it provides an understanding of both the adult learner in addition to the younger learners.

The NBL awards certification on two levels:

Jewish Family Educator
Associate Jewish Family Educator

Specific Requirements

Jewish Family Educator

In addition to a level A (מורה מוסמך) teacher's license the educator must complete an MA in Education, Family Education or Social Work. The educator must participate in a 45 hour field-based practicum in family education, and complete 12 credits from the following course areas:

- family dynamics
- curriculum development
- human development
- psychology of learning
- educational management and organization
- issues of adult learners

Associate Jewish Family Educator

In addition to a level C (Certification Level II) teacher's license the educator mus participate in a 45 hour field-based practicum in family education, and complet 12 credits from the following course areas:

- family dynamics
- curriculum development
- human development
- psychology of learning
- educational management and organization
- issues of adult learners

Definitions of Requirements

Family Dynamics

The purpose of this course area is to present educators with theoretica foundations and techniques necessary to successfully work with and suppor parents and families. The instructional experiences are designed to provide educators with knowledge of the theories and supporting research of family systems, developmental stages of family, parenting, social and family support, and stress and coping.

Curriculum Development

This course area covers curriculum research and design theory, issues and trends in curriculum development, comparison of curriculum patterns, curriculum development in Jewish schools and consideration of current field-related problems. Attention is also given to teaching strategies for adult learners. A solid grounding in the components of curriculum development is provided to ensure that essential family educational programming is integrated into the formal curriculum.

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE EARLY CHILDHOOD LICENSE

The National Board of License has adopted the following revised criteria and requirements for the Early Childhood License based on the recommendation of the Committee of Examiners. The license will be a renewable credential for all teachers in Jewish early childhood education programs in North America for five year periods. To receive a credential, a teacher must complete the appropriate requirements as detailed below. Renewal of the credential will require continuing professional education equivalent to a minimum of three units at an appropriate level during the five year period.

1) All course work in education and early childhood education should be taken at an accredited college or university.

2) Course work in Judaica and Jewish early childhood education should be divided between courses taken at an accredited college or university, and courses, seminars, and workshops sponsored by other institutions. A minimum of 18 credits in Judaica should be earned at an accredited college or university, at least 3 of which should be earned prior to receiving level D and 9 of which should be earned prior to receiving level C.

3) The local Board of License, which issues the Early Childhood Teaching License, has the discretion to interpret the guidelines and requirements in light of local circumstances.

4) One Integration Course is to be completed prior to level C and the second after level C but prior to level A.

RECOMMENDED COURSE DISTRIBUTION
For the Early Childhood License

Course Areas	Units
Hebrew - Reading Ability	3
Hebrew - Beginning Language Skills	3
Bible - Including Genesis and Exodus	6
Customs and Ceremonies - Holiday Cycle	3
Customs and Ceremonies - Life Cycle	3
Liturgy - Including Basic Brachot	6
Jewish Social Studies	3
Survey of Jewish History	3
Literature - Midrash	3
Literature - Jewish Thought	3
Jewish Music	3
Jewish Art	3
Integration Course - Relating Judaica and Secular Studies	6

TABLE IV
REQUIREMENTS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD LICENSE

LEVEL	JUDAICA	EDUCATION	GENERAL EDUCATION
E	9	6	
D	15	12	
C	24	15 (or state certification)	
B	36	15 (or state certification)	60 credits
A	48	15 (or state certification)	60 credits

REQUIREMENTS FOR PRINCIPAL'S LICENSE (CERTIFICATION)

With the rapid increase of Jewish Day Schools in North America, the National Board of License has introduced two levels of principal certification which are designed to meet the needs of both the Day School and the Supplementary Hebrew School communities. The criteria for each certificate is based upon the demands placed upon the head of the specific educational program, with an understanding that the Day School principal has a significantly greater level of responsibility as the professional head of the organization (whereas, the typical Supplementary School is a division of a larger institution such as a synagogue).

All Principal's Licenses will be issued by the National Board of License in recognition of the high level of mobility that Principals experience throughout their careers. Maintaining the License will require continuing professional education which is a major component for remaining current with the field of education. Study is recommended in the fields of Leadership and Judaica and may be completed through seminars, workshops, conferences, and courses. Recognition will be given to principals who demonstrate continued education through their publications, and lectures, seminars and courses they offer in the Jewish community. An equivalent of three units, as previously defined, must be completed every five years in order to renew the license.

Specific Requirements

Principals of Day Schools

1) Level A Teacher's License (מורה מוסמך).

2) 12 credits in Curriculum Development, Educational Management and Leadership according to the following formula:
   - 3 credits in Curriculum Development
   - 6 credits in Educational Management (Administration, Supervision or Management)
   - 3 credits in a related leadership course

3) Minimum of three years of formal teaching experience of at least six hours of class time per week

4) Two letters of reference, one of which should be from the candidate's supervisor, either current or previous

5) All candidates who have earned a Masters degree in Jewis Educational Administration from one of the AIHLJE schools and wh have completed courses equivalent to those required in #2 above, c those who have earned a Masters Degree with a specialization i Education Administration designed for Jewish schools such as th cooperative graduate program of George Washington University an the College of Jewish Studies of the BJE of Greator Washington sha be eligible for the Principal's License once they have received the leve A Teacher's License(מורה מוסמך) and have completed requirement #3 and #4 above.

Principals of Supplementary Schools

1) Level B teacher's license (Associate License)

2) 30 credits taken at the graduate level according to the following formula
   - 12 credits in Curriculum Development, Educational Management and Leadership
   - 15 credits in Judaica
   - 3 elective credits

3) Minimum of three years of formal teaching experience of at least si hours of class time per week

4) Two letters of reference, one of which should be from the candidate' supervisor, either current or previous

ISRAELI EXCHANGE TEACHERS:

Israeli Exchange Teachers brought to this country as "Morim Shlichim" under the Exchange Teachers Program are granted the Level A (מורה מוסמך) license for the period of their stay in the United States or Canada based upon an application being submitted by their host institution. Other Israeli teachers who obtain permission to work in North America under the Exchange Teachers Program shall follow the same procedures for obtaining a license as American and Canadian teachers.

ACADEMIC REVIEW:

The National Board of License recognizes that some candidates for licensure have exceptionally strong backgrounds in specific areas which they have developed without benefit of formal academic coursework. To provide for this unusual circumstance, the applicant may request that the National Board of License or a local affiliate assign an academic advisor who will review the candidate's knowledge by appropriate means. At the conclusion of the review, the academic advisor will issue a statement to the NBL or the local board of license, indicating that the successful candidate has demonstrated proficiency in the subject. Credits earned in this manner will be treated as Academic units. The maximum number of units that a candidate may earn from each review is three units. A candidate may earn no more than fifteen units through Academic Review.

TRANSITION:

Those who hold the National Teacher License or its equivalent from a local board of license dated December 31, 1990 or before are exempt from the continuing education requirement as described in these guidelines. For those who have been issued a Certificate or Permit prior to December 31, 1990 and wish to continue working toward a National License must decide whether to continue under the former guidelines or these guidelines in order to receive their National License prior to December 31, 1993. All applications received after January 1, 1991, and all those individuals who received a Certificate or Permit prior to that date and who elect to continue under the New Requirements, shall be responsible for completing all of the requirements stated herein.

LICENSE RENEWAL

To renew the license, an equivalent of three units of study must completed within a five year period. For individuals who have received the License, or one of the special licenses, the units may be taken in either Judaica or education. For teachers with B, C, D and E licenses, the units should fu the requirements for the next higher level of licensure. Accurate records of courses, seminars and workshops should be maintained by the teacher a submitted to the Executive Secretary of the local board (where applicable) or t National Board of License at the time of renewal.

TABLE III
DETAIL OF DISTRIBUTION OF REQUIRED JUDAICA UNITS

Level of Certification	Bible	History	Tefilah/Mitzva (including Liturgy, Laws, Customs; may include appropriate Rabbinic Literature)	Literature (post-biblical literature of the Jewish people in original or translation)
E. Permit				3
D. Certification Level I	3	3		3
C. Certification Level II	6	6	3	3
B. Associate License	12 (of which 6 units must be in Bible/ Humash)	9	6	6
A. License מורה מוסמך	15 (of which 6 units must be in Bible/ Humash)	9	6	9

CERTIFICATION FOR GRADUATES OF THE ASSOCIATION OF INSTITUTIONS FOR HIGHER LEARNING IN JEWISH EDUCATION (AIHLJE)

All graduates of current AIHLJE member institutions who receive a BA or a BHL with a concentration in Jewish Education, BJF, BA in Jewish Education, MA in Jewish Education, MJS, or MA in Jewish Communal Service with a Jewish Education concentration will be automatically eligible for the Teacher's License (מורה מוסמך) from the National Board of License or any one of its recognized affiliates. To receive this license, a formal application must be made to the appropriate licensing board and such application will be facilitated by the school.

The members of the Association of Institutions for Higher Learning in Jewish Education are:

Baltimore Hebrew University	Baltimore, MD
Brandeis University	Boston, MA
Cleveland College of Jewish Studies	Cleveland, OH
Gratz College	Philadelphia, PA
Hebrew College	Boston, MA
Hebrew Union College - Jewish Institute of Religion	Los Angeles, CA
Hebrew Union College - Jewish Institute of Religion	New York, NY
Jewish Theological Seminary of America	New York, NY
McGill University	Montreal, QUE
Spertus College	Chicago, Ill
University of Judaism	Los Angeles, CA
Yeshiva University	New York, NY
York University	Toronto, ONT

TABLE I
SOURCES OF EARNING UNITS FOR CERTIFICATION

Level of Certification	Total Number of Accumulated Units	*Minimum* Number of Academic Units	*Maximum* Number of Life Exp./High School Units	Hebrew Proficiency Level
E. Permit	18	6	12	Basic reading, writing and oral comprehension
D. Certification Level I	30	12	18	Elementary comprehension of written/oral Hebrew
C. Certification Level II	42	18	24	Intermediate comprehension of written/ oral Hebrew
B. Associate License	66	36	30	Advanced comprehension of written Hebrew /intermediate comprehension of oral Hebrew
A. License מורה מוסמך	90	60	30	Reading comprehension of texts in modern and classical Hebrew and proficiency in oral Hebrew

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF UNITS REQUIRED FOR CERTIFICATION

Level of Certification	**Required Judaica** (see Table III)	**Judaica Electives** (from any category in Table III)	**Education**	**Liberal Arts and Science** (from an accredited college or university)
E. Permit	3	12	3	
D. Certification Level I	9	15	6	
C. Certification Level II	18	15	9	
B. Associate License	33	18 (Three units must be earned through successful supervised teaching)	15	60
A. License מורה מוסמך	42	30 (Three units must be earned through successful supervised teaching)	18	60

Supplementary High Schools a total of fifteen units may be granted toward the Judaica elective requirement. One unit will be granted for each hour of study per week for a year in Judaica/Hebraica. Units may be earned only in the Senior year for Day High School and Israeli High School students and the fourth year for Supplementary High School students.

- Programs sponsored by Central Agencies for Jewish Education which are approved by the NBL:

  College of Jewish Studies of Greater Washington
  Midrasha Institute of Metrowest, New Jersey

LIFE EXPERIENCE

The NBL recognizes that formal continuing education opportunities are often limited by the absence of appropriate academic institutions in the community and the inability of teachers to travel to an institution of higher learning in another community. The NBL also recognizes that prior learning in a variety of settings contributes to overall qualifications.

Therefore, recognition may be given for continuing education programs offered by local institutions, professional educator organizations and professional experience.

Units may be earned through participation in:

- Communally sponsored courses approved by the NBL and meeting the standards of its Guidelines for Non-University Courses. One unit is earned for each fifteen hours of instruction.

- Seminars, workshops, and in-service experiences including *sessions* attended at regional and national conferences, teacher centers, and educator organizations, e.g., CAJE, CJE, ECA, JEA and NATE; NAIS, NSDC, and ASCD and state education associations, or, communal and synagogue sponsored adult education courses. One unit is earned for each twenty contact hours. A written log must be presented for evaluation for each session or series of sessions which details the title of the session, the instructor, the number of hours, the goal of the session and a brief description of the content. A copy of the written announcement/description must be submitted for each session or series.

- Successful supervised teaching one half unit is awarded for each h hours per week of annual teaching to a maximum of six units per ye A total of nine units may be granted toward the education requireme A letter of validation from the supervisor must be submitted with t application.

Jewish Theological Seminary	Dr. Aryeh Davidson
Yeshiva University	Rabbi Jacob Rabinowitz
Cleveland College of Jewish Studies	Dr. David Ariel
	Dr. Lifsa Schachter
Gratz College	Dr. Gary Schiff
	Dr. Diane King
McGill University	Dr. B. Barry Levy
Brandeis University	Dr. Susan Shevitz
York University	Dr. Michael Brown

Central Agencies without Boards of License

Toronto	Rabbi Irwin Witty
Providence	Rabbi Arnold Samlan

At Large Delegates

Dr. Solomon Goldman	Dr. Richard Wagner
Dr. Alvin I. Schiff	Samuel Steinberg
Dean Sylvia Ettenberg	Dr. Shimshon Isseroff

Honorary Life Members

Dr. Hyman Chanover
Max Furer
Dr. Eli Grad (ז"ל)
Dr. Abraham Katsh
Dr. Hyman Pomerantz

Executive Secretary — Dr. Hyman J. Campeas

REQUIREMENTS FOR A TEACHER'S LICENSE

The NBL issues five levels of teacher certification based upon degree of academic background and professional experience. Teachers encouraged to enter the certification process and work toward each higher s through a combination of Academic Study and Life Experience activities. five levels of certification are:

A - License (מורה מוסמך)
B - Associate License
C - Certification Level II
D - Certification Level I
E - Permit

Each level requires a minimum number of units, which can be acqui through academic study and "life experience". Each level of certification a requires a corresponding level of Hebrew language proficiency. The Teache License is renewable every five years.

