



THE JACOB RADER MARCUS CENTER OF THE
AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

MS-831: Jack, Joseph and Morton Mandel Foundation Records, 1980–2008.

Series D: Adam Gamoran Papers. 1991–2008.

Subseries 1: Lead Communities and Monitoring, Evaluation, and Feedback (MEF),
1991–2000.

Box
58

Folder
1

Goldring, Ellen B., et al. "Educational Leaders in Jewish Schools:
A Study of Three Communities." Drafts and comments. Planning
correspondence and data analysis, 1995.

Pages from this file are restricted and are not available online.
Please contact the [American Jewish Archives](https://www.AmericanJewishArchives.org) for more information.

#2 6-APR-1995 07:52:27.60
in Both in Jewish in Education in Neither

NEWMAIL

Day School	32%	18%	40%	11%
Supplementary	45%	18%	31%	6%
Pre-school	12%	- -	62%	25%
TOTAL	34%	14%	40%	12%

As you will note, all settings decrease in the % of trained in neither. The relationship between day and supplementary stays about the same (still favoring the supplementary).

MY RECOMMENDATION: It comes down to a matter of defending one's judgements. Do we want to defend why we did not do it for the educators (i.e., too much missing data) or do we want to defend why we are not counting certificates in general education for the educational leaders. I'd rather defend the former. Thus, I RECOMMEND having "certification in general education" qualify a person as being "trained in general education".

Press RETURN for more...

MAIL>

following TRAIN is defined as missing for these cases.

	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish	Trained in Education	Trained in Neither
--	--------------------	----------------------	-------------------------	-----------------------

Day School	33%	19%	41%	7%
------------	-----	-----	-----	----

Press RETURN for more...

MAIL>

#2	6-APR-1995 07:52:27.60				NEWMAIL
Supplementary	48%	16%	29%	6%	
Pre-school	12%	--	62%	25%	
TOTAL	35%	14%	41%	11%	

The numbers don't change greatly. Only seven cases are affected.

MY RECOMMENDATION: define TRAIN as missing if one of them is missing and the other is 2 (No). But, (as we have done) do NOT define TRAIN as missing if either one of them is 1 (Yes). Otherwise, we would be artificially lowering the % of educational leaders who are trained.

4. On presenting ADMIN CER (certification in administration) and ADMAJOR

facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: Adam Gamoran
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: Tables on "Committment" of Educational Leaders
date: April 7, 1995
pages: 2, including cover sheet.

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

ARE THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS FULL-TIME?

	PERCENT BY SETTING			TOTAL
	Day	Supplementary	Pre	
No, Part-time	4%	39%	19%	22%
Yes, Full-time	96%	61%	81%	78%

DO THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS CONSIDER JEWISH EDUCATION AS A CAREER?

	PERCENT BY SETTING			TOTAL
	Day	Supplementary	Pre	
No, Not a Career	--	9%	7%	5%
Yes, a Career	100%	91%	93%	95%

FUTURE PLANS OF EDUCATION LEADERS

	PERCENT BY SETTING			TOTAL
	Day	Supplementary	Pre	
Continue in an Administration Position at the Same School	86%	73%	75%	78%
Seek a Administration Position at a New School	4%	9%	6%	6%
Seek a Position Outside of Jewish Education	--	3%	--	1%
Other (e.g. go back to school)	4%	3%	12%	5%
Undecided	7%	12%	6%	9%

EXPERIENCE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH EDUCATION

TOTAL # OF YEARS	PERCENT BY SETTING			TOTAL
	Day	Supplementary	Pre	
1 year	--	3%	--	1%
2 - 5 years	4%	12%	6%	8%
6 - 10 years	7%	12%	25%	13%
11 - 20 years	57%	39%	50%	48%
21 or more years	32%	33%	19%	30%

facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: Adam Gamoran
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: Tables & Figures for Educational Leaders Data
Presentation
date: April 7, 1995
pages: 11, including cover sheet. (Second try)

Adam,

Here are some tables and figures (charts) for the educational leaders data, concerning certification or degree (major) in Jewish studies, general education, and/or educational administration. Tables and figures on other data will follow soon.

The following five sets of tables and figures are on

1. training in general education and Jewish studies;
2. training in educational administration (certification and/or degree) only;
3. training in educational administration and Jewish studies;
4. training in Jewish studies and either general education or educational administration (this combines all three);
5. training in general education and Jewish studies cross-tabulated with training in administration.

The last three are offered as alternative ways of presenting the administration variables in relation to the standard training pie (1st set). I think that the pie chart in the fourth set (which combines general education & educ. admin.) would follow very nicely after the first pie chart, since only 3 educ. leaders are "trained" in administration without also being "trained" in general education.

Bill

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

Using TRAINAL2 (which includes certification in general education)Extent of Professional Training of Educational Leaders in General Education and Jewish Studies

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

INCLUDING ONLY THE HEADS OF THE SCHOOLS (Using SETHEAD)Using TRAINAL2 (which includes certification in general education)Extent of Professional Training of Principals in General Education and Jewish Studies

SETTING	<i>Trained in General Education Only</i>	<i>Trained in Both</i>	<i>Trained in Jewish Studies Only</i>	<i>Trained in Neither</i>
Day School	31%	38%	31%	--
Supplementary School	33%	48%	11%	7%
Pre-school	62%	12%	--	25%
TOTAL	41%	36%	12%	11%

set 1

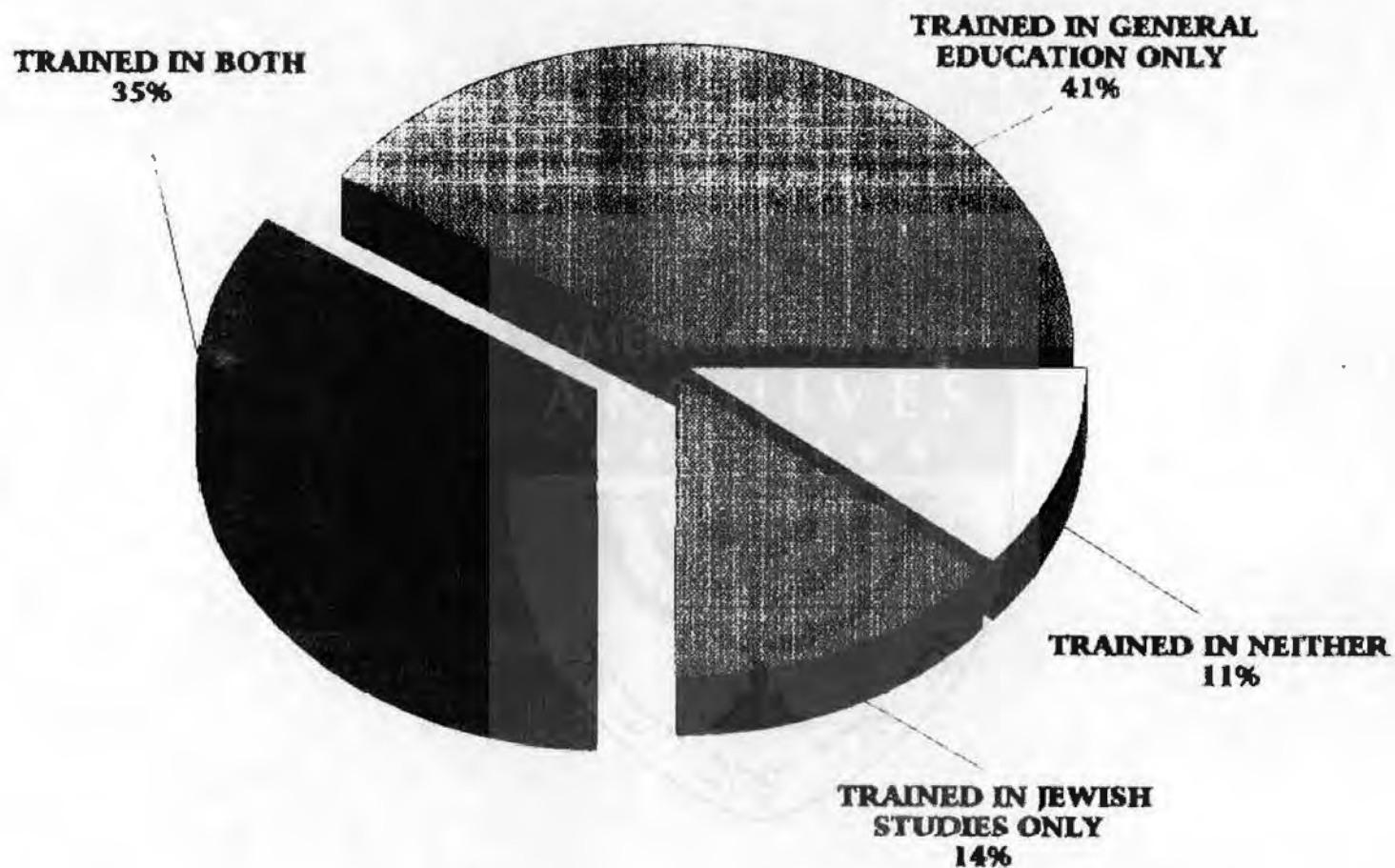


Figure 1: Extent of Professional Training in General Education and Jewish Studies

Set 1

3

Collegiate and Professional Administration Backgrounds of Educational Leaders

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

Note: "Trained in Administration" means either a Certificate in Administration or a Degree in Educational Administration.

INCLUDING ONLY THE HEADS OF THE SCHOOLS (Using SETHEAD)

Collegiate and Professional Administration Backgrounds of Educational Leaders

SETTING	Certificate in Administration	Degree in Educational Administration	Trained in Educational Administration
Day School	57%	31%	62%
Supplementary School	21%	11%	22%
Pre-school	19%	--	19%
TOTAL	29%	12%	30%

Note: "Trained in Administration" means either a Certificate in Administration or a Degree in Educational Administration.

Set 2

4

No Figure Provided (Yet)

For Data On Only Administration

set 2

5

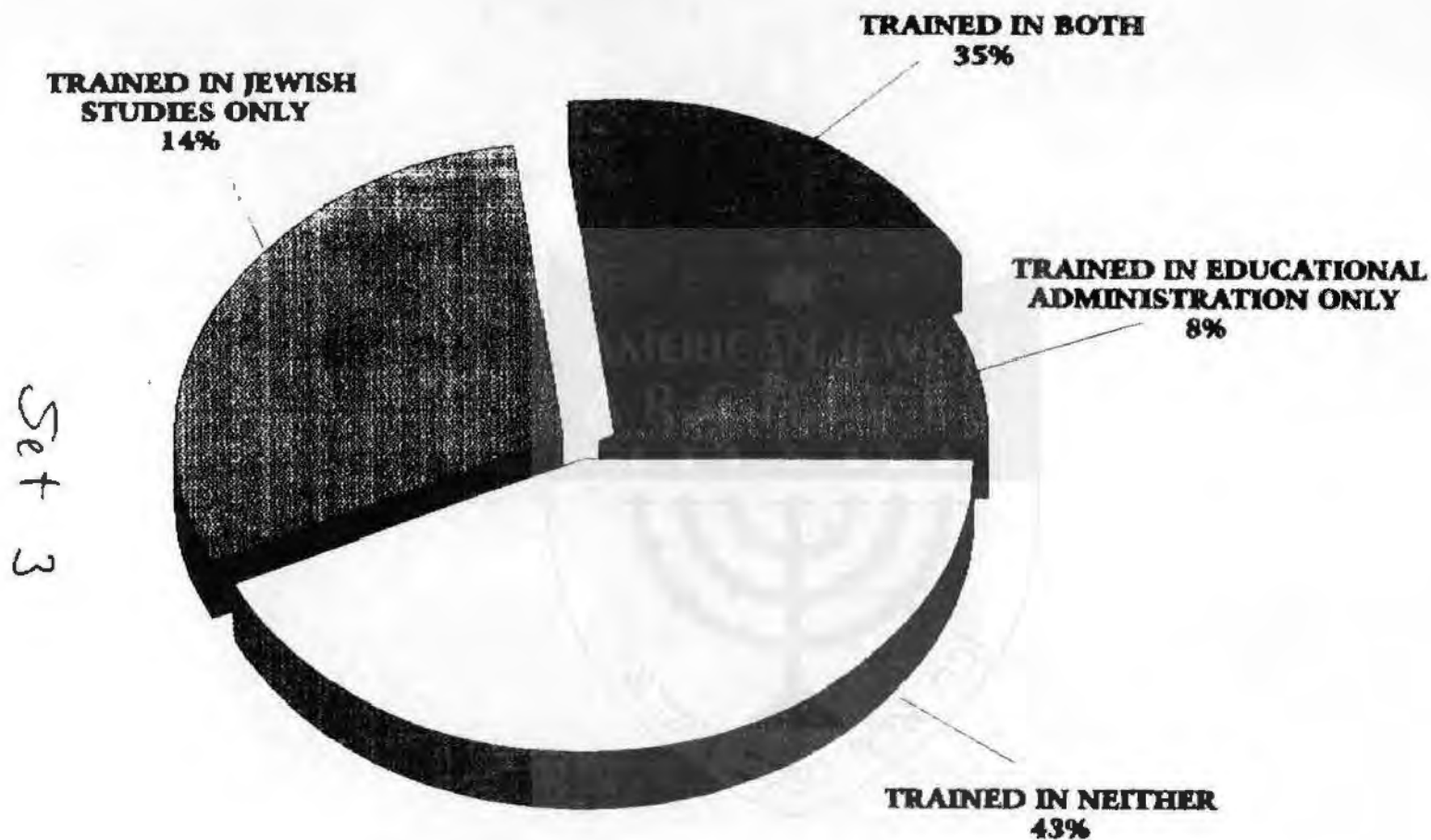
Using TRNADJU2Extent of Professional Training of Educational Leaders in Educational Administration and Jewish Studies

SETTING	<i>Trained in Educ. Administration Only</i>	<i>Trained in Both</i>	<i>Trained in Jewish Studies Only</i>	<i>Trained in Neither</i>
Day School	11%	30%	22%	37%
Supplementary School	3%	16%	48%	32%
Pre-school	12%	6%	6%	75%
TOTAL	8%	19%	30%	43%

INCLUDING ONLY THE HEADS OF THE SCHOOLS (Using SETHEAD)Using TRNADJU2Extent of Professional Training of Principals in Educational Administration and Jewish Studies

SETTING	<i>Trained in Educ Administration Only</i>	<i>Trained in Both</i>	<i>Trained in Jewish Studies Only</i>	<i>Trained in Neither</i>
Day School	14%	46%	23%	15%
Supplementary School	4%	19%	41%	37%
Pre-school	12%	6%	6%	75%
TOTAL	9%	21%	27%	43%

set 3



Another Figure: Extent of Professional Training in Educational Administration and Jewish Studies

7

Using TRNAEJ2

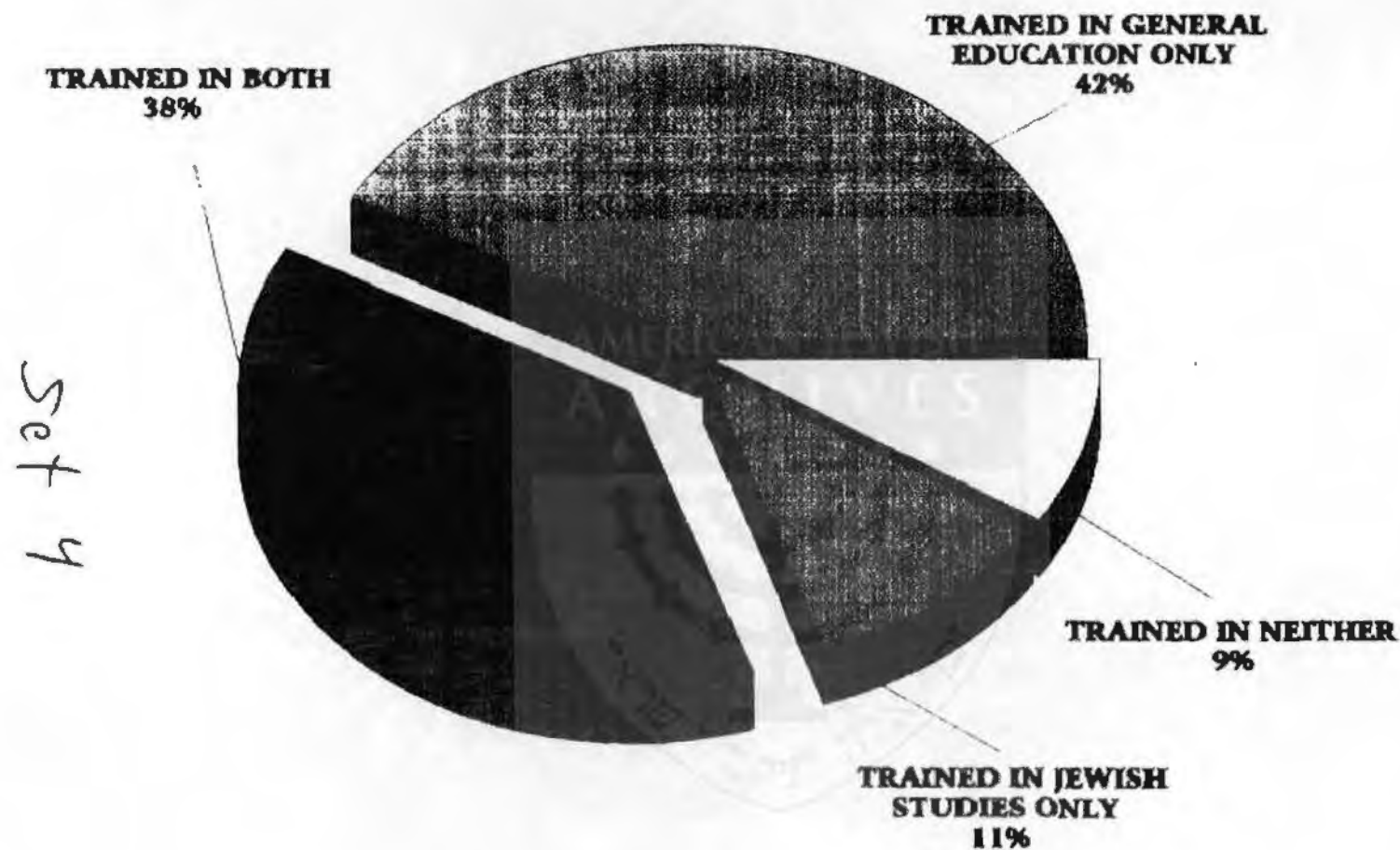
**Extent of Professional Training of Educational Leaders
in Jewish Studies and either General Education or Educational Administration**

SETTING	<i>Trained in Education/ Administration Only</i>	<i>Trained in Both</i>	<i>Trained in Jewish Studies Only</i>	<i>Trained in Neither</i>
Day School	41%	37%	15%	7%
Supplementary School	32%	52%	13%	3%
Pre-school	62%	12%	--	25%
TOTAL	42%	38%	11%	9%

INCLUDING ONLY THE HEADS OF THE SCHOOLS (Using SETHEAD)Using TRNAEJ2**Extent of Professional Training of Principals in Educational Administration and Jewish Studies**

SETTING	<i>Trained in Education/ Administration Only</i>	<i>Trained in Both</i>	<i>Trained in Jewish Studies Only</i>	<i>Trained in Neither</i>
Day School	31%	46%	23%	--
Supplementary School	37%	52%	7%	4%
Pre-school	62%	12%	--	25%
TOTAL	43%	39%	9%	9%

set 4



Extent of Professional Training in Jewish Studies and
either General Education or Educational Administration

06 Apr 95 Using p_int_05.sav

Page 9

TRAINAL2 Trained - incl. GENEDCER, more as missin
by ADMTRAIN Trained in Administration

		ADMTRAIN		Row Total
		Yes	No	
Count				
Row Pct				
Col Pct				
Tot Pct				
		1	2	
TRAINAL2				
1		12	14	26
Trained in Both		46.2	53.8	35.1
		60.0	25.9	
		16.2	18.9	
2		2	8	10
Trained in Jewish		20.0	80.0	13.5
		10.0	14.8	
		2.7	10.8	
3		5	25	30
Trained in General		16.7	83.3	40.5
		25.0	46.3	
		6.8	33.8	
4		1	7	8
Trained in Neither		12.5	87.5	10.8
		5.0	13.0	
		1.4	9.5	
Column		20	54	74
Total		27.0	73.0	100.0

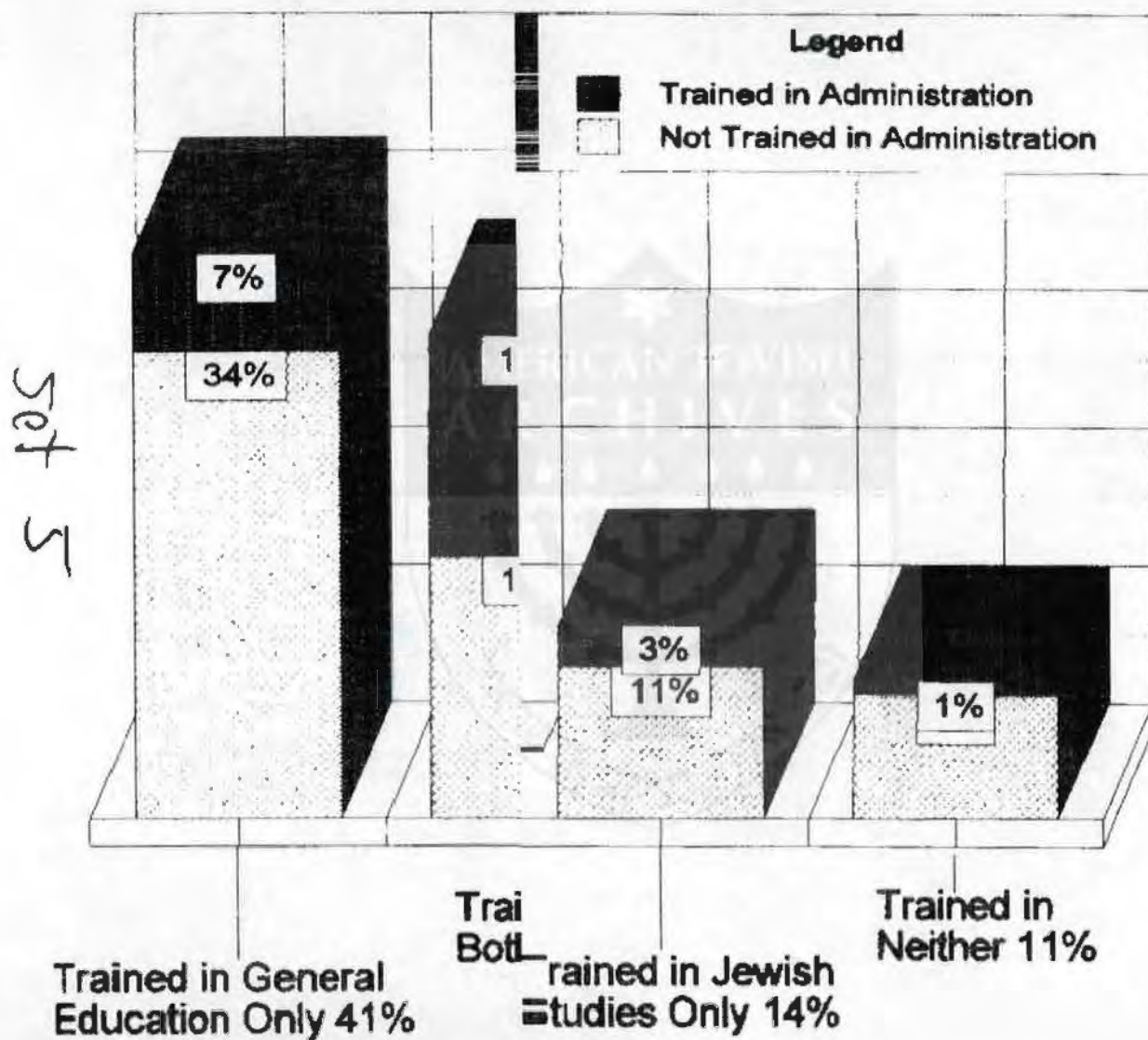
Number of Missing Observations: 3

Trained in ~~General~~ Education and/or Jewish Studies

by

Having either an certificate in administration
or a degree in educational administration.

Set 5



facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: ADAM GAMORAN
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: Educational Leaders - Issues of professional growth
date: April 10, 1995
pages: 6, including cover sheet.

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

ISSUES OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH - page 1

ADEQUACY OF THE OPPORTUNITIES FOR THEIR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH?

PERCENTAGE WHO INDICATED "ADEQUATE" OR "VERY ADEQUATE"

Day school	74%
Supplementary School	59%
Pre-school	75%
TOTAL	68%

**AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORKSHOPS ATTENDED BY THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS
(in a 2 year period)**

MEAN # OF WORKSHOPS

Day School	4.4
Supplementary School	5.6*
Pre-school	5.4
TOTAL	5.5

*Note. This figure eliminates one supplementary educational director who indicated 34 workshops. (The next highest number was 16.) Including this person, the mean # of workshops for supplementary educational directors would be 6.5

**PERCENTAGE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS WHO ENGAGAGE IN SOME FORM OF
INFORMAL STUDY OF HEBREW OR JUDAICA**

(Combines items b, c, & d on question #14 - not item a.)

PERCFNTAGE

Day School	77%
Supplementary School	88%
Pre-school	50%
TOTAL	77%

*ISSUES OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH - page 2***DESIRE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS FOR INCREASING
KNOWLEDGE OF JUDAISM & HEBREW****(Includes ONLY those who are "Trained in Jewish Studies")****PERCENTAGE DESIRING INCREASED KNOWLEDGE**

	Day	Supplementary	Pre
Hebrew language	77%	55%	79%
Customs & Ceremonies	38%	45%	64%
Zionism & Israel	46%	45%	36%
Jewish History	69%	73%	64%
Bible	69%	82%	57%
Prayer and Synagogue Skills	54%	45%	36%
Rabbinic Literature	46%	55%	7%

NOTE: Only in "Rabbinic Literature" are the percentages higher for those who are "Trained in Jewish Studies". This would be expected

	Trained	Not Trained
Day	71%	46%
Suppl	62%	55%
Pre	--	7%
TOTAL	62%	34%

**DESIRE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS FOR INCREASING
KNOWLEDGE OF HEBREW****(Includes ONLY those whose proficiency in Hebrew is "Limited" or "Not at all".)****PERCENTAGE DESIRING INCREASED KNOWLEDGE (by type of proficiency and setting)**

	Day	Supplementary	Pre
Speaking	70%	54%	70%
Reading	100%	50%	80%
Writing	89%	54%	75%

ISSUES OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH - page 3
(Discussion of Preceding Tables)

Concerning the tables on page 2 of "Issues of Professional Growth", I only presented the percentages for the "bottom half" - those who need increased knowledge. Thus the data illustrates the % of educational leaders who are aware that they need to increase their knowledge (in those areas). The higher the %, the greater the number of educational leaders in each setting who are cognizant of their professional growth needs.