ACADEMIC STUDY

Acquiring units in Academic Study is based on normal acade procedures. One academic credit is equivalent to one unit. Units can be earn through study at:

- Member institutions of the Association of Institutions for Higher Learni in Jewish Education.
- Accredited colleges and universities in North America, including tho institutions accepted by the regional accrediting organizations, e.g Middle States, North Central and Western Associations of Schools.
- Israeli Teacher Training Institutions, including seminars and universiti which are recognized by the Ministry of Education as certified to gra diplomas such as "Moreh Musmach", "Moreh Bachir", or academ degrees.
- Post High School Yeshivot, including those Yeshivot in Israel that a recognized by the Ministry of Education and in North America that a recognized by Yeshiva University.
- High school study in Day Schools, Israeli High Schools an

COMPOSITION OF THE BOARD

The National Board is an autonomous body. It consists of two representatives of the Jewish Education Service of North America, one representative from the Council for Jewish Education, and the Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education, the Jewish Educators Assembly, Educators' Council of America, National Association of Temple Educators, each of the affiliated local boards of license, central agencies for Jewish education which maintain certification programs for teachers and their communities but do not have a local board of license, and members of the Association of Institutions for Higher Learning in Jewish Education. Eight members at large are selected by the delegates of the above organizations. Delegates at large are appointed for a period of three years.

A. THE NATIONAL BOARD OF LICENSE

Chair:	Rabbi Jacob Rabinowitz
Executive Secretary:	Dr. Hyman J. Campeas
Vice Chair:	Dr. Alvin I. Schiff
Secretary/Treasurer:	Dean Sylvia Ettenberg

B. STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE NATIONAL BOARD OF LICENSE

1. **Committee of Examiners**: acts on individual applications for teacher's license; prepares and administers qualifying examination; coordinates activities of local boards of license and recommends them for accreditation to the NBL; and, reviews the requirements for all licenses except the Principal's License.

Chair: Dean Sylvia Ettenberg

2. **Committee for Certification of Principals**: acts on applications for a principal's license; interviews and reviews the requirements for certification.

Chair: Dr. Alvin I. Schiff

National Board of License Representatives
1994-1995

Local Boards

Baltimore	Rabbi Joseph Braver
Boston	Dr. Daniel Margolis
Chicago	Dr. Al Levin
Cleveland	Dr. Sylvia Abrams
Los Angeles	Yonatan Shultz
MetroWest, NJ	Dr. Wallace Greene
Miami	Miles Bunder
New York	Dr. Hyman J. Campeas
Philadelphia	Rochelle B. Rabeeya
Washington, DC	Dr. Yaakov Halpern
West Palm Beach	Peggy Kroll
Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education	Alan Hoffmann Dr. Gail Dorph
Council for Jewish Education	Dr. Miriam Klein Shapiro
Jewish Educators Assembly	Isaac Friedman
Educators Council of America	Rabbi Dr. Israel Lerner
Jewish Education Service of North America	Dr. Jonathan Woocher Dr. Paul A. Flexner
National Association of Temple Educators	Elaine Kadison Brown

Teacher Training Institutions

HUC-JIR, Los Angeles	Sara Lee
HUC-JIR, New York	Dr. Kerry Olitzky
University of Judaism	Dr. David Ackerman
Spertus College	Dr. Byron Sherwin
Baltimore Hebrew University	Dr. Shulamith Elster
Hebrew College, Boston	Dr. David Gordis
	Dr. Harvey Shapiro

INTRODUCTION

For more than fifty years, the National Board of License for Teachers and Principals in Jewish Schools in North America has served the Jewish community through the establishment of standards and criteria for the certification of professional educators. By establishing local affiliates and through cooperative arrangements with professional educator organizations, the certification process is designed to provide recognition to qualified educators as well as to encourage those who are entering the field to pursue professional training.

The National Board of License places a high value on continuing education for all professionals, both veterans with many years of experience and those who are entering the field either with or without formal training. By recognizing that individuals are drawn to the field through a variety of venues, the NBL has created a system of certification built on the existing opportunities available to individuals in communities throughout the continent.

These **Guidelines and Requirements** have been developed in order to encourage the educator to pursue certification through the local Board of License or, in the absence of such a Board, through the National Board of License. Specific requirements are provided for certification as a Teacher, Principal, Early Childhood Educator, and Jewish Family Educator. Local Boards of License are authorized to issue certificates for Teachers, Early Childhood Educators and Jewish Family Educators. However, only the National Board of License is authorized to issue Principal's certificates.

The National Board of License reserves the right to review all credits, courses and units presented for licensing.

Educators interested in making application for a license should contact the central agency for Jewish education or the Jewish federation in their local community, or the National Board of License in New York for further information and an application.

HISTORY OF THE BOARD

Through the cooperative efforts of the American Association for Jewish Education, the National Council for Jewish Education, and the Hebrew Teachers Federation of America, the National Board of License for Teachers and Supervisory Personnel came into being in 1941. Prime movers in its organization were the leaders of the Jewish education profession.

The National Board was conceived as a coordinating and standard-setting body to be responsible for establishing the professional conditions and procedural requirements for licensing and for the type of teacher training which would qualify graduates for certification. In the words of the late Dr. Leo L. Honor, its first chairman, its purpose was "to eliminate undue diversity of standards in teacher training and teacher certification, and to make possible the free exchange of competent teacher service."

Relation to Local Licensing Bodies

Since its inception, the National Board has accredited or helped to establish eleven additional local boards of license.

Baltimore
Boston
Chicago
Cleveland
Los Angeles
MetroWest, NJ
Miami
New York
Philadelphia
Washington, DC
West Palm Beach, FL

NBL AFFILIATES

Local Boards of License seeking affiliation with, and national recognition by, the National Board of License must apply to the NBL.

The National Board of License
15 East 26th Street
New York, NY 10010-1579
(212) 532-2360 Ext., 452
Fax: (212) 532-2646

The operation of the National Board of License is made possible, in large part, by a grant from the Mandel Associated Foundations.

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NATIONAL BOARD OF LICENSE
For Teachers and Principals of
Jewish Schools in North America

1995

Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH SCHOOLS: A STUDY OF THREE COMMUNITIES

OVERVIEW

In its landmark report A Time to Act (1990), the Commission on Jewish Education in North America concluded that developing the profession of Jewish education was essential for improving Jewish education as a means of preserving Jewish continuity. Without doubt, the development of a cadre of professional educational leaders for Jewish schools is essential for realizing this goal.

This report presents a study of educational leaders of Jewish schools in three communities: Atlanta, Milwaukee, and Baltimore - the Lead Communities of the Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education (CIJE). These communities chose to participate in the study as part of a process to develop a plan of action for enhancing the profession of Jewish education. The study is based upon results from a survey of 77 leaders and 58 in-depth interviews.

This study examines the professional backgrounds, careers, and sentiments of the educational leaders in day schools, supplementary schools, and pre-schools. The study identifies aspects of strength as well as areas that need dramatic improvement.

Summary of Findings

1. Educational leaders in Jewish schools fall well short of the highest standards for the preparation of professional school leaders. Although 65% have university degrees in education, only 49% are trained in Judaic content areas. Moreover, only 27% of the leaders are trained in educational administration. Overall, a scant 16% of educational leaders are professionally prepared in all three areas (education, Jewish content, and administration).

2. Jewish school leaders also fall short of commonly accepted standards for professional growth. For example, educational leaders in the state of Georgia spend about 100 hours in workshops over a five-year period to remain certified; by contrast, we estimate that the leaders in our survey participate in about 37.5 hours of workshops in the same time span, even though most are not formally prepared for their leadership roles.

3. Most educational leaders view Jewish education as their career. They work full-time in a single school setting. The leaders have extensive experience in Jewish education: 78% said they had worked in Jewish education for more than 10 years. However, they have less seniority in educational leadership positions. The vast majority plan to remain in the field.

4. Over the course of their careers, leaders in day schools often have experience in supplementary schools and supplementary school leaders have often worked in day schools, but pre-school leaders have mainly worked only in pre-schools. When asked whether they had moved to their current community to take their leadership positions, 36% of day school leaders and 27% of supplementary school leaders said they had, but this was not the case for any of the pre-school leaders.

5. Although 78% of the leaders work full-time in Jewish education, 33% earn less than $30,000 per year. Another 37% earn between $30,000 and $59,999, and 30% earn $60,000 or more per year. Only 9% reported they were very satisfied with their salaries, but 55% said they were somewhat satisfied, while 36% said they were somewhat or very dissatisfied.

6. More dissatisfaction was expressed over benefits: 57% said they were somewhat or very dissatisfied with benefits. For full-time workers, benefits packages seem slim. For example, 79% of day school leaders were offered health benefits, and 71% were offered pensions. Even more severe is the situation in pre-schools: although 81% work full-time, only 44% were offered health benefits, and pensions were available only to 38%.

7. On the whole, the educational leaders report substantial support and involvement from rabbis and supervisors. However there is a small group (about 10%-20% across all settings) who indicate that such support is not forthcoming. Some educational leaders also lamented that they lack status in their communities.

Implications

These findings highlight a number of issues pertaining to the professional development of educational leaders in Jewish schools.

a. The finding that only one-half of the educational leaders are formally trained in a Jewish content area (i.e., through a degree in Jewish studies or certification in Jewish education) is a matter of great concern. Leaders of Jewish

schools are symbols of Jewish learning and role models for Jewish schooling. Serving in this capacity requires Jewish scholarship. Moreover, given the limited Judaica backgrounds of many teachers in Jewish schools, educational leaders with strong Judaica backgrounds are needed to provide instructional leadership in schools.

b. The lack of formal training in educational administration is also an important shortcoming. Leadership in today's schools is complex, involving many different roles and responsibilities. Training in administration can help the leaders of Jewish schools become more effective.

c. In light of background deficiencies, one might have expected educational leaders to engage in extensive professional development. This is not the case. There do not appear to be standards for professional growth.

d. Educational leaders are experienced and highly committed to their work. This suggests that investment in improving the knowledge and skills of educational leaders who are currently at work can have substantial impact in the future.

e. Most leaders are satisfied with their earnings, although some are not, and salaries for pre-school leaders appear relatively low. Almost half the leaders are dissatisfied with their benefits packages. This is not surprising since many are not offered health or pension benefits, especially in pre-schools.

The results of this study suggest changes are needed in the preparation, professional growth, and remuneration of educational leaders as the Jewish community strives to build the profession of Jewish education.

DRAFT -- CONFIDENTIAL -- NOT FOR QUOTATION OR CITATION

Council for Initiatives in Jewish Education
Discussion Paper No. 1

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH SCHOOLS: A STUDY OF THREE COMMUNITIES

Ellen B. Goldring
Adam Gamoran
Bill Robinson

August, 1995

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH SCHOOLS

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EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH SCHOOLS

1. Introduction and Purpose

Leadership in today's schools is complex and challenging, encompassing numerous roles. Educational leaders inspire vision, supervise and evaluate teachers, implement curriculum and instructional strategies, and monitor student development and achievement. They create the conditions whereby those working in their schools may accomplish goals with a strong sense of personal efficacy. They motivate, coordinate, and legitimize the work of their teachers and other staff. Leaders also serve as the link between the school and the community including parents, lay leaders, rabbis, and other educators.

The current report presents information about educational leaders in day schools, supplementary schools, and pre-schools in three Jewish communities in North America: Baltimore, Atlanta, and Milwaukee. The purpose of this report is to stimulate discussion and planning for the professional growth and development of educational leaders in Jewish schools. The report considers four main questions:

(1) What are the training experiences and professional growth opportunities for educational leaders?

This section describes the background, training, and professional growth experiences of the educational leaders. The data presented identify components needed to develop comprehensive pre-service and in-service programs.

(2) How are educational leaders recruited to Jewish education and what are their career tracks?

This second section describes the career paths and recruitment modes of educational leaders into Jewish schools. A clearer understanding of the career paths of educational leaders further illuminates the types of professional development experiences they may need in light of past professional endeavors and future career goals. In addition, a description of how educational leaders are recruited into Jewish education addresses questions about how institutions can increase their qualified pool of applicants to leadership positions.

(3) What are the work conditions and sentiments of the educational leaders?

The third section of this report explicates the work conditions of educational leaders in terms of salaries, benefits, and support networks. If we are to build a professional cadre of educational leaders in Jewish schools, and enforce high standards for both pre-service and in-service preparation, it is crucial to examine remuneration issues.

(4) What is the nature of interaction between educational leaders and rabbis, teachers, parents, and lay leaders?

The last section of this report highlights the relationships between the educational leaders and others who play important roles in Jewish education. The extent to which educational leaders feel supported by and linked to community resources has implications for the types of professional development activities that local communities can implement and sustain.

2. The Educational Leaders and Their Schools

Most of the educational leaders (77%) who responded to the survey are principals or directors of their schools. The remaining 23% hold administrative or supervisory positions below the top leadership positions in their school. Thirty-six percent of the educational leaders work in day schools, 43% in supplementary schools, and 21% in pre-schools.

Types of Schools

Thirty-one percent of the educational leaders work in Orthodox schools. Twenty-two percent work in schools affiliated with the Conservative Movement and the same percentage are with schools connected to the Reform Movement. Eleven percent of the respondents are leaders in schools that are designated as community schools, while 7% indicated that their schools are traditional, and 4% reported their schools are located within Jewish Community Centers. The remaining 4% stated that their schools are independent or have no affiliation.

The educational leaders work in schools with a wide range of student enrollments: pre-schools varied from 8 to 250 students, supplementary schools range in size from 42 to approximately 1000 students, and the day schools have student enrollments from 54 to about 1075 students.