Within this general argument, one must take into account the differences between settings (in terms of their curriculum/programs). For instance, pre-school educational leaders (in general) have a less pressing need to know the Rabbinic literature since it is not a topic which is taught (though this is not to say that increased knowledge wouldn't be helpful). I'm not sure why, but it may be that educational leaders in supplementary school have a less pressing need to know more about "prayer and synagogue skills" than day school educational leaders, given the different relationship of the synagogue to their schools. Therefore, the fact that a smaller % of untrained supplementary educational leaders (as compared to those in day schools) feel the need to increase their knowledge of prayer & synagogue skills may be a reasonable response to institutional conditions.

Overall, a greater percentage of supplementary educational leaders who are NOT trained in Jewish studies seem more aware of their need to increase their knowledge of Jewish content areas than do those in day schools (and pre-schools). However, does this reflect a more astute awareness of one's shortcomings or different administrative structures. In the day schools, there are usually several administrative/supervisory personnel filling different roles. In the supplementary schools, there is usually a single administrator who must fill all roles. Does this mean that in the day schools (given the greater role differentiation), there is a less pressing need for EVERY educational leaders to have a solid knowledge of Jewish content areas?

As a major caveat, the differences between the day and supplementary settings (in Bible, for instance) would cease if a single person in each setting had indicated otherwise.

The following figure (chart) only illustrates the data for the following content areas: Customs & Ceremonics, History, Bible, and Rabbinic Literature. Zionism is excluded because I would have to remove the Israelis to give a fair picture. Prayer & synagogue skills is eliminated because I think the "learning/teaching of prayer and synagogue skills" may be played out in a significantly different manner in supplementary and day schools. Hebrew is not included because (while the pattern is the same) I think the best indicator of "need" for more Hebrew language knowledge is proficiency, not "trained in Jewish studies". A separate figure illustrating Hebrew could be done if you want.

Finally, I did not present any tables in regard to administrative skills (by trained in administration), because there was nothing interesting to present. There was no perceivable pattern in comparing settings (for those who are not trained in administration - either degree or certificate). There was no conceivable pattern comparing those who are trained to those who are not trained in administration (within either day or supplementary settings). Sometimes the % is higher for those who are trained (e.g., desiring skills in staff supervision among supplementary educational leaders), and sometimes the % is higher for those who are not trained (desiring skills in school management among day school educational leaders). Among the pre-school educational leaders the % of those who are trained in administration who want to increase their skills in administration areas tends to be greater than the % among those who are not trained. BUT, there are only 3 educational leaders in the pre-schools (out of 16) who are trained in administration (19%).

ISSUES OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH - page 4

In summary, three general points are being made -

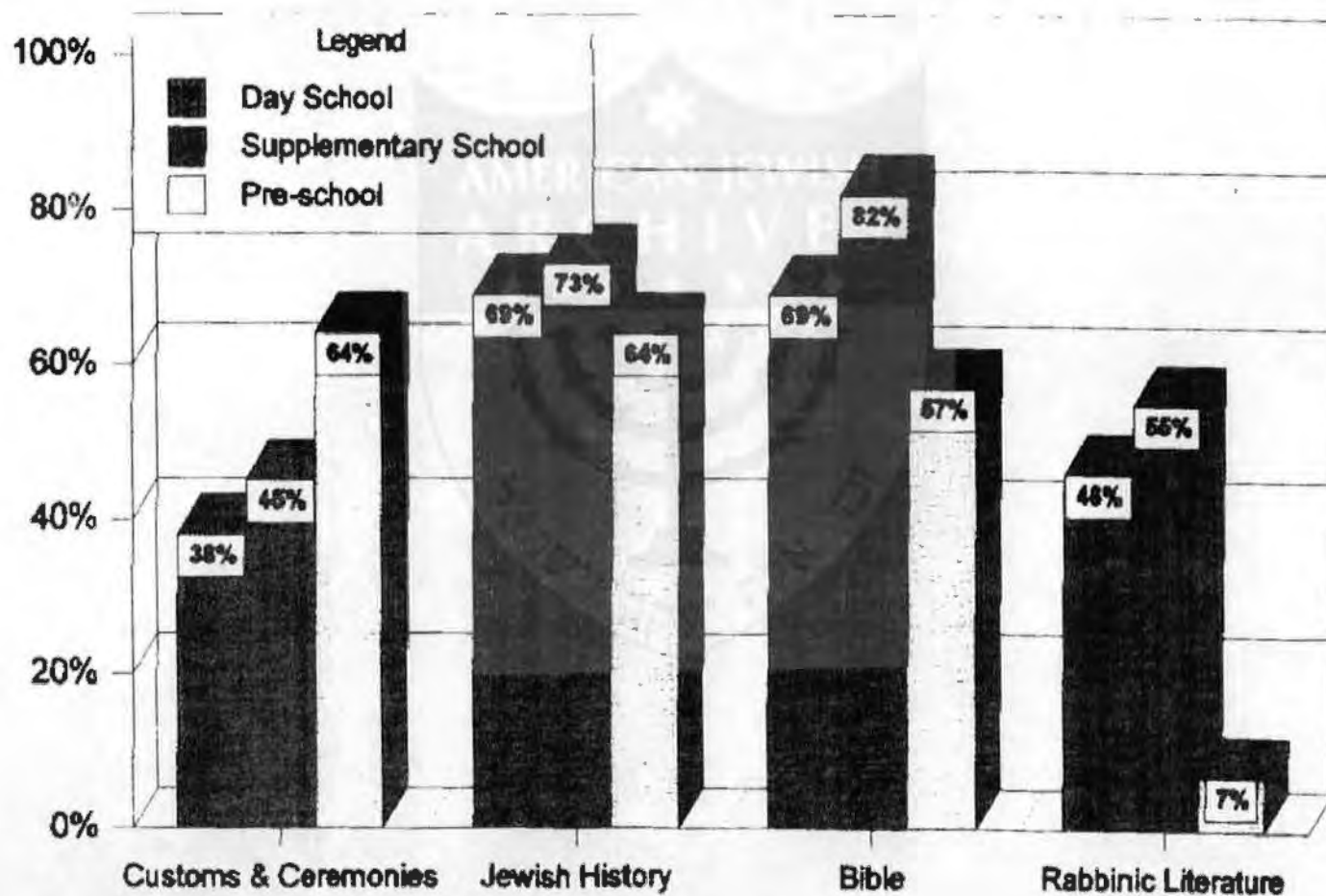
1 Supplementary school educational leaders engage in more or similar amounts of formal and informal professional development than those in day and pre-schools. This is especially interesting considering that they are more (or at least not less trained) than those in day and pre-school settings

2 Greater percentages of supplementary school educational leaders, as compared to those in day and pre-school settings, find the opportunities for professional to be inadequate

3. Among those educational leaders that are not trained in Jewish studies, those in supplementary school settings are more likely to want to increase their knowledge of Jewish content areas than those in day or pre-school settings

Percentage Desiring Increased Knowledge

Who Are NOT Trained in Jewish Studies



facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: ADAM GAMORAN
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: 4th packet - Educational Leaders Presentation
date: April 10, 1995
pages: 2, including cover sheet.

Adam,

The following page is a sample graphic figure which presents the "training" of educational leaders **BY SETTING**. The unique element in this figure is that the bars for training in general education and Jewish studies represent total percentages, which includes all educational leaders who have training in either general education or Jewish studies (as the case may be) **REGARDLESS** of whether or not they also have training in the other area (**NOT** those who **ONLY** have training in one of the two). It was created to emphasize the differences between settings, not to give the overall picture.

As with **ALL** of the figures that I sent you, this one is also a rough draft. When you tell me which ones you want to use (and what elements you want in each), I'll create more finished versions.

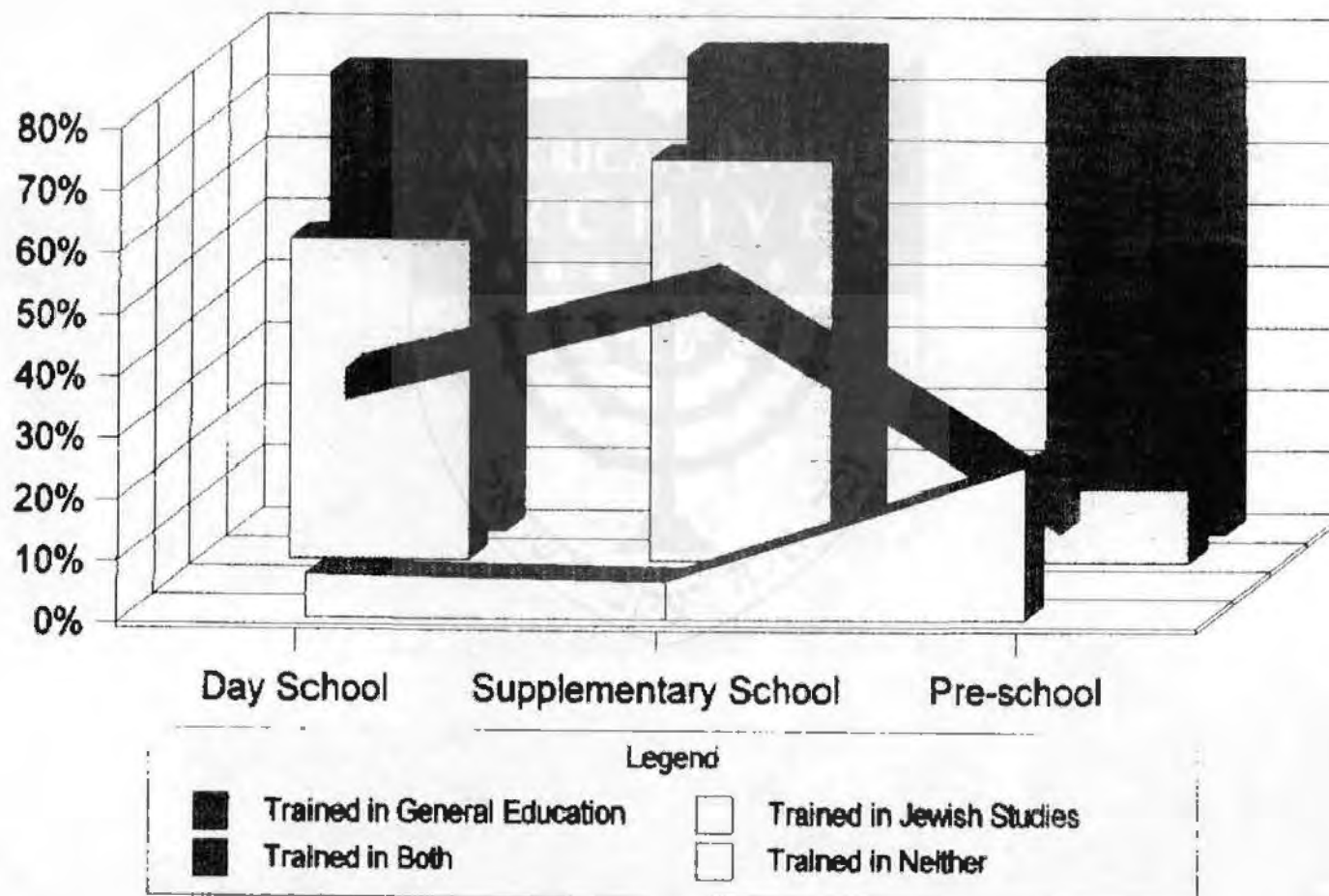
Bill

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

Extent of Professional Training in General Education & Jewish Studies



facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: ADAM GAMORAN
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: Educational Leaders Report
date: May 5, 1995
pages: 14, including cover sheet.

Adam,

I'm off e-mail until later this afternoon. Problem should be corrected by end of next week.

In case you don't pick this up at your office, I'll be e-mailing you a copy later.

Bill

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

Adam and Ellen.

Sorry for the lateness of my parts. As you are well aware the work for the Steering Committee (presentation and 1 Module) kept me completely occupied for over two weeks.

A.

I did not write the "Implications" parts for the sections that could use one. I could use your input before doing so!

B. On the sections and their placement:

In writing the sections, I found that Adam's original plan to separate the "Conditions and Sentiments about Work" from "Work Settings" made sense. So, in this regard, I suggest returning to the original plan and placing "Conditions and Sentiments about Work" after the section on "Professional Growth".

I found that including within one section - "Recruitment and Experience" - all of the parts dealing with their career paths (i.e., "Entering Jewish Education", "Types of Educational Experience", "Length of Experience in Jewish Education", "Recent Recruitment", and "Future Plans") made sense. Yet, I think that they could just as easily be separated into two sections: "Recruitment" ("Entering Jewish Education" and "Recent Recruitment") and "Experience" ("Types of Educational Experience", "Length of Experience in Jewish Education", and "Future Plans"). Currently, they are all together. But your choice!