Nature of Employment

Almost 83% of the educational leaders are employed in a single Jewish educational setting (either a day, supplementary, or pre-

school). Sixteen percent are employed in two settings, and only 1% in more than two settings. (These figures did not differ much across settings.) Of the 17% who work in more than one Jewish educational setting, two-thirds do so in order to earn a suitable wage. Of this same 17%, the large majority (70%) work only 6 hours or less per week in their second setting.

Seventy-eight percent of the educational leaders indicated that they are employed full-time as Jewish educators. Ninety-six percent of day school educational leaders reported being employed full-time, as did 81% of pre-school educational leaders. In contrast, only 61% of educational leaders working in a supplementary setting work full-time in Jewish education. Of the supplementary school leaders who work part-time, half would rather be working full-time in Jewish education, while the other half prefer their part-time status.

Of those leaders who work in only one setting, 78% are full-time, while 22% are not. (Full-time is defined according to the leaders' self-reports.) The large majority of those who work in more than one setting, 77%, also work full-time in Jewish education.

Demographics

Two-thirds of the educational leaders surveyed are women, including all the pre-school directors, 61% of supplementary school leaders, and 52% of day school administrators. Ninety-five percent of the educational leaders are married, and their median age is 44. The educational leaders are predominantly American-born (88%). Only 7% were born in Israel, and 5% in other countries.

The educational leaders identify with a variety of religious

denominations. Thirty-three percent are Orthodox, and 12% call themselves traditional. Twenty-eight percent identify with the Conservative movement, 26% see themselves as Reform, and the remaining 1% is Reconstructionist. Almost all (97%) belong to a synagogue.

Methods

A survey of educational leaders was conducted in Atlanta, Baltimore, and Milwaukee, the three Lead Communities of the CIJE. During the Fall and Spring of 1993, the survey was administered to all directors of day schools, supplementary schools, and pre-schools, as well as other administrators in these schools below the rank of director, such as vice-principals, directors of Judaic studies, and department heads. A total of 100 surveys were administered, and 77 persons responded. Survey forms were delivered by mail or in person, and the forms were either picked up at the school or returned by mail to the local research administrator.

Although the survey sample is broadly inclusive and highly representative of educational leaders in the three communities, the numbers are small, particularly when respondents are divided by setting (day school, supplementary school, and pre-school). Moreover, the overall response rate of 77% varied by setting: 90% in day schools, 85% in supplementary schools, and 53% in pre-schools. Inferential statistics (e.g., t-values) are not presented because the respondents constitute almost the whole population, but readers should not give great weight to small differences in percentages. Because of the small number of respondents, data from all three communities are combined for all analyses, and data are divided by setting (or in other ways) only when that was essential for understanding the responses.

As additional support for the survey analyses, we include data from in-depth interviews with 58 educational directors from the three communities. The interviews, which concerned educators' backgrounds, training, work conditions, and professional opportunities, were designed and conducted by Roberta Louis Goodman, Claire Rottenberg, and Julie Tammivaara. All quotations in this report come from those interviews.

3. Professional Preparation

This section describes the formal training backgrounds and the professional development activities of the educational leaders in the three communities. What type of early Jewish education did the leaders receive? What are their post-secondary backgrounds in Jewish content? What kinds of professional development activities do they undertake?

Educational leadership poses new and different challenges for educators. These new challenges and job responsibilities require knowledge, skill, and understanding as well as opportunities for reflection and conceptualization in areas such as leadership, planning, decision-making, supervision, change and understanding the larger organizational and social context in which education takes place. However, without a strong knowledge base in Judaica subject matter these skills will be groundless. Educational leaders must be able to articulate goals for Jewish education rooted in Jewish content and inspire a compelling vision to steer their schools.

Pre-Collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds

How were the educational leaders socialized towards Jewish education as children? Table 1 indicates that the large majority of educational leaders had formal Jewish schooling before the age of 13; only 8% of all educational leaders had no Jewish schooling before the age of 13. However, 19% of pre-school educational leaders did not receive any Jewish education before the age of 13. In all settings, more leaders went to supplementary schools than day schools or schools in Israel before age 13.

Table 1. Pre-Collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds of the Educational Leaders

BEFORE AGE 13

SETTING	None	1 Day per Week Only	2 Days or More Days per Week	Day School, School in Israel, or Cheder
Day School	11%	7%	46%	36%
Supplementary School	--	25%	47%	28%
Pre-school	19%	31%	25%	25%
TOTAL	8%	20%	42%	30%

AFTER AGE 13

SETTING	None	1 Day per Week Only	2 Days or More Days per Week	Day School, School in Israel, Yeshiva, or Jewish College
Day School	18%	14%	29%	39%
Supplementary School	19%	28%	22%	31%
Pre-school	33%	27%	13%	27%
TOTAL	21%	23%	23%	33%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

After the age of 13, 21% of the educational leaders had no formal Jewish schooling. As many as 33% of the pre-school educational leaders had no Jewish pre-collegiate schooling after bar-mitzvah age. There is also a small group of day and supplementary school leaders, 18%, who did not have any Jewish education after age 13. Among those who did receive Jewish schooling post bar-mitzvah, most attended at least 2 days per week. But a notable minority of pre-school and supplementary educational leaders attended Sunday school only.

Although a few educational leaders received no formal Jewish education as children, this percentage is much below the national average as reported by Dr. Barry Kosmin and colleagues in the "Highlights of the CJF 1990 National Jewish Population Survey". He reported that 22% of males and 38% of females who identify as Jews received no Jewish education as children; the analogous figures for the educational leaders are just 4% for males and 10% for females when childhood education both before and after age 13 are considered.

Informal education is an important aspect of Jewish socialization experiences. Sixty-seven percent of the educational leaders reported that they attended Jewish summer camp as children, with an average attendance of four summers. Day school leaders attended 5 summers on average, supplementary 3, and pre-school leaders went to Jewish summer camp approximately for 4 summers. Moreover, 86% of the leaders have been to Israel, and 43% of those who have been to Israel have lived there for 3 months or more.

Leaders in all settings were equally likely to indicate they have visited Israel, but pre-school leaders were the least likely to have lived in Israel. Only 23% of pre-school educational leaders have lived in Israel for more than three months as compared to 46% of day and 50% of supplementary school educational leaders.

Collegiate Background and Training

According to one point of view, the highest standards for educational leaders in Jewish schools would include credentials in three areas: general education and pedagogy, subject matter specialty, and administration. This is the model followed in public education. Leaders must have strong subject matter knowledge in a content area. In the case of Jewish education, content areas include Jewish studies, Hebrew, or related fields. In addition, all leaders should have strong backgrounds in pedagogy and education, including a teaching license. Third, educational leaders should have training in administration and supervision. Thus, one definition of professional training for educational leadership positions includes preparation in three distinct areas: 1)general education and pedagogy, 2)Judaic subject matter, and 3)educational administration.

For example, in the State of Georgia, educational leaders must be professionally certified to serve as educational leaders. Professional certificates are obtained by meeting three initial requirements: a Masters degree in Administration and Supervision, three years acceptable experience (i.e., teaching), and a teaching certificate. These requirements are valid for up to five years.

Other states require a masters degree in a content area and then additional graduate coursework in administration and supervision. This is the model followed by the Jewish Theological Seminary and Hebrew Union College-NY, both of which offer principal certification programs.

Training in education. The educational leaders in the three communities are highly educated. Table 2 shows that 97% of all of the leaders have college degrees, and 70% have graduate degrees. Day school educational leaders are the most likely to hold graduate degrees, followed by supplementary school leaders. Almost two-thirds of the leaders (65%) hold university degrees in education. In addition, 61% of all leaders have previous experience in general education settings.

Pre-school educational leaders are less likely to have college degrees than leaders in other settings. Eighty-seven percent of pre-school leaders hold a college degree and only 13% have graduate degrees. Pre-school educational leaders are also more likely to have training from teachers' institutes (mainly one- or two-year programs in Israel or the U.S.) than are educational leaders in other settings.

Training in Judaica. Solid grounding in Jewish content knowledge is essential for leadership in Jewish schools. Most educational leaders are not formally trained in Jewish studies or Jewish education. We define formal training in Jewish studies as either holding a degree in a Jewish subject matter from a college, graduate school, or rabbinic seminary, or having certification in

Table 2. General Education Backgrounds of the Educational Leaders

SETTING	College Degree	Grad/Prof. Degree	Degree in General Education From University	Degree in General Education From Teacher's Institute	Worked in General Educ.
Day School	100%	96%	67%	--	64%
Supplementary School	100%	73%	69%	--	55%
Pre-school	87%	13%	56%	12%	69%
TOTAL	97%	70%	65%	3%	61%

Jewish education. Only 37% of all leaders are certified in Jewish education, and only 36% hold post-secondary degrees in Jewish studies (see Table 3). Although supplementary and day school leaders are the most likely to hold certification and/or degrees in Jewish education, only forty-four percent of day and 48% of supplementary school leaders are certified in Jewish education, and similar numbers hold degrees in Jewish studies. No pre-school educational leaders hold degrees in Jewish studies, and only 12% are certified in Jewish education. A total of 49% of all educational leaders are trained in Jewish studies.

Training in administration. The knowledge base in the field of educational administration should be mastered by those in leadership positions. Educational leaders in Jewish schools have very little formal preparation in the areas of educational administration or supervision (see Table 4). We define formal preparation in administration as either being certified in school administration or holding a degree with a major in administration or supervision. These preparation programs cover such topics as leadership, decision-making, organizational theory, planning, and finance. We have not counted a Masters in Jewish Education as formal preparation in administration, although we consider these Jewish education degrees as training in Judaic content matter and in education. Advanced degrees in Jewish education often include a number of courses in school administration and supervision, and some even have an internship program, but the emphases and intensity are not equivalent to a complete degree with a major in administration or

Table 3. Collegiate and Professional Jewish Studies Backgrounds of the Educational Leaders

SETTING	Certification in Jewish Education	Degree in Jewish Studies	Trained in Jewish Studies*
Day School	43%	48%	52%
Supplementary	44%	41%	66%
Pre-school	12%	- -	12%
TOTAL	37%	36%	49%

*Educational leaders may have both a certification in Jewish education and a degree in Jewish studies.

Table 4. Collegiate and Professional Administration Backgrounds of the Educational Leaders

SETTING	Certification in Administration	Degree in Educational Administration	Trained in Educational Administration*
Day School	36%	19%	41%
Supplementary	19%	9%	19%
Pre-school	19%	--	19%
TOTAL	25%	11%	27%

*Educational leaders may have both a certification in administration and a degree in educational administration.

supervision.

As presented in Table 4, only 25% of all the leaders are certified as school administrators, and only 11% hold degrees in educational administration. Day school educational leaders are the most likely to have formal preparation in educational administration. Forty-one percent of day school leaders, compared to only 19% of supplementary and pre-school educational leaders are trained in educational administration. In total, 27% are trained in educational administration. Of the rest, 35% received some graduate credits in administration without receiving a degree or certification, but we do not know how intensive their studies were.

Preparation for Educational Leadership Positions

To fully explore the background of educational leaders it is important to consider simultaneously training in 1)general education, 2)Judaic subject matter, and 3)educational administration. Looking first at those who are trained in both general education and Judaica, the results indicate that only 35% of the educational leaders have formal training in both education and Judaic studies (see Figure 1). Another 41% are trained in education only, with 14% trained only in Jewish studies. Eleven percent of the educational leaders are not trained: they lack both collegiate or professional degrees in education and Jewish studies.

Forty-eight percent of supplementary school leaders are trained in both education and Jewish studies as compared to 33% of the leaders in day school settings. More extensive formal training among supplementary leaders is most likely due to programs in Jewish

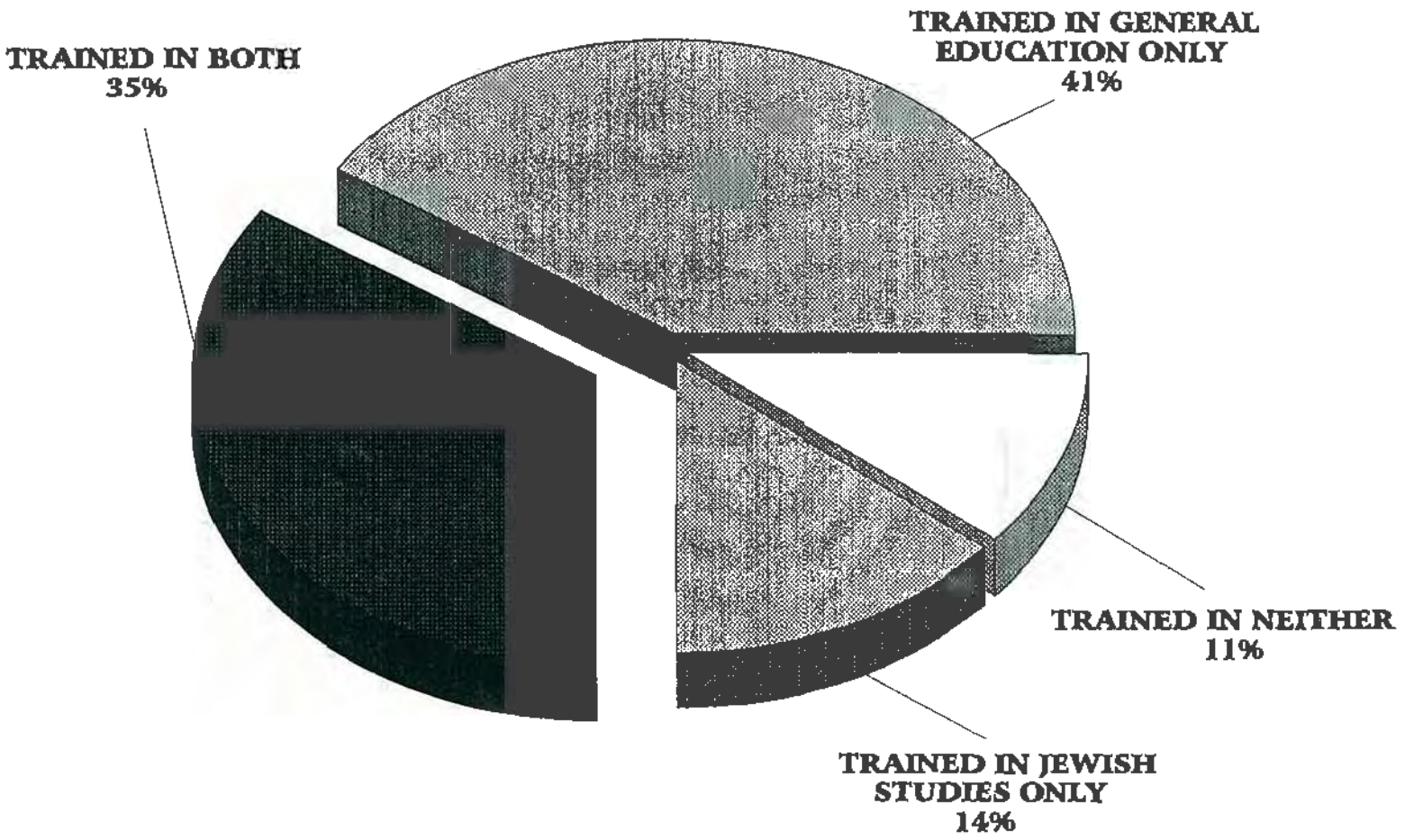

Figure 1: Extent of Professional Training in General Education and Jewish Studies

education offered by some of the institutions of higher learning affiliated with denominational movements.

The pre-school educational leaders have the least amount of training in education and Jewish content (see Table 5). A total of 25% of pre-school educational leaders have neither professional nor collegiate degrees in education or Jewish studies. Even in day schools, where we may expect high levels of formal preparation, only 33% of the educational leaders are trained in both education and Jewish studies.

As explained earlier, training in educational administration is an important complement to formal preparation in education and Judaic content areas. Looking at those who are trained in all three components, the results indicate that only 16% of educational leaders are very well trained, that is, they hold professional or university degrees in education (pedagogy), Jewish studies and educational administration (see Figure 2). An additional 10% are trained in educational administration and either Jewish studies or education, but not all three. Thus, looking at the three components of leadership preparation, a total of 84% are missing one or more parts of their formal preparation for leadership positions.

A qualification to these findings is that they emphasize formal schooling and credentials. Jewish content and leadership skills are not only learned in formal settings. Nonetheless, the complexities of educational leadership in contemporary Jewish settings demand high standards which must include formal preparation in pedagogy, Jewish content areas, and administration.

Table 5. Extent of Professional Training of Educational Leaders in General Education and Jewish Studies

SETTING	*Trained in General Education Only*	Trained in Both	*Trained in Jewish Studies Only*	Trained in Neither
Day School	41%	33%	19%	7%
Supplementary School	29%	48%	16%	6%
Pre-school	62%	12%	- -	25%
TOTAL	41%	35%	14%	11%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

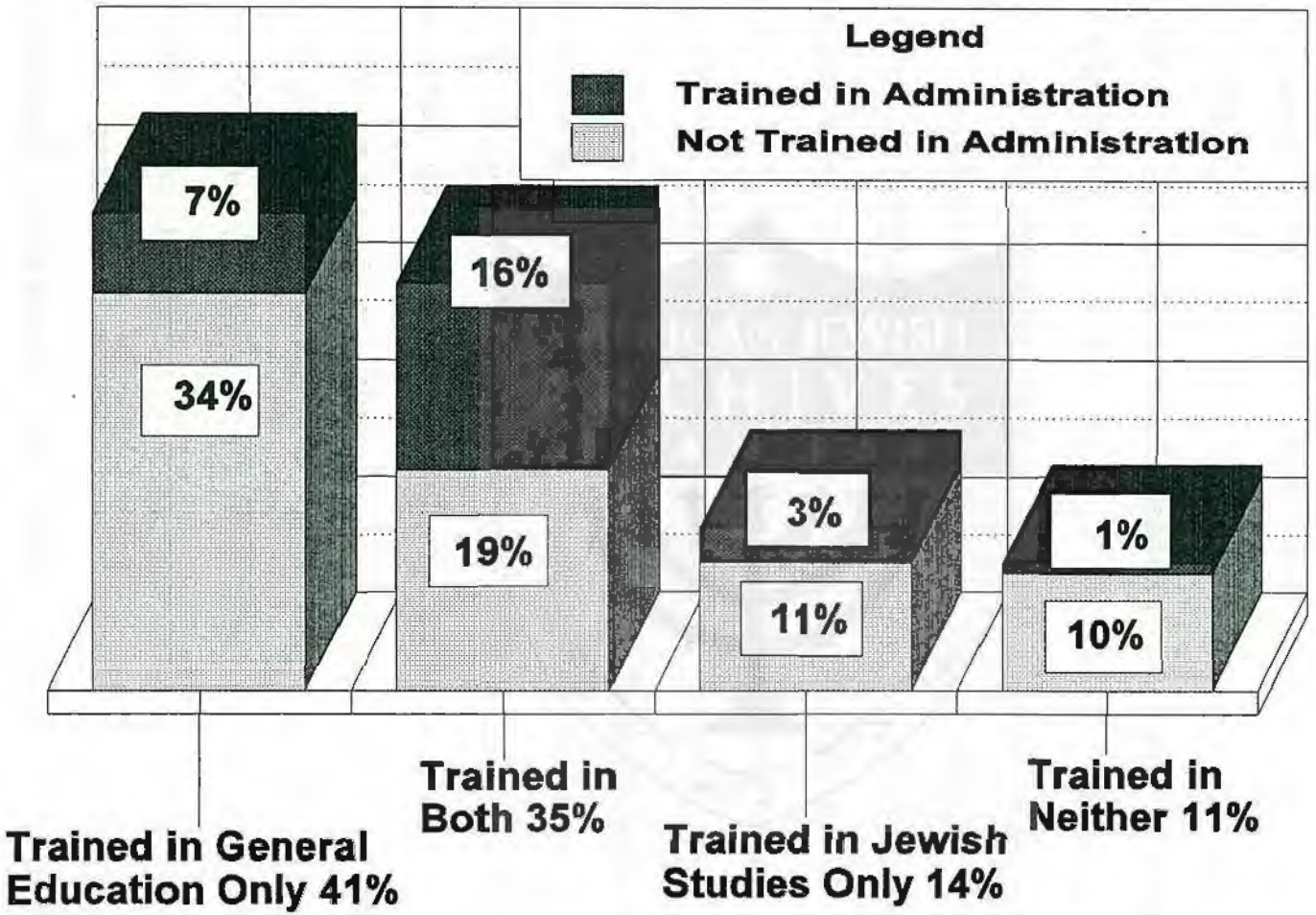

Figure 2: Extent of Professional Training in General Education, Jewish Studies, and Administration

Professional Growth

What sort of professional growth activities do the educational leaders undertake? Given that almost all consider Jewish education to be their career, we might expect substantial efforts in this area. In addition, one might think that limited background in Judaic content matter and shortages of formal training in administration would make ongoing study and professional development a high priority for educational leaders. In addition, we may consider whether educational leaders tend to desire professional development in areas in which they have less extensive backgrounds.

In public education, where standards of certification are already required to enter the field of educational leadership, many states also require educational leaders to participate in continuous professional development. For example, in the State of Georgia, a principal must upgrade the initial certification within five years by obtaining an Education Specialist credential in Administration and Supervision (which is equivalent to doctoral study without the dissertation). Leaders entering their positions with doctorate degrees already in hand must still upgrade their credentials within five years by pursing an additional 30 quarter hours of graduate credit in the field of administration and supervision. In addition, other mechanisms are in place for certified educational leaders to upgrade their state certification such as participating in Self Development Units. To remain certified, educational leaders must participate in 10 Self Development Units (SDU) over a five-year period if they are not pursuing additional graduate level

coursework. One SDU is equivalent to 10 hours of workshops, so that administrators in Georgia must attend about 100 hours of workshops over a five-year period to remain certified.

The survey results show few signs of extensive professional development among the educational leaders in the three communities we surveyed. The educational leaders reported attending few in-service workshops: on average, they attended 5.1 over a two year period. As shown in Figure 3, supplementary and pre-school administrators attended more workshops than did the day school leaders. If we assume a workshop lasts 3 hours on average, 5 workshops over a two year period comes to approximately 37.5 hours of workshops over 5 years, far short of the 100 hours required by the State of Georgia.

Besides workshops, about one-third of the respondents said they attended a class in Judaica or Hebrew at a university, synagogue, or community center during the past year. Notably, three-quarters reported participating in some form of informal study, such as a study group or reading on their own.

Other opportunities for professional growth include participation in national conferences, and organizations. Some educational directors belong to national organizations and attend their annual meetings, such as Jewish Educators Assembly (Conservative), Torah U'Mesorah (Orthodox), and National Association of Temple Educators (Reform). Other educational leaders are members of general education professional organizations such as Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) and The National

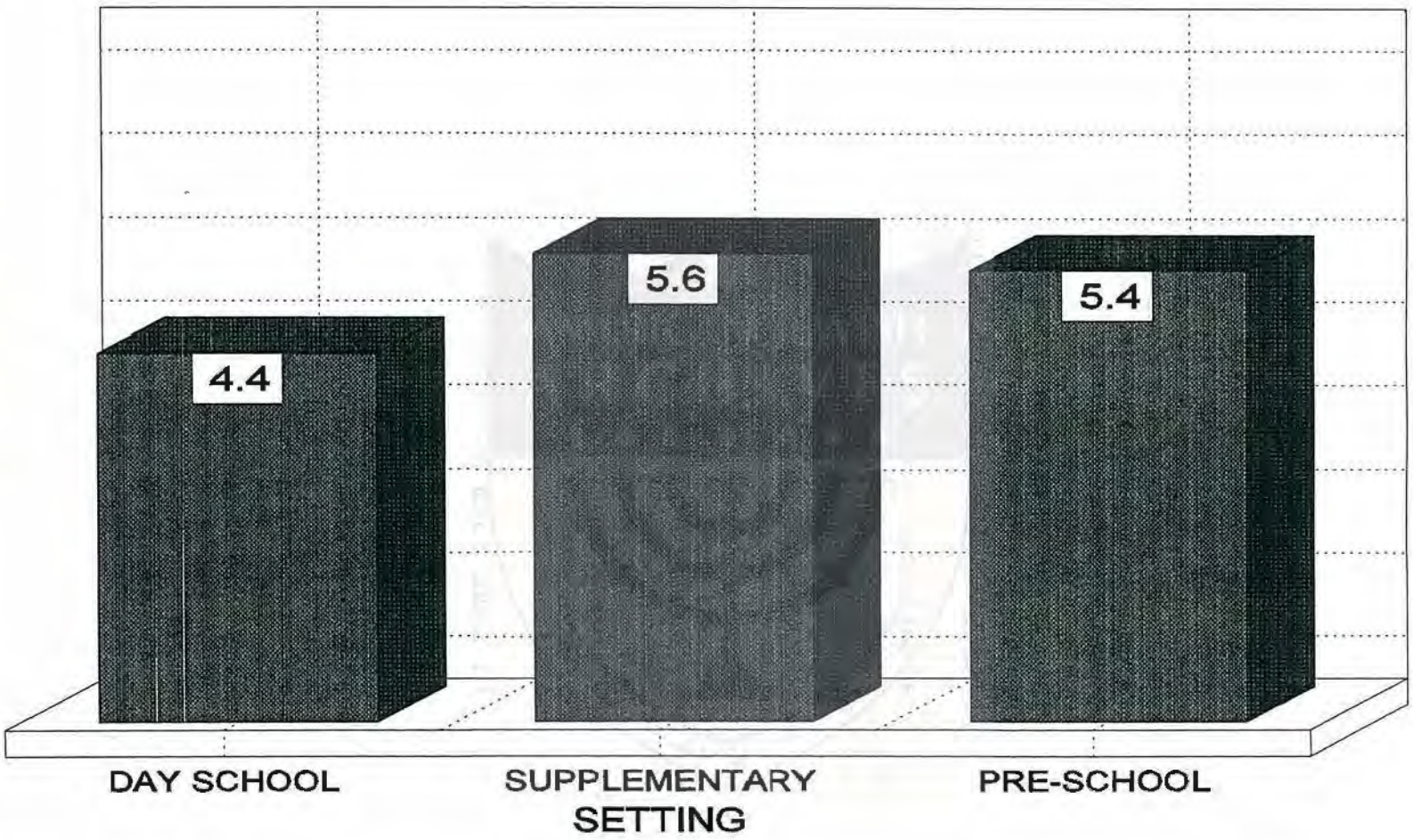

Figure 3: Average Number of Workshops
Taken Over a Two Year Period

Association for Education of Young Children (NAEYC). These national professional organizations provide the leaders with avenues of staying abreast of changes in the field of education through journals, newsletters, and curricula.

An additional type of professional growth is achieved through informal and formal networking with other educational leaders in the same community. Some leaders participate in their local principal's organization as a mechanism to share ideas, network, learn about resources, and brainstorm. However, even with these organizations, some educational leaders reported infrequent help and support from their colleagues within their communities. Supplementary school educational leaders indicated the highest level of collegial support and pre-school leaders reported the lowest. As one supplementary school director commented about the Synagogue Educational Directors Council,

> "..there's a study period and a professional section to the meeting where we'll sit and discuss ideas. We wind up sharing ideas that have proven successful to ourselves in our particular schools. And so we learn a lot from each other."