I did make one change that was not discussed previously. I believe the data on "Work Settings" (i.e., role of educational leader within the school, % of schools in each setting type, school affiliation, and size of the school) is best reported separately from all the other data, and is best reported in a box near the beginning of the report. The reason is that this data is probably most useful in (indirectly) addressing the "representativeness" of the three communities for developing a continental picture. While we may not want to argue explicitly for this, it seems useful to tell the reader up front what these communities look like (i.e., how much do they look like your community).

C. On the Tables.

I did not create the Tables yet, but will do so soon.

I envision having the following 11 tables for the sections that I wrote.

a. Levels of Religious Observance among the Educational Leaders: Percentage who Engage in Various Religious Practices

- This includes synagogue attendance.
- By setting and total.

b. Reasons for Entering the Field of Jewish Education

- Not by setting, only by total.
- In the report I combine the percentages for "Somewhat Unsatisfied" and "Very Unsatisfied". *Should I do the same in the Table?*

c. **Types of Educational Experience: Percentage of the Educational Leaders who have Worked in Various Settings**

- Includes all three school settings, camp, youth, JOC, adult education, and experience in general education.
- By setting and total.

d. **How Were the Educational Leaders Recruited into their Current Position: Percentage Recruited in Various Ways**

- By setting and total.

e. **Reasons for Choosing to Work in their Current School**

- By setting and total.

f. **Length of Experience in Jewish Education**

- Three tables in one:
 - Total Years of Experience in Jewish Education
 - Total Years of Experience in Current Community
 - Total Years of Experience in Current Setting
- By setting and total.

g. **Future Plans of the Educational Leaders**

- By setting and total.

h. **The Educational Leaders' Salaries from Work in Jewish Education**

- By setting and total.

i. **Satisfaction of the Educational Leaders with their Work Conditions**

- This table will include salary, benefits, hours of employment available, resources, and physical setting and facilities.
- Not by setting, only by total.
- Note: the information contained on this table will be discussed in three separate subsections of this section "Conditions and Sentiments about Work."

j. **Availability of Fringe Benefits: Percentage of the Educational Leaders who are Offered Various Benefits**

- By setting and total

k. **Satisfaction of the Educational Leaders with How their Time is Spent in Various Activities**

- Not by setting, only by total.

D. New Calculations

Finally, I included data from some new calculations that I did for the report, of which you should be aware

1. In order to assess the percentage of educational leaders who have moved from one community to another during their career in Jewish education - a measure of communal stability - I subtracted the total number years (unrecoded) in current community from the total number of years (unrecoded) in Jewish education. Those who received a score of 0 have only

worked in a single community.

2. Similarly, in order to assess the percentage of educational leaders who have moved from one setting to another during their tenure in their current community - another measure of stability - I subtracted the total number of years (unrecoded) in current setting from the total number of years (unrecoded) in current community. Those who received a score of 0 have only worked in a single setting within their current community.

3. In order to assess the percentage of educational leaders whose salary from Jewish education makes up more than half of their total family income, I first did a cross-tabulation of the two (JEINCOME by INCOMETF). Since the categories are very wide, I then eliminated all of the educational leaders whose income from Jewish education may or may not be more than half of their total family income. In other words, if their total family income is "\$50,000 to \$69,000" and their income from Jewish education is "\$20,000 to \$29,000", there is no way to be certain as to whether the latter is more or less than half of the former. So, these cases were defined as "missing". [The only exception to this was that I defined as "More than Half" those cases in which their total family income and their income from Jewish education was reported as "Over \$90,000" and "Over \$80,000" respectively.] I then divided the number of cases in which their salary for Jewish education was more than half of their total family income by the total number of cases (after eliminating the newly "missing" cases as indicated above). Granted this is a "rough" estimate, and I indicate so in the reporting of the data.

4. Now for the fun one! I did a linear regression to figure out what were the primary determinants of the educational leaders reported level of satisfaction with their benefits. In other words, what benefits are important considerations in evaluating how satisfied they are with their total benefit package? I did a stepwise linear regression with the variable BENEFITS as the dependent variable and all the benefit variables from Q#30 as independent variables. The results were intriguing. Assuming I've read it all correctly (it's been awhile): For the educational leaders as a group, synagogue privileges (such as High Holiday Tickets) and pensions accounted for 25% of the variance in the variable BENEFITS. No other variables significantly added to this. By setting: Synagogue privileges was the only significant predictor of benefit satisfaction (24%) for the day school educational leaders. For the supplementary school educational leaders, along with synagogue privileges and pensions, health benefits and financial support for professional development account for 67% of the variance. For the pre school educational directors, none of the variables were significant in predicting benefit satisfaction.

So what the point? I did this so we can know which benefits are important to the educational leaders. It provided a justification for focusing on those four as opposed to others. In the report, I then discussed the four benefits which were found to be predictors (for at least some group of educational leaders).

E. The Numbers that Ellen Requested

1. Average attendance at camp: Mean is 4.7 summers; Median is 4 summers.

2. No Jewish education as children (before or after 13): Total - 8%; Females - 10%; Males - 4%.
Note: Due to the low number of males, 4% is equivalent to one male!

3. On trained in administration in relation to trained in Jewish studies and/or general education, by setting.

Day School:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	11%	26%	4%	--
Not Trained in Admin.	30%	7%	15%	7%

Supplementary:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	--	13%	3%	3%
Not Trained in Admin.	29%	35%	13%	3%

Pre-school:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	12%	6%	--	--
Not Trained in Admin.	50%	6%	--	25%

NOTE: For the pre-school educational leaders, 6% is equivalent to one person!

Well, that's all for now

Bill

**About the Work Settings of the Educational Leaders
of Atlanta, Baltimore, and Milwaukee**

Most of the educational leaders (79%) in the three communities work as the principal or director of their school. The remaining 21% hold administrative or supervisory positions below the top position in their school. Thirty-six percent of the educational leaders work in a day school, 43% in a supplementary school, and 21% in a pre-school.

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 (22%) with the Reform Movement. Eleven percent work in schools that are designated as community schools. Seven percent of educational leaders indicated that their schools are traditional, and 4% are located within Jewish Community Centers. The remaining 4% reported that their schools are independent or have no affiliation.

The relative proportion of schools affiliated with each movement are not the same for each type of setting (i.e., day, supplementary, or pre-school). Slightly more than half of the day schools (54%) are Orthodox, while 62% of the supplementary schools are affiliated with the Reform or Conservative movements. The pre-schools are distributed pretty evenly among the movements.

The size of the pre-schools directed by the educational leaders range from eight students to 250 students. The supplementary schools range in size from 42 students to approximately 1000 students, and the day schools from 118 to approximately 1075.

Who are the Educational Leaders?

Demographics

Most of the educational leaders in the Jewish schools of the three communities (66%) are female. Every pre-school educational leader is a female. In the supplementary schools, 61% are female. Only in the day schools is there an almost equal number of male (48%) and female (52%) educational leaders. Ninety-five percent of educational leaders are married. The median age of the educational leaders is 44. Only 6% are younger than thirty. All of those who are under 30 work in supplementary schools, accounting for 14% of educational leaders within this setting. Overall, 22% are in their thirties, 55% in their forties, and only 16% are fifty or older. The educational leaders are predominantly American-born (88%) Only 7% were born in Israel, and 5% in other countries.

Religious Affiliation and Observance

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. The overwhelming majority (97%) belong to a synagogue.

The educational leaders differ ??? from the general Jewish population, as reported by Barry Kosmin in "Highlights...". As Table indicates, all of the educational leaders light candles on Hanukkah and attend a Passover Seder. Over 75% of them, regardless of their denominational affiliation or the setting in which they work, fast on Yom Kippur and light Shabbat candles. Over 50% of all educational leaders, celebrate Israeli Independence Day, observe Shabbat, build a Sukkah, keep kosher at home, and even fast on Tisha B'Av and other minor fasts. In comparison...

More than 80% of the educational leaders attend synagogue on the High Holidays, usually for Shabbat, and on the festivals of Passover, Sukkah, or Shavuot. Fifty-two percent of the Orthodox attend synagogue daily, 21% of the Conservative and Reconstructionist, and less than 15% of those who identify themselves either as Reform or Traditional. *In comparison ...*

???? UNCERTAIN AS TO WHETHER TO REPORT THIS BY SETTING - EITHER WAY SUGGEST TABLE WITH PERCENTAGES FOR TOTAL AND BY SETTING ????

For some religious practices, the percentages differ substantially between settings. In day schools, over three-quarters of the educational leaders observe Shabbat, build a Sukkah, and keep kosher at home. Sixty-three percent of day school educational leaders fast on Tisha B'Av or other minor fasts. While 79% of supplementary educational leaders indicated that they observe Shabbat 58% keep Kosher at home, 54% build a Sukkah and only 39% fast on Tisha B'Av. Among pre-school educational leaders, less than 40% observe Shabbat, build a Sukkah, keep Kosher at home, or fast on Tisha B'Av.

While over 90% of educational leaders working in day or supplementary schools usually attend synagogue for Shabbat and for the festivals of Passover, Sukkot, or Shavuot, only 82% and 67% (respectively) attend among pre-school educational leaders. In addition, while 42% of day school educational leaders reported attending synagogue daily, and 25% from supplementary schools, none of the pre-school educational leaders indicated that they attend synagogue daily. (Some of the difference between settings could be attributed to the greater proportion of day schools which are Orthodox as compared to the supplementary and pre-schools)

Recruitment and Experience

Entering Jewish Education

Educators have entered the field of Jewish education for a variety of reasons. When asked about the importance of several possible reasons, the educational leaders in the three communities indicated that those factors which are intrinsic to the practice of Jewish education (e.g., working with children, teaching about Judaism) were more important than extrinsic factors (e.g., salary, career advancement). As Table indicates, working with children (83%), teaching about Judaism (75%), and serving the Jewish community (82%), were rated as very important motivating factors by the highest percentage of educational leaders. 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 such as the full-time nature of the profession was considered to be a very important reason by only 25% of the educational leaders and to be either somewhat or very unimportant by 39%. Similarly, opportunities for career advancement was rated as very important by 18%, while 48% of the educational leaders considered it to be either somewhat or very unimportant. Near the bottom end, 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 either somewhat or very 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 only somewhat or very unimportant.

Types of Educational Experience

As Table illustrates, the educational leaders of the three communities show a considerable diversity of experience in their educational careers. Every educational leader has had some type of experience in formal or informal education before assuming their current position. 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 almost half (48%) have worked in a Jewish camp or youth group. The large majority of educational leaders (83%) have worked 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 between 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. Of the remaining 32%, all have had experience teaching or as an administrator in a supplementary setting. In total, 75% of day school educational leaders have worked in a supplementary setting, while only 7% have worked in a pre-school. Fifty-four percent of day school educational leaders have worked in Jewish camps, 43% in adult education, 25% in youth groups, and 14% in a JCC.

Among supplementary educational leaders, 79% have taught in a supplementary school before assuming their current position. In contrast to day school educational leaders, only 33% have taught in the other's (i.e., day school) setting. Similar to day school educational leaders, very few supplementary educational leaders (15%) have worked in a pre-school. Fifty-two percent of supplementary educational leaders have worked in adult education, 45% in youth groups, 39% in camps, and 27% in a JCC.

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 worked in supplementary settings and the same percentage (31%) in camps. Only 12% have worked in the following settings: day schools; youth groups; adult education; and JCCs.

The educational leaders currently employed in day or supplementary schools show the greatest diversity of experience. Only 11% of day school educational leaders and 9% of supplementary school educational leaders have worked only in their current setting. In contrast, 44% of pre-school educational leaders have worked only in a pre-school setting during their career in Jewish education. Moreover, while three-quarters of day school educational leaders have worked in a supplementary setting and one-third of supplementary school educational leaders have worked in a day school, only 7% and 15% (respectively) have worked in pre-schools. Compared to their colleagues currently working in day and supplementary settings, pre-school educational leaders have relatively segregated career paths.

Recent Recruitment

As shown in Table , the majority of educational leaders (63%) found their current positions through recruitment efforts by the school. Nineteen percent of all educational leaders 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 44% found their position through institutions other than the school. 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 , 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 a religious movement (i.e., Orthodox, Traditional, Conservative, Reform), almost 100% of the educational leaders have a personal affiliation of the same type or one level more observant. 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. In addition, 44% of educational leaders (who belong to a synagogue) teach in the synagogue to which they belong. Among the supplementary schools, the proportion is 62%.

In addition to the religious affiliation of the school and the community in which the school was located, the reputation of the school was rated as very important by a high percentage (62%) of pre-school educational leaders, though only by 36% of those who work in day or supplementary schools. 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.

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 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 been working in it for 5 years or less. Day school educational leaders show the greatest seniority with 96% having worked in Jewish education for over 10 years. While comparatively lower, still 70% of supplementary school educational leaders have worked in Jewish education for over 10 years and only 15% for five years or less. Among pre-school educational leaders, 69% have been employed in Jewish education for over 10 years.

While they have considerable tenure in the field of Jewish education, the educational leaders are comparatively new to their current communities. Only 45% of the educational leaders have worked in their current community for over 10 years, while 30% have worked in their current community for 5 years or less. Pre-school educational leaders show the most communal stability, with only 6% having worked in the community for 5 years or less.