Although they attend few in-service workshops, many respondents generally think their opportunities for professional growth are adequate. Over two-thirds (68%) said that opportunities for their professional growth are adequate or very adequate, including 74% of day school administrators, 59% of supplementary school leaders, and 75% of pre-school directors.

Some educational leaders are less satisfied with their professional growth opportunities. They specifically expressed a

desire for an evaluation process that would help them grow as professionals and provide them with constructive feedback. For example, two pre-school education directors each stated that they would like a peer, someone in the field, to comment on their work. In describing this person and elaborating on their role, one director said, "They would be in many ways superiors to myself who have been in the field, who understand totally what our goals are and who can help us grow." Another educational director stated similar desires:

> "I'd like to be able to tell people what I consider are strengths and weaknesses. I'd like to hear from them whether I'm growing in the areas that I consider myself weak in. And I'd like to hear what areas they consider that there should be growth."

Table 6 shows that respondents would like to improve their skills in a variety of areas, most notably in curriculum development (74%) and staff development (70%). Just 61% desire improved skills in school management, but this mainly reflects stronger desires among those without formal training in administration to improve in this area. Those who are not formally trained in administration were also more likely than others to desire improved leadership skills (see Table 6).

The educational leaders also wish to improve their knowledge in a variety of content areas. Table 7 indicates that Hebrew language (59%) is the most sought-after area. This is not surprising since overall, about 45% of respondents reported limited or no proficiency in spoken Hebrew, 39% have limited or no proficiency in written Hebrew, and 24% cannot read Hebrew! Table 7 shows that aside from

Table 6. Percentage of Educational Leaders Desiring to Improve Their Skills

AREA	Trained in Administration	Not Trained in Administration	TOTAL
Curriculum Development	75%	74%	74%
Staff Development	70%	70%	70%
School Management	35%	70%	61%
Working with Parents	30%	57%	50%
Strategic Planning	55%	48%	50%
Leadership	40%	52%	49%
Communication Skills	30%	44%	41%
Child/Adult Development	30%	43%	39%

Table 7. Percentage of Educational Leaders Desiring to Increase Their Knowledge

AREA	Trained in Jewish Studies	Not Trained in Jewish Studies	TOTAL
Hebrew Language	46%	71%	59%
Jewish History	32%	68%	51%
Bible	32%	68%	51%
Rabbinic Literature	62%	34%	48%
Synagogue Skills/Prayer	24%	45%	35%
Customs and Ceremonies	16%	50%	33%
Israel and Zionism	19%	42%	31%

the area of Rabbinic literature, those who lack formal training in Jewish studies express greater desire to improve their knowledge of Judaica.

Figure 4 illustrates differences by setting in the topics the leaders wish to study, among those leaders not trained in Jewish studies. For example, pre-school educational leaders are most interested in learning more about customs and ceremonies and Jewish history, while day and supplementary school administrators wish to increase their knowledge in Jewish History and Bible.

Implications

The educational leaders have solid backgrounds in general education, but very few are well trained overall. Most educational leaders have inadequate backgrounds in Judaic content areas. There is also a lack of preparation in the area of educational administration. Supplementary school educational leaders are better prepared than their counterparts in other settings while pre-school educational directors have the greatest need for further training. The pre-school educational leaders are notably weak in the area of Jewish studies.

Educational leaders do not participate in widespread pre-service training for leadership positions in Jewish education. These leaders are entering Jewish education as teachers, but unlike their counterparts in general education who return to school to obtain credentials in educational administration before becoming educational leaders, most educational leaders in Jewish schools are not pursuing this avenue.

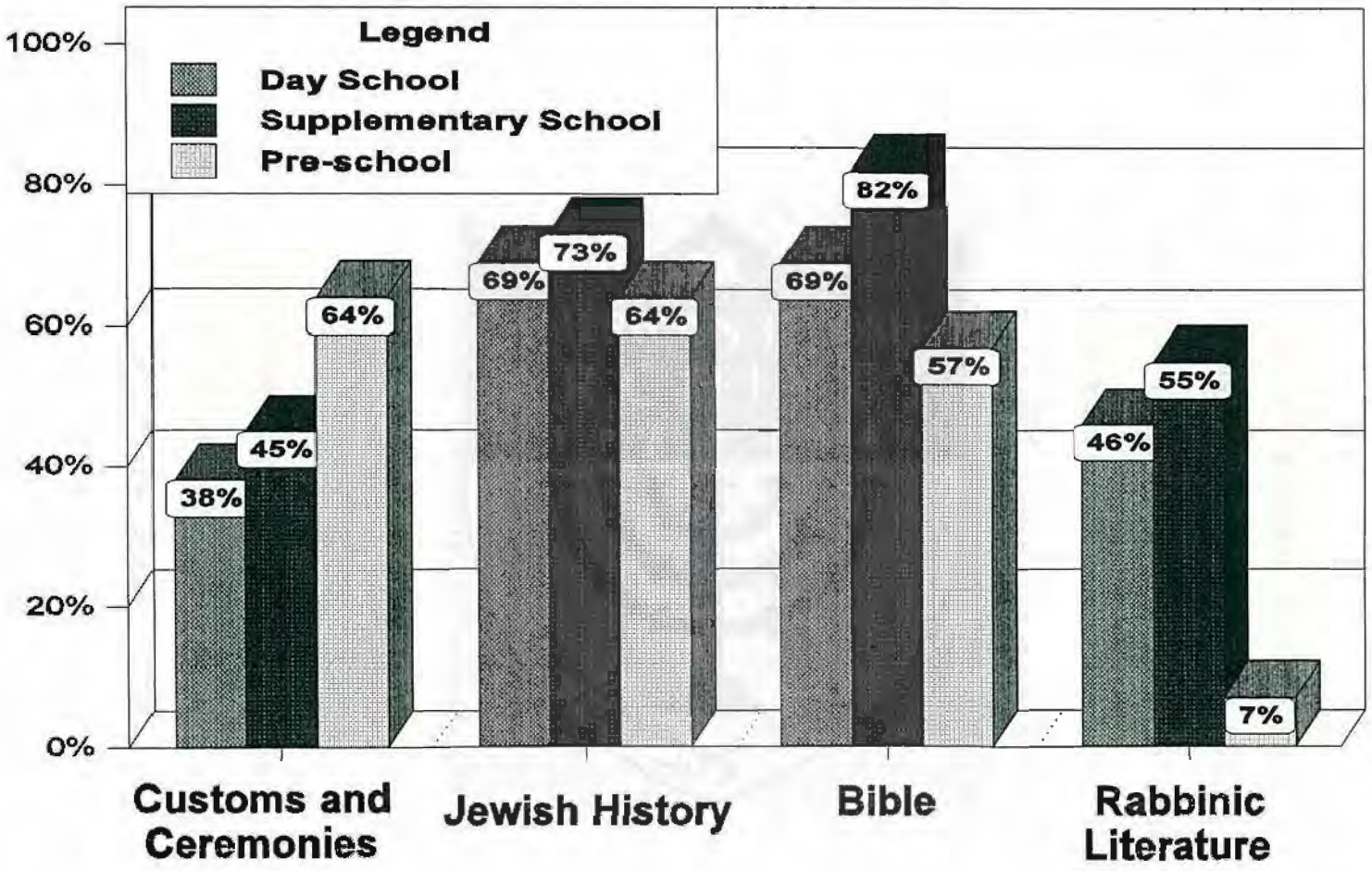

Figure 4: Percentage of Educational Leaders Not Trained in Jewish Studies who Desire Increased Knowledge

Despite the limited formal training of many educational leaders in Jewish schools, they do not participate in widespread professional growth activities, even though the majority of educational leaders work full-time, in one school, and are committed to a career in Jewish education. Their level of participation in workshops is far below standards required of most educational leaders in public schools. Many of the educational leaders reported that opportunities for professional development are adequate. Yet, they do not participate very frequently in activities in local universities, national organizations, and other programs offered both in and outside of their communities. Furthermore, although many reported that they receive financial support for professional growth activities, 31% of those who are offered financial support for professional development choose not to avail themselves of the money. This is primarily the case for educational leaders who work in Orthodox school settings.

These findings indicate that a great challenge awaits the field of Jewish education. This challenge includes increasing participation in pre-service and in-service programs in both Judaic content and educational administration. To accomplish this goal, it will be necessary to raise the awareness of educational leaders about the importance in participating in ongoing, systematic professional development activities.

The educational leaders did mention specific topics where they would like to improve their knowledge and skills, such as Hebrew and supervision. They would also like to be able to benefit from senior

colleagues who could observe them at work to help develop a shared professional community that could provide a framework for continued renewal and feedback.

It is clear that training and professional growth go beyond the obvious notion that principals should be knowledgeable in the content that their teachers are teaching. They must be leaders and role models for teachers and students alike articulating clear, compelling visions and goals for Jewish education grounded in strong Judaic content matter. Although the data were presented in regard to separate training components, it is important to point out that we are not advocating merely a bifurcated program of leadership development: skills that are general to all leaders (decision making, planning) and then separate courses in Judaica (text, Hebrew). These two need to be explicitly linked both in the minds of leaders and also in the training and development experiences we provide. Often, BJEs offer in-service workshops in one or the other as isolated events. Where do Judaic content and administration intersect? Often participants are left to make connections on their own. A challenge is to offer various kinds of training and professional growth experiences that can enhance this type of integration so that clearly articulated goals grounded in Jewish content can be implemented in schools.

4. Careers in Jewish Education: Recruitment and Experience

Why do educational leaders enter the field of Jewish education? What are their past professional experiences and future commitments

to the field? Most educational leaders do not enter the field of Jewish education specifically to pursue a career in leadership, administration, or supervision. As in public schools, educational leaders first enter the field of Jewish education as teachers. Therefore, the educational leaders have a wealth of experience in the field of Jewish education as teachers, but not as leaders. Consequently, as educators move from teaching to leadership positions, specific preparation programs, both pre-service and in-service, must be in place. Understanding the reasons that led the educational leaders into the field of education and exploring their career paths and prior work experiences are crucial for assessing the types of professional development activities that will assist them in their schools.

Entering Jewish Education

Educational leaders in the three communities enter the field of Jewish education for a variety of reasons, mostly related to teaching. Those factors which are intrinsic to the practice of Jewish education (e.g., working with children, teaching about Judaism) are more important than extrinsic factors (e.g., salary, career advancement). As Table 8 indicates, working with children (83%), teaching about Judaism (75%), and serving the Jewish community (62%), were rated as very important motivating factors by the highest percentage of educational leaders. As one educational director commented,

> "I have a commitment. I entered Jewish education because I felt that I wanted to develop [the children's] souls. My number one priority is to develop their love for who they are

Table 8. Reasons Educational Leaders Enter Jewish Education

REASON	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Somewhat Unimportant	Very Unimportant
Working with Children	83%	17%	- -	- -
Teaching about Judaism	75%	21%	3%	1%
Serving the Jewish Community	62%	32%	1%	4%
Learning More About Judaism	49%	37%	9%	5%
Working with Teachers	43%	42%	9%	6%
Full-time Nature of the Profession	25%	36%	20%	20%
Opportunities for Career Advancement	18%	34%	25%	24%
Status of the Profession	9%	25%	33%	33%
Level of Income	7%	35%	35%	24%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Jewishly."

Another educational leader explained that he was attracted to,

> "the idea of working, seeing children develop and grow. It's something special to be at a wedding of a child that you entered into kindergarten. It does have a special meaning to know you've played a role or to have students come to you years later, share with you that they remember your class, the role you played in their lives."

Those factors which are extrinsic to the actual process of teaching but nevertheless have strong intrinsic value, such as working with teachers (43%) and learning more about Judaism (49%), were considered by almost half of the educational leaders as very important motivating factors for entering Jewish education.

In contrast, extrinsic factors were rarely considered as important. Only 25% of the educational leaders said the full-time nature of the profession was a very important reason for entering the field. Similarly, opportunities for career advancement was rated as very important by 18%, while 49% of the educational leaders considered it to be unimportant. The level of income was considered by only 7% of educational leaders to be a very important reason for entering Jewish education and by 59% as unimportant. Finally, the status of the profession was rated as very important by only 9%, while 66% of the educational leaders considered it to be unimportant.

Types of Educational Experience

As Table 9 illustrates, the educational leaders of the three communities show considerable diversity of experience in their educational careers. All the respondents have previous experience

Table 9. Diversity of Experience of Educational Leaders

PRIOR EXPERIENCE	CURRENT SETTING Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
General Education	64%	55%	69%	61%
Day School Teacher	68%	30%	12%	40%
Supplementary School Teacher	61%	79%	31%	62%
Pre-School Teacher	4%	12%	81%	23%
Camps	54%	39%	31%	43%
Adult Education	43%	52%	12%	40%
Youth Groups	25%	45%	12%	31%
Jewish Community Center	14%	27%	12%	19%

in formal or informal education before assuming their current positions, and there is considerable movement among settings. Sixty-one percent of them have worked in general education. Eighty-seven percent have taught in a Jewish day, supplementary, and/or pre-school and more than half (52%) have worked in a Jewish camp or youth group. The large majority of educational leaders (83%) have had experience as teachers or administrators in a school setting (i.e., day, supplementary, or pre-school) other than the one in which they are currently employed. However, there are important differences among educational leaders from the different settings.

Among day school educational leaders, 68% have taught in a day school prior to assuming their current administrative position. Sixty-one percent of day school educational leaders have taught in a supplementary setting, while only 4% have taught in a pre-school.

Among supplementary educational leaders, 79% have taught in a supplementary school before assuming their current position. Whereas almost two-thirds of day school leaders have taught in supplementary schools, only 30% of supplementary school leaders have taught in day schools. Few supplementary school leaders have taught in a pre-school.

Among pre-school educational leaders, 81% have taught in a pre-school prior to assuming their current position. Thirty-one percent of pre-school educational leaders have taught in supplementary settings. Only 12% have taught in day schools.

Compared to their colleagues currently working in day and supplementary settings, pre-school educational leaders have

relatively separate career paths. Among pre-school leaders, 44% have had experience as teachers or administrators only in a pre-school setting during their career in Jewish education, while this can be said of only 11% of day school leaders and 9% of supplementary school leaders. Moreover, while 61% of day school educational leaders have taught in a supplementary setting and 30% of supplementary school educational leaders have taught in a day school, only 4% and 12% (respectively) have taught in pre-schools.

Recent Recruitment

Most educators have moved from (at least) one city to another during their career in Jewish education. Thirty-six percent of educational leaders have spent all their years in Jewish education in the current community, including 56% of pre-school leaders, 36% of day school leaders, and 27% of supplementary school leaders. When asked if they had moved to the community in order to take their current position, 38% percent of day school and 28% of supplementary school educational leaders said yes. In contrast, none of the pre-school educational directors had moved to the community in order to take their current position. This may be the case because pre-schools are not recruiting outside their local communities. Furthermore, women are more likely than men to have always worked in their current community and over 90% of the women did not move to the community to take their current position.

As shown in Table 10, the majority of educational leaders (63%) found their current positions through recruitment efforts by individual schools. Nineteen percent of all educational leaders

Table 10. How Educational Leaders Found Their Current Positions

MEANS	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Recruitment Efforts by Schools	52%	68%	69%	63%
Friend or Mentor	30%	13%	12%	19%
Recruitment Efforts by Institutions Other than Schools (i.e., central agencies, graduate schools, etc.)	17%	19%	--	14%
Other (e.g., being a parent of a child in the school)	--	--	19%	4%

Note: Columns may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

found their current job through personal contacts with a friend or mentor. Only 14% found it through recruitment efforts by other institutions beyond the school (i.e., central agency, graduate school placement, national professional association). Even among those who moved to a new community to take their current position, only 43% found their position through institutions other than the school. These recruitment patterns are similar across all denominational affiliations. The remaining 4% (all employed in pre-schools) found their positions through other means, such as by being a parent of a child in the school. None of the pre-school educational leaders found a position through recruitment efforts by institutions other than the school.

As with their initial decision to enter the field of Jewish education, the large majority of educational leaders did not value the extrinsic, material aspects of their job as very important factors in making their decisions to work in the school in which they are currently employed. As indicated in Table 11, opportunity for career advancement was considered a very important factor by only 27% of educational leaders. Also, the hours available for work (25%), salary (21%), and their spouse's work (14%) were rated by comparably few educational leaders as very important considerations in choosing their current place of employment. Instead, the religious affiliation of the school (62%) and the community in which the school was located (53%) were rated as very important considerations by the highest percentage of educational leaders.

Among educational leaders who work in schools affiliated with

Table 11. Reasons Educational Leaders Chose to Work in their Current Schools

REASON	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Somewhat Unimportant	Very Unimportant
Religious Affiliation	62%	22%	12%	4%
Community	53%	35%	7%	5%
Reputation of the School	42%	36%	12%	9%
Rabbi or Supervisor	37%	29%	12%	22%
Opportunities for Career Advancement	27%	42%	21%	10%
Hours Available for Work	25%	27%	27%	21%
Salary	21%	44%	19%	16%
Spouse's Work	14%	13%	14%	59%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

a religious movement (i.e., Orthodox, Traditional, Conservative, Reform), almost all the educational leaders have a personal affiliation that is either the same or more observant than the affiliation of the school where they work. For instance, 81% of educational leaders who work in schools identified with the Conservative movement, personally identify themselves as Conservative. The remaining 19% identify themselves as traditional. Sixty-four percent of supplementary school educational leaders work in the synagogue to which they belong.

Only 36% of those working in day and in supplementary schools rate the reputation of the school as a very important reason for taking a particular position. In contrast, 62% of pre-school leaders said this was a very important consideration. The rabbi or supervisor was rated by 45% of supplementary school educational leaders as a very important consideration in choosing a school, by 31% of day school educational leaders, and by 29% of those that work in pre-schools.

Religious affiliation and geographic mobility may create career track constraints for educational leaders. The interviews suggest that some educational leaders, especially women, are constrained in their choices of positions because they are not geographically mobile. In addition, most educational leaders are committed to an institutional ideology or affiliation. Therefore, they cannot easily move from one institution to another.

Length of Experience in Jewish Education

In addition to the diversity of their careers, most of the

educational leaders of the three communities have worked in the field of Jewish education for a considerable length of time. As Table 12 indicates, 78% of the educational leaders have been working in Jewish education for more than 10 years. Thirty percent have been employed in Jewish education for over 20 years, while only 9% have 5 years experience or less. Thus, for example, one educational director began his career in Jewish education by tutoring Hebrew at the age of 14. From tutoring, he moved on to teaching in a congregational school while in college. A rabbi suggested that he pursue a seminary degree, which he did. Upon graduation he spent 14 years as educational director of various supplementary schools. Now he directs a day school.

While they have considerable tenure in the field of Jewish education, the educational leaders are comparatively new to their current communities. Forty-five percent of the educational leaders have worked in their current communities for over 10 years, while 30% have worked in their current communities for 5 years or less. Pre-school educational leaders have worked in their communities the longest, with only 6% having worked in the community for 5 years or less.

After moving to their current communities, the majority of educational leaders (54%) have remained in the same setting. Nevertheless, due in part to moves from one community to another, most of them (53%) have only worked in their current setting for 5 years or less. Thirty-two percent have worked for over 10 years and only 7% of the educational leaders have worked for over 20 years in

Table 12. Stability and Continuity of Teachers

TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN JEWISH EDUCATION

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
1 year or less	--	--	--	--
2 to 5 years	4%	15%	6%	9%
6 to 10 years	7%	12%	25%	13%
11 to 20 years	57%	39%	50%	48%
More than 20 years	32%	33%	19%	30%

TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN THEIR CURRENT COMMUNITY

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
1 year or less	4%	--	--	1%
2 to 5 years	32%	36%	6%	29%
6 to 10 years	11%	24%	50%	25%
11 to 20 years	39%	27%	25%	31%
More than 20 years	14%	12%	19%	14%

TOTAL YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN THEIR PRESENT SETTING

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
1 year or less	4%	9%	--	5%
2 to 5 years	39%	56%	44%	47%
6 to 10 years	14%	16%	19%	16%
11 to 20 years	36%	16%	25%	25%
More than 20 years	7%	3%	12%	7%

Note: Columns may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

their current setting. Day school educational leaders show the highest degree of stability in their current settings with 43% having worked in the same setting for 5 years or less and 43% having worked for over 10 years. Pre-school educational directors show a similar degree of stability with 44% having worked 5 years or less and 38% having worked for over 10 years in the same setting. Only within the supplementary setting has the majority of educational leaders (66%) worked in their current settings for 5 years or less. Only 19% of supplementary school educational leaders have worked in their current settings for over 10 years.

Future Plans

While most of the educational leaders have spent 5 years or less in their current setting, given their future plans their institutional tenure is likely to rise over time. As illustrated in Table 13, the large majority of educational leaders (78%) plan to remain as administrators or supervisors in the same school in which they are currently employed. A slightly higher percentage of day school educational leaders (86%) desire to remain in their current schools, as compared to supplementary (73%) and pre-school (75%) educational leaders. In total, only 6% plan to become educational leaders in a different school, none of the educational leaders want to work in any other type of Jewish educational institution (such as a central agency), and only one percent plans to leave the field of Jewish education. Nine percent of education leaders are unsure about their future plans. The remaining 5% plan to pursue avenues such as returning to teaching and retirement.

Table 13. Future Plans of the Educational Leaders

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Continue as an Administrator in the Same School	86%	73%	75%	78%
Administrative Position in a Different Jewish School	4%	9%	6%	6%
Work in an Educational Institution Other than a School (i.e., central agency)	--	--	--	--
Seek a Position Outside of Jewish Education	--	3%	--	1%
Other (e.g., retirement, go back to school)	4%	3%	12%	5%
Undecided	7%	12%	6%	9%

Note: Columns may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Implications

The educational leaders in the three communities were attracted to Jewish education first and foremost as teachers. They are extremely committed to a continuous career in Jewish education as evidenced by their overall long tenure in the field of Jewish education, diversity of past experiences in both formal and informal Jewish education settings, and their future plans to remain in their current positions. Given their future plans, and the fact that 95% of the educational leaders consider Jewish education to be their career, professional growth and preparation programs for educational leaders will most likely make a beneficial contribution to their ongoing effectiveness as leaders.

Most of the educational leaders have extensive experience in the field of Jewish education but not as leaders. They have moved from one setting to another and from one community to another during their careers. These findings suggest four possible implications.

First, the educational leaders have been socialized into Jewish education over a long number of years. They have widespread experiences in teaching and learning. Without new professional growth, it may be difficult for leaders to revise impressions, ideas and orientations that they acquired as teachers to gain new skills and knowledge that are needed as leaders. Furthermore, since most educational leaders are in the system for longer than they are in their current positions, questions about the turnover of incumbents in these positions should be explored.

Second, most educational leaders are recruited into their

positions by local schools. The data suggest that some day and supplementary schools are doing national searches for educational leaders which may provide a larger pool of applicants for job openings. This may help schools to be more selective in their hiring practices. However, this is not the case for pre-schools. Pre-schools are recruiting from the local community. Perhaps because of lower salaries or lower status, there does not seem to be a national market for recruiting educational leaders for pre-schools when compared to day and supplementary schools.

Third, there is a mix of both novice and experienced educational leaders in all settings and across settings. In addition, many educational leaders have past experience in varied settings. In particular, day school and supplementary school educators often have experience in one another's settings. (In contrast, pre-school leaders have more separate career paths.) If high standards are put into place for both pre-service and in-service training, this mix may provide opportunities for professional development at the communal level. For example, educational leaders across settings can meet together because many have had past experience in other settings. Furthermore, with higher standards in place, peer mentoring can be developed whereby more experienced leaders mentor and coach novice leaders. A fourth point is that since educational experiences and factors that motivated the leaders to enter Jewish education are closely related to teaching (e.g., working with children), perhaps more emphasis is needed on training, internships, and professional development in

areas directly related to leadership. Professional development is extremely important for educational leaders, especially since most of the educational leaders desire to remain in their present positions and come to their positions with limited training and background.

5. Conditions and Sentiments about Work

What are the conditions of employment for the educational leaders? Do they receive adequate health and other benefits? How satisfied are they with salaries, benefits, and other conditions of work? These questions are important as they suggest implications for possible levers by which to enhance the willingness of educational leaders to engage and involve themselves in their work, including continual professional growth activities.

Earnings

As Table 14 indicates, despite the predominantly full-time nature of the work, one-third of the educational leaders earn less than $30,000 per year. Another 37% earn between $30,000 and $59,999, and 30% earn $60,000 or more per year.

Earnings among day school educational leaders are considerably higher than those for their colleagues in the other two settings. Among those employed in day schools, only 7% earn less than $30,000 per year, while 58% earn $60,000 or more per year. Forty-seven percent of supplementary school educational leaders earn less than $30,000 per year, and only 20% earn $60,000 or more. Among pre-school educational leaders, 50% earn less than $30,000, and none of

Table 14. Educational Leaders' Earnings from Jewish Education

	Less than $30,000	$30,000 to $59,000	$60,000 or More
Day School	7%	35%	58%
Supplementary	47%	33%	20%
Pre-School	50%	50%	--
TOTAL	33%	37%	30%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

them reported earning $60,000 or more per year.

When only those who work full-time are considered, earnings from day schools are still highest, although the contrasts are not quite as great. Only 4% of full-time day school leaders earn less than $30,000, while 62% earn over $60,000. In contrast, 20% of full-time supplementary leaders still earn less than $30,000 and only 30% earn more than $60,000. None of the full-time pre-school leaders reported earning over $60,000 and 36% earn less than $30,000.

For the majority of educational leaders, the salary they earn from Jewish education accounts for more than half their family income. For day school educational leaders, roughly 85% obtain half or more of their family income from their work in Jewish education. Among those who work in supplementary schools, about half have family incomes based mostly on their earnings from Jewish education. For pre-school educational leaders, roughly one-quarter earn the majority of their family income from their employment in Jewish education. (The pattern of findings is the same when only those who work full-time are considered.)

As shown in Table 15, only 9% of all educational leaders reported that they are very satisfied with their salaries. Fifty-five percent indicated being somewhat satisfied, while 36% percent reported being either somewhat or very dissatisfied. The day school educational leaders indicated the most satisfaction, with 14% being very satisfied and 54% being somewhat satisfied. Only 4% of day school educational leaders reported being very dissatisfied. Among

Table 15. Educational Leaders' Satisfaction with Their Salaries

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Day School	14%	54%	29%	4%
Supplementary	3%	61%	15%	21%
Pre-School	12%	44%	25%	19%
TOTAL	9%	55%	22%	14%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

those working in supplementary schools, only 3% reported being very satisfied while 21% indicated that they are very dissatisfied. Pre-school educational leaders displayed the widest distribution with 12% being very satisfied and 19% being very dissatisfied. However, almost half (44%) of pre-school educational leaders indicated being either somewhat or very dissatisfied. It should be noted that although some educational leaders express dissatisfaction with their salary, this was not an important consideration to them when they entered the field of Jewish education.