Most educators have moved from (at least) one city to another during their career in Jewish education. Only 36% of educational leaders have spent all their years in Jewish education in their current community. Again, pre-school educational leaders show the highest degree of communal stability with 56% having worked in only their current community. Supplementary school educational leaders show the least with only 27% having worked in only their current community. Among those who work in day schools, 36% have worked only in their own community. When asked if they had moved to the community in order to take their current position, 56% percent of day school educational leaders and 35% of supplementary school educational leaders (who had moved during their career) indicated that they had. Notably, none of the pre-school educational directors had moved to the community in order to take their current position.

Once they have moved to their current community, 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 their current setting. Day school educational leaders show the highest degree of stability 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 less than 5 years or less in their current setting, given their future plans their institutional tenure should rise continually over time. As illustrated in Table , the large majority of educational leaders (78%) plan to remain as an administrator or supervisor 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 new 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.

Implications

as part of Implications: Given their future plans, and the fact that 95% of the educational leaders consider Jewish education to be their career, ...

Conditions and Sentiments about Work

Nature of Employment

Almost 83% of educational leaders are employed in only 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. 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 report being employed full-time, as does 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 educational leaders employed only part-time (22%), almost half (44%) prefer to be working full-time in Jewish education.

Salary

As Table indicates, despite the predominantly full-time nature of the work, one-third of the educational leaders earn less than \$30,000 a year. Slightly more than half of the educational leaders (51%) earn \$40,000 or more, and 30% earn over more than \$60,000 a year.

Salaries for 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 a year, while 58% earn over \$60,000 a year. Forty-seven percent of supplementary school educational leaders earn less than \$30,000 a year, and only 20% earn over \$60,000. Among pre-school educational leaders, 50% earn less than \$30,000, and none of them reported earning more than \$60,000 a year.

For the majority of educational leaders, the salary they earn from Jewish education accounts for more than half their family income. The percentages differ across settings in a manner similar to the differences in salary level across settings (as detailed above). For day school educational leaders, roughly 85% obtain half their family income from their work in Jewish education. Among those who work in supplementary schools, slightly more than 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.

As shown in Table , only 9% of all educational leaders reported that they are very satisfied with their salary. 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 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.

Benefits

As shown in Table , 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 53% of pre-school educational leaders. Among those employed in day schools, 57% indicate 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 (such as High Holiday tickets), and 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.

As Table indicates, 79% of day school educational leaders are offered health benefits and 71% pensions, while for only 18% are synagogue privileges made available. In contrast, only 48% of supplementary educational leaders are offered health benefits and 42% pensions, while 58% are offered synagogue privileges. Among those employed in pre-schools, only 44% are offered health benefits, 38% pensions, and 25% synagogue privileges. While increased health and pension benefits are a concern among supplementary and pre-school educational leaders, the availability of synagogue privileges seems of greater concern to the day school educational leaders. This may be due in part to the relative availability of health and pension benefits for day school educational leaders. Eighty-six percent of day school, 76% of supplementary school, and 81% of 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 make it not 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. 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.

Sentiments about other Work Conditions

In comparison to their expressed dissatisfaction with benefits and salary, the educational leaders indicated relative satisfaction with the other conditions of their work. Only 18% of the educational leaders reported being either somewhat or very dissatisfied with the number of hours of employment available, while 34% were very satisfied. Only 26% 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.

While the educational leaders may be satisfied with the number of hours of employment available, as illustrated in Table , they were not uniformly satisfied with the amount of time they spend on their various roles. Across all settings, the educational leaders were most satisfied with the amount of time they spend on parent and constituent relations. Eight-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). 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%). *[Some of this may be usefully integrated into*

the section on Leading a School Community.]

Implications

As part of implications Connect the finding of similar levels of pre-service and in-service among day school and supplementary school educational leaders to the findings on the disparity in salary and benefit levels!

As part of Implications: The availability (or non-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. *[Compare percentages from this data to general education concerning availability of sabbatical leave and tuition for adult education, if available.]* Thus, 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.

Adam/Ellen,

I haven't read through the whole draft in detail, but I have some comments and the additional information that you requested.

A.

In looking over the report, I realized that I forgot to include the material on what would "enhance" their overall effectiveness as an educational leader. The two items that more than 50% of the educational leaders (as a group) indicated would enhance their effectiveness are additional funding for programs and additional support staff. (Only 28% of day school leaders indicated the latter. Instead, 43% indicated additional funding for resources and materials.) So, more money and more support staff. The only really INTERESTING finding is that only 12% of the educational leaders thought that increased availability of consultants would enhance their effectiveness! This held across settings.

Originally, this information was to go into the section Conditions and Sentiments about Work. Perhaps, along with the information on the support they receive from other educational leaders (see B below), this is better placed in the section Leading a School Community.

B.

I didn't notice any material on the relationship of the support that educational leaders receive from each other and from educational leaders in central agencies and universities - this mainly comes from Q#28. This may fit nicely in the summary to Leading a School Community (though in Adam's original outline it was under Professional Growth). I think the data shows the following:

1. Infrequent help and support from their colleagues WITHIN their community. Supplementary school educational leaders indicate the highest level of collegial support, and pre-schools the lowest. (Notably, Ellen reports that pre-school educational leaders are the most isolated in their schools, and I reported that they have the most segregated career paths.)
2. Except for the day school educational leaders, most educational leaders seldom or never receive support from their colleagues OUTSIDE of their community.
3. About 70 to 75% of educational leaders seldom or never receive support from a local university.
4. In total, most (61%) educational leaders receive frequent or occasional support from central agency personnel. Of course, supplementary school educational leaders receive the most support and day school educational leaders the least.
5. Across all settings, half or more than half of the educational leaders seldom or never receive support from their national movements. In total, only 5% receive support frequently.

C.

I have two suggestions on the "Implications" section for Collegiate Background and Training:

1. I think the % of supplementary school educational leaders who are trained as compared to their day school colleagues (about the same) is worth highlighting in the implications section.
2. I think the severe lack of Jewish studies training among pre-school teachers is also worth highlighting, especially if we can compare them to their teachers (who have an almost equivalent lack of training in Jewish studies) - As a whole, pre-school educational leaders are not better trained in Jewish studies than their teachers.

D.

Here's the additional info you requested on the Educational Leaders Report:

1. On the affiliation of schools by setting ("Positions and Types of Schools"): The percentages are for individuals not schools! [Thanks!] Thus, the language is incorrect. I suggest eliminating this paragraph, as we can't produce percentages for schools.
2. On the importance of reasons for entering Jewish education (2nd paragraph of "Entering Jewish Education"): I reported the percentages of educational leaders who indicated "very important" and the percentages of educational leaders who indicated EITHER "somewhat unimportant" or "very unimportant". Thus, the rest ($25 + 39 = 64$, $100 - 64 = 26\%$) indicated "somewhat important". The Table will show all the percentages. MY ONLY QUESTION IS, SHOULD THIS TABLE (#1) HAVE FOUR COLUMNS OR THREE? SHOULD I GROUP "SOMEWHAT UNIMPORTANT" AND "VERY UNIMPORTANT" IN THE TABLE AS I DID IN THE PARAGRAPH?
3. On average attendance at summer camp ("Pre-Collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds"): The numbers for those educational leaders who attended at for at least one year are:

TOTAL	mean=4.7	median=4
Day school:	mean=6.1	median=5
Supplementary:	mean=4.0	median=3
Pre-school:	mean=4.0	median=4

THUS, the following sentence - "This figure is consistent for leaders in all settings" - will not hold.
4. On % with training in educational administration ("Collegiate Background and Training"):

"In total, 27% are trained on educational administration."
 "Of the rest, 35% received some graduate credits in administration ..."

5. On % of those with training in administration, general education, and Jewish studies ("Training for Educational Leadership Positions"):

Day School:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	11%	26%	4%	--
Not Trained in Admin.	30%	7%	15%	7%

Supplementary:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	--	13%	3%	3%
Not Trained in Admin.	29%	35%	13%	3%

Pre-school:	Trained in General Educ.	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies	Trained in Neither
Trained in Admin.	12%	6%	--	--
Not Trained in Admin.	50%	6%	--	25%

NOTES: For the pre-school educational leaders, 6% is equivalent to one person! For day school, 4% = 1 person. For supplementary school, 3% = 1 person.

Since the resulting percentage change of two persons being different (i.e., having or not having training in administration) is often equal to the differences between settings when broken down by training in general education and Jewish studies (e.g., 6% vs. 13%), I would suggest NOT reporting this data.

Bill

facsimile

TRANSMITTAL

to: ADAM GAMORAN
fax #: (608) 265-5389
re: Tables for Research Report
date: May 13, 1995
pages: 3, including cover sheet.

From the desk of...

Bill Robinson
Field Researcher
CIJE
1525 Wood Creek Trail
Roswell, Georgia 30076

(404) 552-0930
Fax: (404) 998-0860

Table 1. Training in Education and Jewish Studies

SETTING	Trained in General Education Only	Trained in Both	Trained in Jewish Studies Only	Trained in Neither
Day School	24%	35%	24%	16%
Supplementary School	32%	13%	11%	44%
Pre-school	50%	9%	3%	38%
TOTAL	35%	19%	12%	34%

Note: Rows may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Table 2. In-service Workshops Attended (mean number of workshops attended over two years, by teachers who have attended at least one workshop and excluding first year teachers)

SETTING	Average # of workshops
Day School	3.8
Supplementary School	4.4
Pre- school	6.2
TOTAL	4.8



From: EUNICE:"74104.335@compuserve.com" 15-MAY-1995 19:44:46.38
To: Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>
CC: Adam Samorin <asamorin>
Subject: Motivating the Educational Leaders Report

Ellen (and Adam),

I was reading over the educational leaders report with two things in mind: what is most important to include for the individual city reports and what can motivate those sections (that I wrote) which lack motivation. I wrote down what I considered to be the main highlights of the sections that I wrote, and some possible implications (that I had not considered before).

HIGHLIGHTS:

High levels of stability and commitment to Jewish education:

- Almost all see Jewish education as their career.

- Most have worked for a considerable amount of time in Jewish education.

- The large majority plan to remain in Jewish education and in their current school.

Yet, high levels of communal and setting instability:

- Most educational leaders have worked in a variety of Jewish educational settings, as well as in general education.

- Most have moved from one community to another during their career in Jewish education.

Yet, successful recruitment takes place mostly through the efforts of individual schools:

- Only 14% of educational leaders were recruited into their current position through non-school institutions, such as central agencies and national institutions.

IMPLICATIONS:

In-service education for educational leadership (among educational leaders and would-be leaders) should take place across settings and across communities.

There is seemingly a market for national-level recruitment efforts.

CAVEAT:

The above profile does not hold for pre-school educational leaders. They have worked almost exclusively in pre-school settings and most have worked always in the same community.

OTHER HIGHLIGHTS:

Educational leaders value intrinsic rewards over extrinsic, material ones.

Yet, they are still dissatisfied with the salary and benefits that they receive.

With the above in mind, I think a different order to the sections may work better. For instance, perhaps "Recruitment and Experience" should follow "Professional Growth" in a manner similar to the Policy Brief. It would give the former better motivation/significance. I may have some other minor suggestions about removing parts and re-ordering parts, which I will save until we produce a whole draft.

Bill



DRAFT – COMMENTS WELCOME

**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**

May 31, 1995

EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN JEWISH SCHOOLS

1. Introduction and Purpose

Leadership in today's schools is complex and challenging, encompassing numerous roles. Educational leaders 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.

Despite these complexities, research on effective schools has documented the following:

- * Educational leaders are key to effective schools.
- * The quality of an educational program depends on its leaders.
- * Leadership is an important factor in providing teachers with continual growth and development.
- * The principal is a crucial factor in determining a school's culture.

How can educational leaders in our Jewish schools meet these challenges? How can they best be prepared to lead their schools effectively? How can they develop practices that enhance Jewish content and Jewish learning? This 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.

This report addresses four main questions: (1) How are educational leaders recruited to Jewish education and what are their career tracks? (2) What are the training experiences and professional growth opportunities for educational leaders? (3) What are the work conditions and

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

The report highlights the long-term commitment of the educational leaders to Jewish education, their strong backgrounds in education, but their inadequate preparation in Jewish studies and in administration and supervision. Furthermore, it presents their dissatisfaction with salary and benefits and their desire for more active community involvement in Jewish education. The report addresses the need for continual professional growth and development for all educational leaders.

2. Methods

A survey of educational leaders was conducted in Atlanta, Baltimore, and Milwaukee, the three Lead Communities of the CJIE. 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 supervisors and 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 79 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). 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.

Positions and Types of Schools

Most of the educational leaders (79%) who responded to the survey are principals or directors of their schools. The remaining 21% 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. 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 relative proportion of schools affiliated with each movement are not the same for each type of setting (i.e., day, supplementary, or pre-school). Slightly more than half of the respondents work day schools (54%) that are Orthodox, while 62% of the educational leaders work in supplementary schools affiliated with the Reform or Conservative movements. The pre-school educational directors are more evenly distributed among the movements.

The educational leaders work in schools with a 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 118 to about 1075 students.

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.