Benefits

As Table 16 indicates, fringe benefits differ widely by setting. Many educational leaders do not receive substantial benefits packages if one takes into account the fact that most work full-time in their positions. Day school educational leaders seem to receive the most benefits. Seventy-nine percent of day school educational leaders are offered health benefits and 71% pensions, while only 18% have the benefit of synagogue privileges (such as High Holiday tickets). Only 48% of supplementary educational leaders are offered health benefits and 42% pensions, while 58% are offered synagogue privileges. Among supplementary leaders who work full-time, however, the figures for health and pension benefit availability (75% and 65%, respectively), are more comparable to those found in day schools. This contrasts with the situation in pre-schools, where although 81% work full-time, only 44% are offered health benefits, 38% pensions, and 25% synagogue privileges. Finally, 86% of day school, 76% of supplementary school, and 81% of

Table 16. Availability of Fringe Benefits for Educational Leaders: Percentage of Educational Leaders who are Offered Various Fringe Benefits

BENEFITS	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Financial Support for Professional Development	86%	76%	81%	81%
Free Tuition for Child	89%	58%	88%	75%
Free or Reduced Membership	64%	79%	44%	66%
Health	79%	48%	44%	58%
Pension	71%	42%	38%	52%
Synagogue Privileges	18%	58%	25%	36%
Free Tuition for Adult	11%	24%	31%	21%
Day Care	7%	15%	31%	16%
Sabbatical Leave	7%	3%	--	4%

pre-school educational leaders are offered some financial support for professional development.

While benefits may be offered, not every educational leader chooses to accept each type of benefit. They may receive a better benefit package from their spouse's employment or the quality of the benefit may not make it worthwhile. For instance, 47% of the educational leaders who are offered health benefits elect not to receive them. Thirty-one percent of those who are offered financial support for professional development choose not to avail themselves of the money (mostly in Orthodox schools). Twenty-one percent of the educational leaders who are offered synagogue privileges do not accept the offer, and 15% of those who are offered pensions choose not to accept them.

As shown in Table 17, only 20% of the educational leaders reported being very satisfied with their benefits. Twenty-three percent indicated that they are somewhat satisfied. The majority of the educational leaders (57%) reported that they are either very or somewhat dissatisfied with their benefits. The numbers across settings range from 59% of supplementary school educational leaders who are dissatisfied to 54% of pre-school educational leaders. Among those employed in day schools, 57% indicated being either very or somewhat dissatisfied. The level of satisfaction with benefits expressed by the educational leaders is dependent primarily upon the availability of two types of benefits: synagogue privileges and pensions. That is, educational leaders would be more satisfied with their benefits package if they were offered synagogue privileges and

Table 17. Educational Leaders' Satisfaction with Their Benefits

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Day School	25%	18%	32%	25%
Supplementary	19%	22%	40%	19%
Pre-School	13%	33%	27%	27%
TOTAL	20%	23%	35%	23%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

pensions. For those educational leaders working in a supplementary setting, health care and financial support for professional development are also important determinants of their level of satisfaction with their benefits packages.[1]

Sentiments about Other Work Conditions

Compared to their expressed dissatisfaction with benefits and salary, the educational leaders indicated relative satisfaction with the other conditions of their work. Twenty-six percent of the educational leaders were dissatisfied with the resources available, while 25% were very satisfied. Though 36% percent expressed dissatisfaction with the physical setting and facilities, 25% indicated that they were very satisfied. When educational leaders were dissatisfied with resources it often pertained to issues facing them in relation to their staff. In interviews, several education directors spoke of wanting to provide benefits for staff such as pension or health care. Others spoke of not being able to find staff with sufficient Judaic and Hebrew knowledge who also had educational credentials. A few education directors commented about not having enough support staff, while others mentioned inadequate resources for professional development of teachers.

Some educational leaders feel they do not receive sufficient recognition and appreciation from the community. As one leader mentioned,

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[1] Educational leaders were asked how satisfied they are with their overall benefits package. They also were asked to indicate which types of benefits are available to them. A regression analysis was done to ascertain whether the availability of various benefits account for differences in the leaders' reported levels of satisfaction.

> "That's something I don't think educators get enough of, strokes. I think we get challenged a lot... They do not stroke the professionals... So recognition is an area that is very low. It's an area that needs to be worked on."

Educational leaders were not uniformly satisfied with the amount of time they spend on their various roles (see Table 18). Across all settings, the educational leaders were most satisfied with the amount of time they spend on parent and constituent relations. Eighty-eight percent reported being either satisfied or very satisfied in this area. The day and supplementary school educational leaders were the least satisfied with the amount of time they spend on training and staff development (only 50% and 41%, respectively). As one educational leader said, "I'm always on the run and always saying 'I'll catch you later.' Sometimes I feel like I don't give the teachers enough one on one..." Pre-school educational leaders were the least satisfied with the amount of time they spend on curriculum and program development (62%), and public relations and marketing (62%).

In general, educational leaders found the juggling that is necessary in an administrative role to be very difficult. They often have to take on roles for which they were neither prepared nor anticipated. One leader commented,

> "Education, that's my field, but then you have to be a psychologist, psychiatrist, social worker, administrator, bookkeeper, computer expert. You have to know how to fix every kind of imaginable equipment because you can't get people out on time, deal with people, run budgets, run meetings. It's everything and anything beyond what principals must have done years ago."

Beyond the complexity of the role, complaints include that

Table 18. Educational Leaders' Satisfaction with Time Spent on Roles: Percentage who Indicated Being Satisfied or Very Satisfied

ROLES	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Parent and Constituent Relations	88%	82%	100%	88%
Overall School Management	80%	76%	75%	77%
Recruiting Staff	80%	63%	73%	71%
Public Relations and Marketing	75%	72%	62%	71%
Fund Raising or Resource Development	77%	67%	67%	70%
Teacher and Staff Supervision	69%	53%	80%	64%
Curriculum and Program Development	62%	64%	62%	63%
Training and Staff Development	50%	41%	73%	51%

administrative tasks take too much time, taking time away from curriculum development and nurturing relationships with students. When asked what would enhance their overall effectiveness, more than 50% of the educational leaders indicated additional funding for programs. Almost half of the supplementary and pre-school leaders expressed a desire for additional support staff.

Other resources for that support educational leaders in their roles include local universities, central agencies, and the national movements. About 70% to 75% of educational leaders seldom or never receive support from a local university. Similarly, across all settings, half or more of the educational leaders seldom or never receive support from their national movements. In total, only 5% receive support frequently. In contrast, most (61%) of educational leaders receive frequent or occasional support from central agency personnel. Supplementary school educational leaders receive the most support and day school leaders the least.

Implications

Overall, educational leaders in Jewish schools are overwhelmingly employed full-time in one school. Most think their salaries are adequate but some do not; similarly benefits are seen as satisfactory by many but inadequate by others. Reported levels of benefits for pre-school educational leaders seem especially meager. Day school educational leaders receive more benefits and the highest salaries, compared to other settings; this holds whether all leaders or only those working full-time are considered.

Given the long tenure of educational leaders in the field of

Jewish education it is important to consider a system of incentives that can be in place to ensure the continual professional development and commitment of these professionals. For example, many of the educational leaders are not satisfied with their salaries and benefits packages, although they did not enter the field of Jewish education for these extrinsic rewards. One possible hypothesis is that as one progresses in a career, these extrinsic rewards may become more important.

The data suggest that salary and benefits may not be connected to background and professional growth. For example, there are similar levels of pre-service and in-service training among day school and supplementary school educational leaders, but there are disparities in salary and benefits, even when the comparison is restricted to full-time educational leaders. An important policy question to be explored is whether full-time supplementary school educational leaders should be compensated similarly to their day school counterparts.

At present the availability of other benefits, such as free tuition for adult education and sabbatical leave, may not be important determinants of the educational leaders' satisfaction because they do not expect to receive these benefits. However, as the standards to which Jewish educational leaders are held accountable begin to emulate the higher standards found in general education (especially in the areas of pre-service and in-service training), so may the benefits that one expects to receive. Therefore, increasing the availability of sabbatical leaves (while

not currently expected), may be an important means of compensating educational leaders for their increased efforts at professional development and a means of increasing the opportunities available for them to develop professionally.

Other conditions at work may increase the likelihood that educational leaders will contribute to the professional development of the occupation. In general education such opportunities as access to national conferences, joint planning for activities, and time for observing colleagues on the job have been shown to be important.

Many educational leaders indicated that they find it difficult to juggle the diverse demands of the job. Pre-service training and professional growth activities should emphasize the various roles and responsibilities of the educational leader so they have both realistic understandings and skills to fulfill these demands. Training programs that do not offer an internship/practicum experience often lead to incomplete expectations about leadership positions.

In addition, expectations of what it means to be fully engaged in a profession of Jewish education need to be clearly articulated if there is to be a linkage between salaries, benefits and professional growth. It may be necessary to explore whether accountability standards through evaluation and feedback need to be implemented so that communities are not investing in leaders that are unsuccessful or unwilling to engage in substantial professional growth.

6. Leading a School Community

To mobilize widespread support and involvement in education, educational leaders often try to build a sense of community around common values and goals. Hence, educational leaders not only lead the internal functioning of their schools, working with students, colleagues and staff, but must also assume a leadership role with rabbis, parents, and lay leaders.

Educational leaders often assume the role of entrepreneur for the school in the wider context. This role includes: coordinating the design of the school's mission and its relevant programs with the values and beliefs of the community and/or the synagogue; carrying this mission to the varied community constituencies; developing and nourishing external support; and mobilizing resources. Effective leaders see their work as extending beyond the boundaries of the school.

In this reality educational leaders often serve as mediators between the school's numerous constituencies. They must simultaneously manage multiple sets of relationships with rabbis, teachers, other principals, parents, lay leaders, and other community groups. This configuration of relationships is complex, and managing one set of relationships successfully may interfere with or hinder another set of relationships.

Furthermore, each of these role partners may have different, often conflicting, expectations of the educational leader. Leaders are dependent upon the interests of numerous role groups for their cooperation and support in order to meet goals. This section

describes educational leaders' perceptions of their relationships with rabbis and supervisors, teachers and colleagues, parents and lay leaders.

Rabbis and Supervisors

A central aspect of building a school community is the involvement of rabbis and other supervisory personnel. It is not surprising that educational leaders, across all settings, reported high regard for Jewish education from rabbis and supervisors (see Table 19). (For department heads, the supervisor is the educational director/principal). Ninety-one percent of all educational leaders reported that rabbis and/or their supervisors view Jewish education as very important.

Some of the educational leaders reported considerable involvement of rabbis and/or supervisors in educational programs. As depicted in Table 20, almost half of the educational leaders indicated there is a great deal of involvement in defining school goals, and participating in curriculum discussions. It should not be overlooked, however, that about 18% of the educational leaders reported no involvement from their rabbis and supervisors.

For about half the day school and supplementary school respondents, rabbis seem highly involved in their programs. In some schools the rabbis are dominant figures. As one leader commented,

> "It was very important for me to work with other colleagues who shared my values and my approach. Here the fellowship and the support is [strong]. There is value in learning from your elders."

However, in both day and supplementary schools, about 15% of

Table 19. Perceived Regard for Jewish Education by School Constituencies

CONSTITUENCY	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Somewhat Unimportant	Very Unimportant
Rabbis and Supervisors	91%	9%	--	--
Teachers	81%	19%	--	--
Lay Leaders	42%	55%	4%	--
Parents	31%	61%	6%	1%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Table 20. Extent of Involvement of Rabbis or Supervisors:

AREA	Involved a Great Deal	Involved Somewhat	No Involvement
In Defining School Goals	49%	32%	19%
In Curriculum Discussions	45%	37%	18%
In Every Aspect of the Educational Program	32%	42%	26%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

the educational leaders reported that rabbis are not involved. Moreover, there is much less rabbinical involvement in pre-schools, even though the majority of the pre-schools in these communities are housed in supplementary and/or day schools. Thirty-three percent of educational leaders from pre-school settings indicated that there is no such involvement from rabbis or supervisors in defining school goals, and 44% reported there is no involvement in discussing the curriculum.

Educational leaders feel fairly well supported in their work by their rabbis and supervisors; fifty-eight percent are very satisfied and 31% are somewhat satisfied, while only 10% are dissatisfied with the level of support from rabbis (see Table 21). Once again, it is the pre-school educational leaders who reported somewhat less satisfaction with the support they receive from rabbis and supervisors. Only 44% of the pre-school educational leaders are highly satisfied with the level of support, compared to 64% of day school leaders and 61% of supplementary school leaders who are very satisfied.

In summary, some educational leaders seem to enjoy respect, support and involvement from the rabbis and supervisors in their communities and schools. There is a small group, about 10-20%, across all settings, who indicated that this level of support and involvement is not forthcoming. The pre-school educational leaders receive the least amount of support and involvement from rabbis and supervisors.

Table 21. Educational Leaders' Satisfaction with the Support They Receive from:

GROUP	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Rabbis or Supervisors	58%	31%	9%	1%
Fellow Educators	35%	48%	14%	3%
Lay Leaders	44%	40%	10%	5%

Note: Rows may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Teachers and Colleagues

One of the most crucial aspects of the educational leaders' role is nurturing and developing school staff. As one would expect, teachers have a high regard for Jewish education. Overall, 81% of educational leaders reported that teachers regard Jewish education as very important, while the remaining 19% reported that teachers regard Jewish education as somewhat important (see Table 19).

Professional growth of teachers is often achieved by providing opportunities for staff involvement in decision-making and curriculum design. The educational leaders believe that teachers and staff should be involved in defining school goals, and should give advice before decisions are made regarding school policies (see Table 22). However, teachers are not as involved in actual practice as the leaders believe they should be. About 20% of the leaders across all settings reported that presently, the teachers and staff are not involved in defining school goals, and are not consulted before important decisions are made regarding educational issues.

The lowest level of actual teacher involvement seems to occur in supplementary schools. This is not surprising since most teachers in supplementary school work part-time. Thirty percent of supplementary school educational leaders reported that teachers are not consulted before critical decisions are made about educational issues, and 24% of supplementary school educational leaders stated that teachers are not involved in defining educational goals.