3. Careers in Jewish Education: Recruitment and Experience

Most educational leaders do not enter the field of Jewish education specifically to pursue a career in leadership, administration or supervision. They do not prepare for a career in educational leadership without first entering the field of Jewish education as teachers. Consequently, most of the educational leaders are attracted to the field of Jewish education for reasons similar to those of teachers. In addition, because the large majority of leaders have been teachers, they have a wealth of experience in the field of Jewish education as they have moved through the ranks from teacher to administrator. They are truly committed to a career in Jewish education. 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 as change agents in their schools.

Entering Jewish Education

The reasons educational leaders enter Jewish education closely parallel the same factors reported by teachers. Most do not enter the field of education with a planned pursuit of leadership and administrative positions. 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 1 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 their souls. My number one priority is to develop their love for who they are 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 48% 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.

Nature of Employment

Almost 83% of educational leaders are employed in only one, 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 to be working full-time in Jewish education, while the other half prefer their part-time status.

Types of Educational Experience

As Table 2 illustrates, the educational leaders of the three communities show considerable diversity of experience in their educational careers. All the respondents have previous experience in formal or informal education before assuming their current positions, and there is considerable movement between 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 almost half (48%) have worked in a Jewish camp or youth group. The large majority of educational leaders (83%) have worked 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. Of the remaining 32%, all have had experience as teachers or administrators in supplementary settings. In total, 75% of day school educational leaders have worked in a supplementary setting, while only 7% have worked in a pre-school. Fifty-four percent of day school educational leaders have worked in Jewish camps, 43% in adult education, 25% in youth groups, and 14% in a JCC.

Among supplementary educational leaders, 79% have taught in a supplementary school before assuming their current position. Whereas three-quarters of day school leaders have taught in supplementary schools, only one-third of supplementary school leaders have taught in day schools. Few day school or supplementary school leaders have worked in a pre-school. Fifty-two percent of supplementary educational leaders have worked in adult education, 45% in youth groups, 39% in camps, and 27% in a JCC.

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 worked in supplementary settings and the same percentage (31%) in camps. Only 12% have worked in day schools, and the same for youth groups, adult education, and JCCs.

Compared to their colleagues currently working in day and supplementary settings, pre-school educational leaders have relatively segregated career paths. Among pre-school leaders, 44% have worked 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 three-quarters of day school educational leaders have worked in a supplementary setting and one-third of supplementary school educational leaders have worked in a day school, only 7% and 15% (respectively) have worked 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, 56% percent of day school and 35% of supplementary school educational leaders

said yes. Notably, none of the pre-school educational directors had moved to the community in order to take their current position.

As shown in Table 3, the majority of educational leaders (63%) found their current positions through recruitment efforts by individual schools. Nineteen percent of all educational leaders 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 44% found their position through institutions other than the school. 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 4, 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. Since most of the leaders are women, the importance of a specific community is most likely related to the employment opportunities of their spouses.

Among educational leaders who work in schools affiliated with 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. 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. Overall, 43% of educational leaders work in the synagogue to which they belong, and among supplementary school leaders, this proportion is 64%.

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. Many 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 5 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 or less experience. Day school educational leaders show the greatest seniority with 96% having worked in Jewish education for over 10 years. While comparatively lower, still 70% of supplementary school educational leaders have worked in Jewish education for over 10 years and only 15% for five years or less. Among pre-school educational leaders, 69% have been employed in

Jewish education for over 10 years. 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 show the most communal stability, 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 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. The relative mix of novice and experienced educational leaders, provide rich opportunities for professional growth experiences through mentoring, networking and peer coaching.

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 will likely rise continually over time. As illustrated in Table 6, 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.

Implications

The educational leaders in the three communities are 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 training of the 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 important implications: First, the educational leaders have been socialized into Jewish education over a long number of years. They have widespread experiences about teaching and learning. Without new professional growth experiences it

may be difficult for leaders to revise impressions, ideas and orientations that they acquired as teachers. Second, only 14% of the educational leaders were recruited into their current positions through non-school institutions such as central agencies and national associations. There is seemingly a market for national-level recruitment and networking efforts. Third, there are both novice and experienced educational leaders, and educators 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 segregated career paths.) This mix may provide opportunities for professional development at the communal level.

A fourth point, which will be addressed in the next section in complete detail, is that since educational experiences and factors that motivated the leaders to enter Jewish education are closely related to teaching, perhaps more emphasis is needed on training, internships, and professional development in areas directly related to leadership. This suggestion is further supported given the relatively short tenure of the educational leaders in their current positions relative to their overall experience in Jewish education. Professional renewal is extremely important for educational leaders, especially since most of the educational leaders desire to remain in their present positions.

4. Professional Training

The professional background and training of educational leaders in Jewish schools has three components: general education, Judaica, and leadership. According to the highest standards, educational leaders in Jewish schools should have credentials in all three of these areas. This is the model followed in public schools. Principals have training in education along with teaching certification, and have a degree in a content area. (In the case of Jewish education, content areas include Jewish Studies, Hebrew, or related fields.) These two credentials are not sufficient for incumbents of leadership positions; high standards call for intensive administrative training as well. Leadership and administration pose new and different challenges for educators. These new challenges

and job requirements require knowledge, skill, and understanding as well as opportunities for reflection and conceptualization in areas such as leadership, planning, budgeting, decision-making, supervision, change and understanding the larger organizational and social context in which education takes place. According to this view, the knowledge base in the field of educational administration should be mastered by those in leadership positions.

This section describes the backgrounds in education, Jewish content areas, and educational administration of the educational leaders in the three communities. The educational leaders are well educated generally. Many have professional backgrounds in education or Jewish content areas, but few have training in educational administration, and fewer have substantial preparation in all three areas. Pre-school educational leaders have the least amount of formal preparation for leadership in Jewish schools.

Pre-Collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds

How were the educational leaders socialized towards Jewish education as children? Table 7 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.

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 schooling post 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. For those who did receive Jewish schooling post bar-mitzvah, day and supplementary school educational leaders were most likely to attend day schools or schools in Israel after the age of 13, rather than supplementary schools, while pre-school leaders were more likely to

attend one day a week Sunday schools. It seems that as children, many pre-school educational leaders did not have intensive Jewish schooling.

Although some 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 report 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 are equally as likely to indicate that have visited Israel, but pre-school leaders are 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

General education. The educational leaders in the three communities are highly educated. Table 8 shows that 96% of all of the leaders have college degrees, and 64% have graduate degrees. Day school educational leaders are the most likely to hold graduate degrees, followed by supplementary school leaders. The majority of the leaders, 62%, hold degrees from universities. 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-one percent of pre-school leaders hold a college degree and only 12% 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.

Formal background in Judaica. Very few educational leaders are formally trained in Jewish Studies or Jewish education. A total of 43% of all leaders are certified in Jewish education, and only 37% hold degrees in Jewish studies (see Table 9). Supplementary and day school leaders are the most likely to hold certification and/or degrees in Jewish education. Forty-eight percent of day and 50% 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 17% are certified in Jewish education.

Educational administration. Educational leaders in Jewish school have very little formal preparation in the areas of educational administration, leadership or supervision (see Table 10). We define formal preparation in educational administration as either being certified in school administration or holding a degree with a major in administration, leadership 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 Jewish studies 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, leadership or supervision.

As presented in Table 11, only 25% of all the leaders are certified or licensed 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 on 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.

Training for Educational Leadership Positions

To fully explore the background of educational leaders it is important to consider simultaneously training in general education, Judaica, and educational administration. 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 for supplementary leaders is most likely due to programs in Jewish education offered by some of the institutions of higher learning affiliated with synagogue movements.

The pre-school educational leaders have the least amount of training in education and Jewish content (see Table 12). A total of 25% of pre-school educational leaders have neither professional or collegiate degrees in education or Jewish studies. Even in settings where we may expect high levels of formal preparation, such as day schools, half of the educational leaders are untrained in either education or Jewish studies.

As explained earlier, training in educational administration is an important complement to formal preparation in education and content areas. Sixteen percent of educational leaders are very well trained, that is, they hold professional or university degrees in education, 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, the remaining 74% are missing part of their formal preparation for leadership positions.

An important qualification to these findings is that they emphasize formal schooling and credentials. Jewish content and leadership skills are not only learned in formal settings. Focusing only on formal preparation thus underestimates the extent of Jewish knowledge and leadership abilities among the educational leaders. Nonetheless, the complexities of educational leadership in contemporary Jewish settings demand high standards which include formal preparation in pedagogy, content areas, and leadership and management.

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 shortages of formal training in administration and shorter tenure in leadership positions would make this field the most common area of ongoing study. More generally, we may consider whether educational leaders tend to desire professional development in areas in which they have less extensive preparation.

The educational leaders reported attending few in-service workshops: on average, they attended 5.5 over a two year period. As shown in Figure 3, supplementary and pre-school administrators attended more workshops than did the day school leaders.

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. Three-quarters reported participating in some form of informal study, such as a study group or reading on their own. Overall, the survey results show little sign of extensive professional development among the educational leaders in these communities.

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 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 indicate the highest level of collegial support and pre-school leaders report the lowest.

Other resources for professional growth 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.

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 not as 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, who would 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 13 shows that respondents would like to improve their skills in a variety of areas, most notably in curriculum development (74%) and supervision (71%). 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 13).

The educational leaders also wish to improve their knowledge in a variety of content areas. Table 14 indicates that Hebrew language (59%) is the most sought-after area. (Overall, about 45% of respondents reported limited or no proficiency in spoken Hebrew, and yet the proportion desiring increased Hebrew knowledge was only slightly higher for this group as for others.) Table 14 also

shows that those who lack formal training in Jewish studies do not necessarily express greater desire to improve their knowledge of Judaica.

However, 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 education, but few are well trained overall. Most educational leaders have inadequate backgrounds in Judaica and 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.

Despite the limited formal training of some of the educational leaders, 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. Although most of the educational leaders report that opportunities for professional development are adequate, 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 report 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.

The educational leaders would like to improve their knowledge and skills in a number of areas, including specific topics where they are deficient, 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. One way of developing a professional sense of community is for in-service education and professional development activities to take place across settings and across communities. Given the extent to which the educational leaders have experiences in different settings and in numerous communities, they could serve as important resources for one another.

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. Although the data were presented in regard to separate training components, it is important to point out that we are not advocating 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, BJE's offer in-service workshops in one or the other as isolated events. Where do these meet? 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.

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 the willingness of educational leaders to engage and involve themselves in their work, including continual professional growth activities.

Earnings

As Table 15 indicates, despite the predominantly full-time nature of the work, one-third of the educational leaders earn less than \$30,000 per year. Slightly more than half of the educational leaders (51%) earn \$40,000 or more, and 30% earn over more than \$60,000 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 over \$60,000 per year. Forty-seven percent of supplementary school educational leaders earn less than \$30,000 per year, and only 20% earn over \$60,000. Among pre-school educational leaders, 50% earn less than \$30,000, and none of them reported earning more than \$60,000 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.

For the majority of educational leaders, the salary they earn from Jewish education accounts for more than half their family income. The percentages differ across settings in a manner similar to the differences in salary level for each setting (as detailed above). 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, slightly more than 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 16, 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 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.

Benefits

As Table 17 indicates, fringe benefits differ widely by setting. Given the full-time nature of the educational leader positions, many educational leaders do not receive a substantial benefit package. 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 (i.e., free or reduced membership). 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 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 make it not 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. 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 18, 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 53% of pre-school educational leaders. Among those employed in day schools, 57% indicate 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 (such as High Holiday tickets), and pensions. That is, educational leaders would be more satisfied with benefits package if they were offered synagogue privileges and 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 of their benefits packages.

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. Only 18% of the educational leaders reported being dissatisfied with the number of hours of employment available, while 34% were very satisfied. Twenty-six percent 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, "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."

While the educational leaders may be satisfied with the number of hours of employment available, as illustrated in Table 19, they were not uniformly satisfied with the amount of time they spend on their various roles. Across all settings, the educational leaders were most satisfied with the amount of time they spend on parent and constituent relations. Eight-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. Its' everything. It's everything and anything beyond what principals must have done years ago." Beyond the complexity of the role, complaints include that 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 and additional support staff. One exception is day school educational leaders, who indicated additional funding for materials.

Implications

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. As one progresses in a career, these extrinsic rewards may become more important.

Salary and benefits do not seem to 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 is disparity in salary and benefit levels.

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 to 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. These include such things as access to national conferences, joint planning for activities, and time for observing colleagues on the job.

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 are located both in the middle of the school's hierarchy and in the middle of a political environment. Principals must simultaneously manage four sets of relationships: upward, with their superiors and supervisors, downward with superordinates, laterally with other principals and externally, with parents 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, 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, report high regard for Jewish education from rabbis and supervisors (see Table 20). Ninety-one percent of all educational leaders report that rabbis and supervisors view Jewish education as very important.

Some of the educational leaders reported considerable involvement of rabbis and supervisors in educational programs. As depicted in Table 21, about 40% 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 that there is no involvement from their rabbis and supervisors.

For about half the day school and supplementary school respondents, rabbis seem highly involved 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 a value in learning from your elders."

However, in both day and supplementary schools, about 15% of the educational leaders reported that rabbis are not involved. Moreover, there is much less rabbinical involvement in pre-schools. Thirty-three percent of educational leaders from pre-school settings indicate that there is no

such involvement from rabbis or supervisors in defining school goals, and 43% report 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 22). Once again, it is the pre-school educational leaders who report 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 60% 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 indicate 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. Some educational leaders lamented that they lack status in the community. They are often not represented in Federation committees 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, an adult education program sponsored by several congregations.

Teachers and Colleagues (Staff)

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, 80% of educational leaders report that teachers regard Jewish education as very important, while the remaining 20% report that teachers regard Jewish education as somewhat important (see Table 20).

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 23). However, teachers are not as involved in actual practice as the leaders believe they should. 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. Thirty-percent of supplementary educational leaders reported that teachers are not consulted before critical decisions are made about educational issues, and 24% of supplementary 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 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 have as an educator, 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 indicate 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 10% 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 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 17% in each setting indicating dissatisfaction with lay leader support. Twelve percent of supplementary leaders also reported dissatisfaction with lay leader support.

About 80% of the educational leaders believe that lay leaders should be involved in defining educational goals and discussing curriculum and programs (see Table 24). About 20% of the educational leaders do not believe there should be this level of involvement from lay leaders. The greatest opposition to lay leadership involvement was voiced by day school educational leaders, followed by pre-school leaders. For example, 25% of day school educational leaders disagree with the statement, "lay leaders should have an opportunity to participate in defining school goals, objectives and priorities". There is much less actual involvement of lay leaders in discussing educational programs as educational leaders believe there should be. Although 77% believe there

should be lay leader involvement, only 60% reported that lay leaders are actually involved in discussing programs and curriculum.

There is equal amount of actual and preferred lay leadership involvement in defining school goals across all settings. There is virtually no actual lay leader involved in pre-schools.

Seventy-one percent of pre-school educational leaders strongly disagree with the statement, "lay leaders generally do participate in discussions regarding curriculum and programs".

Implications

Across all settings, educational leaders indicate 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 20). 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 22).

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 reported the least support from rabbis and lay leaders, and as reported earlier, they have the most segregated career paths which probably curtails the forming of relationships with leaders in other types of settings. 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 establishing a successful learning community.

7. Conclusions

From: EAGLE::GAMORAN 13-JUN-1995 11:19:31.05
To: ALAN
Cc: ELLEN, BILL, GAMORAN
Subj: Leaders report / expense reimbursement

Alan,

I'm sorry we didn't have a chance to talk much in Stanford. From your brief comments, I took three points about the Leaders report:

(1) The conclusions need more punch.
WE'D BE GRATEFUL FOR ANY SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS ON WHAT YOU SEE AS IMPORTANT CONCLUSIONS THAT SHOULD BE EMPHASIZED.

(2) What about teacher/leader comparisons?
MY INITIAL REACTION IS THAT WOULD BE TOO MUCH FOR THIS REPORT, BUT WE WILL THINK IT OVER.

(3) A policy brief focusing on early childhood educators (teachers and directors) might be what we should do for the GA.
THIS IS AN INTERESTING SUGGESTION. WHAT DOES THE REST OF THE STAFF THINK? COULD THERE BE AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN TO FOLLOW UP ON THE FINDINGS? POSSIBLY WE COULD FOLLOW THIS UP WITH SUBSEQUENT BRIEFS ON SUPPLEMENTARY SCHOOLS, DAY SCHOOLS, AND WHO KNOWS, MAYBE CAMPS AND YOUTH GROUPS....

I would be delighted to receive your detailed comments by e-mail, but if you don't have time for that, please send your annotated manuscript to Ellen.

On another matter, I do not think the new schedule for reimbursement is reasonable, because 4-6 weeks is far too long a gap. Remember that after you approve expenses, there's another delay while the check is cut. This will result in a time frame of 6-10 weeks for reimbursement.

I suggest you deputize someone in New York, e.g. Gail, to approve routine categories of expenses.

This is not a big deal to me, but I object to the principle of a 4-week gap for reimbursement approval. Also, I don't think this is good for you -- think of the pile of expense forms on your desk when you return! I'd rather have you spending that time reading my papers, wouldn't you?

I do appreciate the notification of the new schedule.

Memorandum

DATE: June 13, 1995
TO: ALL CIJF EMPLOYEE AND CONSULTANTS
FROM: SHELIA ALLENICK
RE: EXPENSE REPORT APPROVALS

As Alan begins to spend more of his time in Israel, expense reports must be submitted for approval according to the following schedule.

Expense reports received in NY
by this date will be processed

prior to ADH trip to Israel.

ADH in Israel

June 15
July 12
August 23

June 18- July 3
July 18-July 30
August 28-September 10

Also, just a reminder that all expense reports must be sent to the New York office for approval before a check can be issued in Cleveland. Sorry for the late notice.



From: ELMNCE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 14-JUL-1995 17:26:53.80
To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>,
myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
CC:
Subj: On public school standards

Ellen & Adam,

I spoke to Dr. Candice Norton in Georgia's Professional Standards Commission. She's sending me a whole packet of materials. But, she gave me the basic story on the phone. I think you'll like this!

All building and system level administrators in Georgia's public school system must obtain a Leadership Certificate in Administration and Supervision. To do this, they must have the following:

- 1) a Masters degree in Administration and Supervision;
- 2) 3 years of acceptable (i.e., teaching) experience;
- 3) have or be eligible for a teaching or service field (e.g., speech therapy) certificate.

Then (it gets even better), they must upgrade to an Education Specialist (in administration or supervision) degree within 5 years. (She said this is Level 6 and equivalent to an AED).

In addition, as with teachers, they must continue their studies, obtaining 10 SDU credits or completing 10 college quarter hours every 5 years.

When I receive the packet from her, I'll check over this information and send you copies of the appropriate documents.

Bill



2

From: EUNICE: "73321.12370compuserve.com" 13-JUN-1995 15:33:28.66
To: Adam <gammoran>, Alan <73321.12270compuserve.com>,
Ellen <edluriet@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>,
Ginny <73321.12370compuserve.com>, Nessa <74671.33700compuserve.com>,
Bill Robinson <74104.73350compuserve.com>
CC: Barry <73321.12210compuserve.com>, Gail <73321.12170compuserve.com>
Subject: Educational leaders report

Dear Group,

I've just read the draft report and found it very interesting. I'm not the expert on such things, but I couldn't help thinking as I read it that I know an awful lot of public school educational leaders who have all the right training, and are "deadly" leaders. Clearly, their certification and training alone aren't enough. It would be interesting to know how the backgrounds of Jewish educational leaders compare to those of successful leaders of independent secular schools, where the certification and administrative degrees are also not required.

In any case, I have a list of corrections to suggest:

- p. 13 - paragraph 3 - line 6: remove "as" after equally and insert "they" after that.
- p. 14 - 1st line in section on "educational administrations" add "s" to school.
- p. 15 - line 3 - change "on" to "in"
- p. 15 - 3rd full paragraph - line 2 - last word should be "nor"
- p. 15 - last paragraph - 2nd sentence - needs something other than a "," after trained.
- p. 17 - paragraph 2 - line 4 - add "ment" to "develop"
- p. 22 - 1st full paragraph - line 3 - I would move "not" before "make." Less awkward.
- p. 22 - last paragraph - line 7: remove "," after privileges; line 8 - insert "their" before "benefits;" last line - replace "of" with "with"
- p. 23 - 4th line from bottom - "eighty-eight"
- p. 24 - 1st full paragraph - line 5 - put "," after budgets. Same line - you have the same phrase twice: "It's everything." If that's what you mean to do, fix where you have the "s".
- p. 25 - 2nd paragraph - line 4 - remove "to" after emulate.
- p. 25 - 3rd paragraph - line 2 - can you come up with a better word than "things?" How about "opportunities?"
- p. 25 - last paragraph - line 3 - do you want a / between and/or?
- p. 26 - 3rd paragraph - I suggest you remove that sentence/paragraph. Doesn't do anything.
- p. 26 - last paragraph - end of first line is missing the word "in"
- p. 27 - 2nd line - remove "a" between "is" and "value"
- p. 27 - 3rd full paragraph - line 5 - last word should be "on"
- p. 28 - 1st full paragraph - end of line 4 is missing the word "be"
- p. 28 - 2nd full paragraph - 1st line - should there be some number after "thirty-" and twice in the same sentence you have the word "supplementary" where I think the word "school" should follow.
- p. 29 - last paragraph - should the word "an" follow There is ...; Next sentence - do you mean "involvement" rather than "involved"
- p. 30 - 1st paragraph - line 2 - "form" should be "from"; last line of same paragraph - should be "fellow"
- p. 32 - 1st paragraph - line 5 - replace "recourse for" with "resource to"
- p. 32 - 2nd paragraph - line 1 - should read "knowledge and skills"
- p. 32 - 4th paragraph - line 1 - remove "the" after "part-time nature"
- p. 33 - 2nd paragraph - line 1 - add "," after leaders

These are obviously little nit picks. Feel free to ignore any with which you don't agree.
Ginny

To: Adam (gamoran), Ellen (GOLDRIEB@cfvax.vanderbilt.edu),
Bill Robinson (74104.7375@compuserve.com)

CC:
Subj: Educational Leaders

June 14, 1995

To: Ellen, Adam and Bill
From: Nessa
CC: CIJE staff

I want to try to respond to the paper on educational leaders. These comments are not "comprehensive and systematic": If I were to review the paper with pen in hand, I would probably have more to say, but you wouldn't get my comments in a timely fashion!

Despite the fact that, sentence by sentence, the paper is clear, it is nevertheless hard for me to grasp its overall "meaning." The report gives the impression of being a mixture of data and policy, but is not yet organized in a way that makes it possible for me to separate the major from the minor, or the interpretation from the facts. (What is the analogue to "undertrained but surprisingly committed"? Or perhaps this a more complex story?)

A concrete example: On p. 7, you say: "Notably, none of the pre-school educational directors had moved to the community in order to take their current position." I understand the sentence but I don't understand the "notably" for its educational implications. Is it good that the pre-school directors have been part of the community for longer? Does that make them more effective leaders? Have they stayed or will they stay longer in their current jobs as a result?

Another example: What are the policy implications of the finding that recruitment efforts by institutions beyond the school are a minority factor in how the leaders found their current jobs? (also p. 7). Is it good for the quality of education that most leaders have been recruited by the schools? Or is it better for national institutions to get involved? And, in the latter case, would that make for better or worse leadership in the schools?

Then I asked myself: Is there a line of argument building in this paper? I thought that if I looked at the organization of the paper, I might understand it better. (I've appended the list of headings to this memo; some of what follows alludes to that list.)

P. 1: Introduction and Purposes: This section is critical and needs more context, at least for this reader. The four points on the first page are quite cryptic. Are these points new, in the sense that they were not always thought to be the case? What "research on effective schools" has demonstrated this? It worries me that for the phrase "Despite these complexities..." I could substitute the phrase "Because of these complexities" and the language of the first two paragraphs need not be changed.

"The purpose of this report is to stimulate discussion and planning for the professional growth and development of educational leaders in Jewish schools." Given that you reached 77 out of 100, and 58 in-depth, I think that this statement of purpose is a little weaker than it needs to be, and that the summary in the top paragraph on p. 2 doesn't do justice to the comprehensiveness of the study. In any case, the paragraph on p. 2 shouldn't come this early, nor be summarized in this cursory way. (Perhaps there needs to be an "overview" at the beginning of the revised version, if you feel the need to summarize before

1000 exec summ

yes

the end.)

2

Also, is there--or should there be--a distinction between implications and recommendations? (See my comments on "critical findings.") I'm not sure that organizing the implications after each section is effective, compared to a strong final section of recommendations, if in your mind those two are the same thing.

Sequences: One question might be: Why does "training" follow "future plans"? Why does it follow "educational experience"? In the policy brief we began with training. Perhaps we're laying out a different set of issues here, but I would like to understand the sequence of the paper, especially if the goal is to advocate for better in-service training in the two weaker areas of Judaica and administration.

"Leadership": You talk about "leadership," but I was not able to glean whether you as authors believe it is a training attribute separate from "educational administration." Sometimes the two seem to be used interchangeably, and sometimes not. (See the first paragraph on p. 12. The first sentence says: "general education, Judaica, and leadership." The middle of the paragraph says: "Leadership and administration pose new and different challenges...") Also, on pp. 20-21 you make an important point about integrating content and skills in the leadership area. It seems to me this should be said up-front, in defining the terms. (And how would that integration ever be possible in pre-training for those who come from general education?)

On the first page, the list under "research on effective schools has documented the following" seems to take a lot for granted on the part of the reader. I, for example, wouldn't know what the word of knowledge is on "leadership," or even what the definition is. (Is it a function, an attribute of personality, a role?)

Terms and audience: Does using percentages rather than numbers for such a relatively small pool leave us open to criticism? This raises the question of who is the audience for this paper. Is it the educators themselves? Communal leaders? Professionals in the federations and bureaus? The audience is obviously not an academic one (no footnotes, references to studies in general education), in which case I think we need a little more background to the theory of leadership.

Your area of expertise, Ellen, is one I wouldn't even know about if it weren't for my work here. Perhaps the attendees of the Harvard Seminar would be an illuminating microcosm to think about. Did those educators know a lot about what was going in general education on leadership issues? I feel that the opening of this paper was too condensed in bringing to bear knowledge from the world of general education to this analysis. I really wanted more comparisons with general education throughout (like the famous: "In Wisconsin, teachers in general education receive over a 5-year..."). Otherwise, how can I know what these numbers mean? What are mandatory or accepted standards of professional development for leaders in general education? I wanted more information on what we know about "best practices" for the professional development of educational leaders in general education, especially if--which surprised me--the majority of these leaders come from general education. (Or is it that they were trained in general education but experienced in Jewish education?) Is there anything to learn about leaders from studies of other forms of parochial school education (Catholic)? Are those findings different from what is known about leaders in general education?