Interviews revealed that teachers and principals rarely interact about issues of pedagogy outside the classroom. Teachers

Table 22. Educational Leaders' Views and Perceptions on Teachers and Staff Involvement: Percentage who Agree with the Following Statements

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Teachers and staff should be involved in defining school goals.	100%	100%	100%	100%
Teachers and staff are involved in defining school goals.	82%	76%	94%	82%
Teachers and staff should be consulted before decisions are made on important issues.	96%	97%	100%	97%
Teachers and staff are consulted before decisions are made on important issues.	93%	70%	81%	81%

are generally hired for teaching time, and time when class is not in session is perceived as extra. Teachers' roles are not defined in a way that would incorporate involvement in school policy issues.

The ability to develop and nurture a school's staff is also related to supporting leaders in their schools and communities. Across all settings, 73% of the educational leaders are satisfied with feeling part of a community of educators, while 17% are dissatisfied with their professional community. Similarly, 78% are satisfied with the respect they are given as educators, while 22% are dissatisfied. As in previous cases, the preschool educational leaders seem to sense the greatest dissatisfaction with their professional communities. Twenty-five percent of pre-school leaders indicated that they are somewhat dissatisfied with feeling part of a community of educators, and 31% are somewhat dissatisfied with the respect they have as an educator. There is also a sizeable group of supplementary school educational leaders who are also somewhat dissatisfied, about 20% on average. The day school educational leaders are the most satisfied with their professional community, with only 11% indicating some level of dissatisfaction.

Lay Leader and Parent Involvement

Jewish education is built on the foundation of leadership and involvement from lay people. Most educational leaders reported on the survey forms that lay leaders and parents regard Jewish education as important. Day school educational leaders indicated that lay leaders and parents regard Jewish education as more important than do supplementary school and pre-school educational

leaders, although in general, all leaders believe that lay leaders and parents regard Jewish education as important. Fifteen percent of supplementary school leaders noted that parents do not view Jewish education as important.

However, the educational leaders are not as satisfied with support from lay leaders. Fifteen percent of the educational leaders are dissatisfied with the support they receive from lay leaders, while 40% are somewhat satisfied and 44% are very satisfied. The most dissatisfaction was expressed by leaders in the pre-schools and day schools, with an average of 18% in each setting indicating dissatisfaction with lay leader support. Twelve percent of supplementary leaders also reported dissatisfaction with lay leader support.

A substantial majority of educational leaders believe that lay leaders should be involved in defining educational goals and discussing curriculum and programs (see Table 23). About 20% of the educational leaders do not believe there should be this level of involvement from lay leaders. There is much less actual involvement of lay leaders in discussing educational programs than educational leaders believe there should be. Although 77% believe there should be lay leader involvement, only 59% reported that lay leaders are actually involved in discussing programs and curriculum.

There is an equal amount of actual and preferred lay leader involvement in defining school goals across all settings. There is virtually no actual lay leader involvement in pre-schools. Seventy-one percent of pre-school educational leaders strongly disagree with

Table 23. Educational Leaders' Views and Perceptions on Lay Leader Involvement: Percentage who Agree with the Following Statements

	Day School	Supplementary	Pre-School	TOTAL
Lay leaders should have the opportunity to participate in defining school goals, objectives and priorities.	75%	88%	73%	80%
Lay leaders generally do have the opportunity to participate in defining school goals, objectives and priorities.	79%	85%	80%	82%
Lay leaders should participate in discussions regarding curriculum and programs.	78%	81%	64%	77%
Lay leaders generally do participate in discussions regarding curriculum and programs.	68%	66%	29%	59%
Lay leaders should be involved actively in every aspect of the educational program.	18%	52%	36%	36%
Lay leaders generally are involved actively in every aspect of the educational program.	25%	33%	21%	28%

the statement, "lay leaders generally do participate in discussions regarding curriculum and programs".

Implications

Across all settings, educational leaders indicated that rabbis and teachers regard Jewish education as important, whereas there is less of a sense of this importance from lay leaders and parents (see Table 19). In addition, educational leaders are more satisfied with the sense of support from rabbis than they are from fellow educators and lay leaders (see Table 21). Overall, educational leaders favor more involvement of lay leaders and teachers. While rabbis seem involved in most schools, there is a substantial minority who reported no rabbinic involvement.

The interviews revealed that most educational directors participate in some community organizations. This participation presents opportunities for input into decisions that affect their schools. However, their access and support in community organizations is not widespread.

Some educational leaders, most commonly those in pre-schools, are more isolated from the wider community context. At the same time, pre-school directors, even those in congregational pre-schools, reported the least support from rabbis and lay leaders, and, as reported earlier, they have separate career paths which probably curtails the forming of relationships with leaders in other types of settings. Developing these relationships is a special challenge in pre-schools connected to JCCs. Note also that most pre-school leaders are not offered health and pension benefits, even

though a substantial majority (81%) work full-time. The isolation and lack of support for pre-school educational leaders is a likely barrier to enhancing their professional development opportunities.

Some educational leaders lamented that they lack status in the community. They are often not represented on Federation committees or other community wide programs, thus they are neither well connected nor visible. For instance, one educational leader mentioned that only two education directors, one of whom is a rabbi and the other a doctor, have been asked to teach in the Adult Academy, a community adult education program.

These findings support the conclusions articulated in A Time to Act. A major effort in community mobilization is necessary to support Jewish education. Outstanding lay leaders must be mobilized to become involved in Jewish education, both to inspire young people to enter the field as a career and to lend credibility and support to today's Jewish educators.

7.Conclusions: Learning and Leading

The role of educational leadership in school improvement efforts is paramount. This report describes professional backgrounds, careers, and sentiments of educational leaders in Jewish schools in three communities in North America. It is designed to stimulate discussion and provide a basis for planning for the professional development of a cadre of educational leaders in our Jewish schools.

Critical Findings

1) Many educational leaders are inadequately prepared in Jewish content. Only half of the leaders have post-secondary training in Judaic content, and only 35% of the educational leaders have training in both education and Jewish studies.

2) The educational leaders have little formal preparation in administration and supervision. Only 27% of all the leaders are trained in educational administration, while only 16% have preparation in education, Judaic content, and administration.

3) Although many educational leaders reported that opportunities for professional growth are adequate in their communities, they do not participate in widespread professional development activities. Most educational leaders indicated receiving little or no support from local universities and national movements.

4) The majority of educational leaders reported they have a career in Jewish education, and they work full-time in one school setting.

5) Educational leaders have long tenure in the field of Jewish education across various settings, but they have less seniority in leadership positions.

6) The large majority of educational leaders plan to stay in their current positions.

7) Educational leaders are not completely satisfied with their salary and benefits packages. Pre-school educational leaders are the least likely to have access to health and pension benefits.

8) Educational leaders would like to be more involved in communal decisions and to receive more support in their work. Pre-school educational leaders receive the least amount of support from rabbis and lay leaders.

These findings suggest a number of important implications for schools, local communities and the continental Jewish community as a whole.

School Level

Educational leaders would like the participation and support of teachers, rabbis, and lay leaders. The boards of schools,

congregations, and JCC's may want to consider a process whereby roles and relationships can be explored to ensure a high level of support and involvement from all partners in the educational process.

Educational leaders should be supported in their efforts to work with teachers and other staff to implement changes, mobilize resources, and develop programs. The teacher-leader relationship should not be bound by teacher contract hours. A culture that promotes ongoing collaboration and group problem solving should be encouraged. Training and professional growth activities should be supported at each school. Furthermore, professional development programs should be attended by teams of professionals from the same school.

Local Communal Level

Since most educational leaders work full-time and view Jewish education as their career, and many have limited professional preparation, it seems that higher levels of professional development can be expected. Furthermore, given their long tenure in the profession, ongoing professional growth is important.

Educational leaders have experience in various settings. Day school leaders have taught in supplementary schools and visa versa. The only exception seems to be pre-school leaders who have much less experience in other settings. Therefore, it seems that if high standards of pre-service training are in place, community-wide professional growth activities can be very beneficial. In addition, once educational leaders have adequate preparation for their

positions in Jewish education they should be a valuable resource in the community for teacher in-service as well.

Educational leaders need opportunities to interact with their colleagues across all settings for networking, support, and feedback. All educational leaders should be highly involved in developing individual and community-wide professional growth plans.

The educational leaders have expressed interest in increasing their knowledge and skills in both Jewish content areas and administration and supervision. All educational leaders need to increase their knowledge in Judaic subject matter. It is important to note the complete lack of formal training in Judaica among pre-school educational leaders.

Communities may want to consider the level of fringe benefits offered to educational leaders. This is perhaps most pressing in pre-schools where the large majority of educational directors work full-time but are not offered health or pension benefits. Communities may want to consider linking certain benefits, such as sabbaticals, and merit pay to participation in professional growth activities.

Educational leaders desire more involvement and status in the Jewish community. Although they feel that Jewish education is respected by others, they do not feel very empowered as participants in decision-making. Lay leadership should become more involved in Jewish education. Community institutions may want to consider ways of expanding the participation of educational leaders in these organizations.

The findings in this report also suggest implications for each school setting.

DAY SCHOOLS:

Over half of the educational leaders in day schools are not trained in Jewish content areas. They do not hold degrees or certificates in Jewish education, Jewish studies, or related subjects. This is a serious deficiency in the cadre of educational leaders in these schools. Day school educational leaders must begin to address this deficiency by attending summer programs, institutions of higher Jewish learning, and exploring other opportunities for raising the level of Judaic knowledge, such as distance learning.

Day school educational leaders also lack formal preparation in educational administration. They fall far below expected standards for public school leaders. This type of training is usually readily available in most communities through local colleges and universities.

Given these areas of needs, professional growth activities should be required of all day school leaders. Standards must be upheld in terms of both the quantity and quality of professional development experiences. The majority of day school leaders (74%) indicated that opportunities for their professional growth are adequate, but yet they do not participate in widespread professional activities. Local communities will need to heighten the awareness of their leaders to the importance of ongoing professional development.

Many day school educational leaders have a wealth of experience in their current settings as well as long tenure in the field of Jewish education. Similarly, a large majority of day school educational leaders desire to remain in their current schools. They are committed to the field of Jewish education. If their credentials are upgraded and they are successful participants of professional growth activities, they can serve as future mentor-leaders for other educational leaders in day schools. They can serve as the professional guides for less experienced educational leaders in their communities.

SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The majority of educational leaders in supplementary school settings (66%) have worked in their current settings for 5 years or less, but they plan to remain in their current setting over the next few years. Consequently, there is a great need for professional growth and training for supplementary school educational leaders. They are relatively new to their jobs. They have very limited backgrounds in Judaic content and virtually no training in educational administration. They are most probably recently recruited into administration from teaching. However, unlike their roles as teachers in supplementary schools, many of the educational leaders are full- time. Therefore, it must be expected that they upgrade their professional knowledge and credentials.

In addition, it would be important to address the part-time nature of some of the educational leadership positions in supplementary schools. If supplementary school educational leaders

are full-time and are held to high standards of professional preparation, they could serve important roles in the school and the community.

An important aspect of changing the culture of the Jewish supplementary school should include the involvement of teachers in decision making and increasing the interactions of educational leaders with teachers about issues of pedagogy even though many teachers work part-time. Educational leaders should be encouraged to see themselves as staff developers in their schools, and as facilitators in building collaborative school cultures.

PRE-SCHOOLS

Pre-school educational leaders are severely lacking in Judaic subject matter. Only 12% of the pre-school leaders are trained in Jewish studies, and they have the lowest levels of Jewish education both before and after age 13 when compared to other educational leaders in Jewish schools. There is an urgent need to increase the Judaic content knowledge of pre-school educational directors.

In addition, pre-school educational leaders are overwhelming untrained in administration, and are relatively new to their settings. Forty-four percent have been working in pre-schools for less than six years. Pre-school educational directors have limited experience in other Jewish educational settings, and are relatively isolated from colleagues in the field of Jewish education in their communities. They experience limited involvement and support from lay leaders, rabbis, and other educational professionals. There is an urgent need to increase the professional development activities

of pre-school educational directors which address their isolation, limited background in Judaic content, and lack of formal preparation for leadership positions.

Pre-school educational directors are usually recruited locally, although they work in full-time positions. Compared to their counterparts in other full-time Jewish education settings, they receive relatively fewer benefits and lower salaries. However, they are committed to a continuous career in Jewish education and attend more in-service workshops than other educational leaders. Given this commitment to Jewish education and professional growth, each community should begin to design high quality professional support for educational leaders in pre-school settings.

National level

Educational leaders have very limited post-secondary training in Jewish content. Therefore, substantial thought and resources should be placed on developing comprehensive pre-service and in-service programs that can greatly improve the Jewish knowledge base of all educational leaders. In addition, most educational leaders do not have preparation for their leadership roles in the areas of administration and supervision. National institutions of higher learning must address this void and provide programs that join both Jewish content and the latest thinking about leadership development which meet high standards. For example, the Jewish Theological Seminary and Hebrew Union College-NY do offer a principal certification program. At JTS this program requires 15 credit hours in administration and supervision beyond the Masters

degree in Jewish Education.

As national institutions emerge to prepare and certify educational leaders, a wider network may be developed to advertise and recruit highly trained educational leaders for local institutions.

Learning and Leading

Recently, Roland Barth, founder of the Harvard Principal's Center said:

> "School principals have an extraordinary opportunity to improve schools. A precondition for realizing this potential is for principals to put on the oxygen mask--to become learners. In doing so, they telegraph a vital message: Principals can become learners and thereby leaders in their schools. Effective leaders know themselves, know how they learn, know how they affect others, and know they can't do it alone".

The findings in this report suggest that many of our educational leaders in Jewish schools are not learning. It is urgent that local and national partnerships, and the educational leaders themselves, begin to act to strengthen the leading and learning of all educational leaders.