Comparisons between leaders and teachers: On p. 12, for example, would it be interesting to find out whether leaders were better educated Jewishly as children than teachers in the same schools? We should write this report with the

knowledge that some of our data is already in the public domain, and that we can refer to it if it's salient. The phrasing "very few educational leaders are formally trained in Jewish studies or Jewish education" seems at odds with the way we spoke of comparable data on teachers. That is, if I'm reading this correctly, the figures should correspond to the training background of the teachers, if the leaders are mostly drawn from teachers. It seems as if the figures are comparable. And yet in the policy brief we didn't use the term "very few" for an overall total of 31% formally trained (compared to 37% of leaders, for which we do use the term "very few"). Do we think it's more significant in the leaders than the teachers? Certainly it is shocking to contemplate the implications for "content area." Another example: The ed. leaders attend even fewer workshops than the teachers. Shouldn't we say so? Also, we don't critique the workshops on the "systematic, comprehensive" issue, the way we do for teachers' workshops.

Pre-schools: This seems to be one of the most conspicuous policy areas where our recommendations could make a difference. It seems as if we could conclude that the lack of engagement by rabbis and supervisors is a missed opportunity for communal growth, outreach and "gateways in." But I couldn't glean how much of that lack of engagement is because the schools are not in conventional school settings, and are in JCCs instead. The isolation and segregation of the pre-schools has intriguing implications, and so I'd like to see them articulated in one place in the report.

Supplementary schools: What does it mean that the leaders here are the best trained but the schools are the least highly functioning and regarded? At our recent meeting, the staff indicated that the schools are indeed getting better because of strong leadership. How do we know this? And shouldn't we say so? (And will people believe us?)

Trainings: Identifying the lack of training in educational administration and "leadership" seems to me a real service, as this emerges as a definite "gap in the marketplace." It was surprising that the group is better educated in pedagogy than in Judaica; I guess this corresponds to the teachers, but it seems more striking a gap in the leadership role (and role model) in Jewish schools.

Professional development: What does it mean that they have virtually no professional development but that they don't feel the lack? How can they foster a culture of increased prof. dev. (the CIJE prescription), per your first page, if they don't subscribe to it for themselves? The sentence on p. 17 about the lack of support from national movements is provocative and has policy implications as well (perhaps at odds with the opportunity to do community-wide professional development.) Similarly, the lack of spoken Hebrew proficiency! (And lack of desire for same.) Or: that 31% don't use the money they could use, when the conventional wisdom is that there's no money for professional development. I couldn't glean whether in-service opportunities are offered specifically for this constituency, as distinct from teachers. Is that what the central agencies are doing for their 61%? (p. 17)

Length of experience: If they're in the system for a long time but in their current jobs for a relatively short time, I would think that the consequences to the "culture of the school" of rapid turnover at the top are grave and perhaps should be more strongly emphasized. What would it take to keep them in their current jobs? I don't know if the issue of the "school culture" and the leader's role is explicit enough.

Salaries and benefits: Did I miss your talking about the "crisis in senior personnel" and its effect of artificially inflating the salaries of leaders in certain schools because of a market shortage? What does it mean that the majority are dissatisfied with their benefits and yet many do not use their

benefits? Or that synagogue privileges are important and yet 21% do not use them, even though denominational affiliation is very important to them?

Critical findings: In some cases, the "implications" at the end of each section are more comprehensive and comprehensible than what is articulated here. The critical findings list on p. 20 is less interpretive than the implications in the body of the report, and the proportion should, if a choice needs to be made, be reversed.

Style--and substance!: Even for this format, you might want to box the information on p. 3 in slightly smaller type, unless there are interesting policy conclusions to draw from the demographics: Gender and its relationship to job stability may be more important at the leadership level than for teachers; so may the correlation to "extrinsic factors" on p. 5. It may be important to "even the playing field" in the gender area, and "extrinsic factors" may be key, even if this current constituency doesn't see them as primary. From the perspective of CJE's mission: What does it mean to take seriously a profession a majority of whose current participants do not feel that its full-time nature, opportunities for advancement, level of income and status are significant? After all, our goal is to build a genuine profession, particularly at the leadership level. (I didn't understand why on p. 9 income is not an important factor for entering the field and yet on p. 21 the income is for the majority more than half their family income and they're not very satisfied with their salaries.)

Other implications/puzzlements in my mind: Are we saying that in fact there is not much pre-service training overtly for leadership positions in Jewish education? Are we saying that it's appropriate for leaders to begin as teachers? (Is that how it's done in general education?) Does that mean that most leaders in general education acquire their ed. administration knowledge as part of in-service rather than pre-service training? Or do they go back to school to become ed. leaders? Is there a preferred way?

Minor style points: I would indent and single-space the direct quotes, to highlight them.

Hope this is helpful. And forgive me if I've misread, or missed altogether, points that are indeed in the text.

Nessa

Structure:

1. Introduction and Purpose
2. Methods
 - Positions and Types of Schools
3. Careers in Jewish Education: Recruitment and Experience
 - Entering Jewish Education
 - Nature of Employment
 - Types of Educational Experience
 - Recent Recruitment
 - Length of Experience in Jewish Education
 - Future Plans
 - Implications
4. Professional Training
 - Pre-collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds
 - Collegiate Background and Training
 - Formal Background in Judaism
 - Educational Administration
 - Training for Educational Leadership Positions
 - Professional Growth

- Implications
5. Conditions and Sentiments about Work
Earnings
Benefits
Sentiments about Other Work Conditions
Implications
6. Leading a School Community
Rabbis and Supervisors
Teachers and Colleagues (Staff)
Lay Leader and Parent Involvement
Implications
7. Conclusions: Learning and Leading
Critical Findings
School Level
Local Communal Level
National Level
Learning and Leading



From: ELUNICE: "73721.1217@compuserve.com" 27-JUN-1995 13:06:47.68
To: "INTERNET:GOLDRIE@etrvax" (GOLDRIE@etrvax.vanderbilt.edu)
Cc: Adam <gammoran>, Alan <73721.1220@compuserve.com>,
Barry <73721.1221@compuserve.com>, bill <74104.3335@compuserve.com>,
Ginny <73721.1223@compuserve.com>, nessa <74671.3370@compuserve.com>
Subj: ed leaders response

To: Ellen, Adam and Bill
From: Gail
Cc: CJF Staff

I think that there needs to be a clearer frame for the whole of the paper that lays out an image of the role of ed leader, the type of tasks(roles) that a person needs to be able to manage, the background qualifications needed to do the job (perhaps skills, knowledge, dispositions), a description of professional preparation for the field, and the kind of professional development that is in keeping with norms and standards in the field as a whole in addition to what makes sense given who people are in our sample. I'm also wondering if the answers to some of these framing statements are different for people who are in pre-schools, supplementary schools and day schools. This perhaps merits some conversation amongst ourselves about our stance on this issue.

Here are some page by page comments that vary from nitty-gritty typos and edits to questions about what is our stance.

p. 1, do we want to quote "effective schools" research as our referent here? isn't it thought to be passe as a line of research? Is there a better referencing for this "news" at this point?

p. 4, the first para. is somewhat confusing. What is the essence of the point? You talk about educational leaders being attracted to the field of education for the same reasons as teachers and moving from ranks of teacher to admin. Isn't that true in general ed as well?

also, the idea of ed leaders as change agents is a "big idea". It needs some kind of background and explanation. It's part of what I called before, the framing of the issues.

p. 4, first two sentences of section on entering Jewish ed are redundant.

p. 5 If they entered as teachers, doesn't it make sense that there are ideas are in sync with teachers' ideas. What about difference between ideas for entering the field and ideas as they decided to stay in and become administrators

p. 5 nature of employment:

are the 83% full time or not? does this make a difference?
parenthesis what does settings mean here?
does it matter who goes to find a second job?
feels like there is more that can be learned here about full time, part time and salary?

p. 6 at top-- extra in in first line.

p. 8 third para. in first sentence "among educational leaders" -- it feels as though the sentence doesn't end. "more observant" than....
in last line of that same para., overall, 43%...is it that they work in the movement or in the synagogue -- and where does this put day school leaders and JCC early childhood directors. Is this a misleading statistic? perhaps the only statistic here that makes sense is the one about supp. schools because in our

communities all of them take place within synagogues.

p. 10 issue of novices and experts at end of first para. goes by very quickly. you're trying to make a case for a certain kind of pro dev and networking and I don't think people will "get it" from this "read through"

same page, first line of implications should verb be "were" as opposed to "are"

p. 11 issue of role of national organizations in placement seems very impt. maybe more needs to be said. is there a difference in the way reform Jewish educators talk about this vs. others (my impression is that the reform nat'l network works very well) would a breakdown by denomination help us understand the picture better? is this a question of an expose really in terms of these organizations and their "real" contribution to the field?

p. 11 last sentence, I think needs to read pro development vs renewal or include both; renewal feels like what you do when people are trained.

p. 12, I think perhaps there would be more of a development if first two para were switched around where section contents go first and then the case for how you're thinking about pro dev. is made. In either case -- whether you switch it or leave it as is -- the case for needing all three needs more fleshing out.

p. 13, last line of first para seems to be in wrong place, or at least it doesn't flow from the sentence that comes right before it.

p. 14 -- in opening line of Educational Administration, school needs an s after it.

p. 15 --on needs to be in --3rd line from the top.

p. 15, second para under training I think it's denominational not synagogue movements

p. 15, third para. I'm having trouble with all these percentages. 2/3 of day school ed are untrained in either ed or Jewish studies; on p. 14, 43% of day school ed are certified in Jewish ed and have Jewish studies -- how can both these be true at same time?

p. 15 -16 -- I'm finding the numbers confusing, what is the story we are trying to tell here?

p. 16 -- shouldn't we be giving some credit to the 3/4 who are self motivated and use that as a case for the potential of systematic pro development rather than treat it as an unimportant or inconsequential statistic because by itself it is not systematic

p. 17 -- are there any quotes that buttress the non-helpful nature of pro organizations. again, I ask myself what are we trying to tell here?

p. 19 -- what do you think about the fact that 31% of folk who have access to money for pro dev do not take advantage of it? are the opportunities available not helpful or what? my impression from talking to someone like Sara Lee is that principals at least NATE principals use their money to go to CAJE and NATE and do not have money left over for additional professional dev. Do we have this info segmented by movement and would that tell a different story?

p.20 --top para. that begins the page before is not clear. where do these meet? what kind of question is that? where does it fit in? what is the case you are making about the linking of decision making and planning with Hebrew and text? I can see where sometimes a link is important and other times it might be

inappropriate. Are we making a case for a specific kind of pro dev and if so, what does it look like?

p. 20 section on conditions. is it clear that issues of salaries, benefits suggest implications for willingness of ed leaders to engage and involve themselves in pro activities? I mean do they say as teachers do that these are most imp't things missing for them. I don't see what info supports this hypothesis.

p. 21 the second sentence about benefits doesn't exactly make sense, I know what you mean but I think you need to state the idea more clearly.

p. 23 are the 19% of ed leaders who report being dissatisfied with number of hours of employment part time or full time people? is this a case where part-timeness precludes the hiring of professionals and what we want to be doing is making a case for full time employment of ed leaders (I mean we made such a case for teachers, how much more so for ed leaders?)

p. 23 in last paragraph, fourth line from bottom of page, it should say eighty eight, not eight eight

p. 24 in your estimation, what's the relationship between people's feeling that their roles are not in keeping with their expectations a mark of their unrealistic understanding of the nature of the job and therefore "fixable" by appropriate preparation for the work. My impression has been when I hear this kind of "whining" that people don't really understand the "job" of educational leader.

p. 24 Implications. can we find out from our data what "moved" people from teaching to administration. in some interviews of teachers and principals in LI, full timeness, salary and benefits were factors in moving people out of teaching and into administration. this is one of the reasons that people on the one hand are not prepared and on the other hand, it also speaks to the imp't of full time employment opportunities for teachers and leaders.

p. 25 2nd para. 4th line, "begin to emulate to" isn't good English

p. 26 in section on rabbis and supervisors, I think info needs to be broken down by setting, because many day schools are not congregationally based in which case info about rabbi is irrelevant and misleading. supervisor and rabbi are different categories as well. what does supervisor even mean in the case of these folks?

p. 27 last para of section Adult Academy -- is this Atlanta, if so adult academy is sponsored by JCC not synagogues. Whether or not, this is true, this adult academy is not an instance of a federation activity.

p. 28 how about an example of teachers' non-involvement. seems to me I remember examples from julie's report

also p. 28, bottom para. 7th sentence should read...are satisfied with the respect they have as educators (not as an educator). I'm also wondering if "have as an educator" which appears here and in last sentence should read "are given" and not "have"

p. 29 last para. feel to me that second sentence should read "lay leadership" not lay leader.

p. 31 under school level, this is first mention of JCC's that I remember in paper and it seems to come out of nowhere. I know that pre-schools are in JCC's

but maybe that needs to be introduced as a category somewhere.

p. 32 fourth para. " of the same" shouldn't be there

p. 33 -- I love the Roland Barthes metaphor, but it doesn't seem like it fits here. It should be earlier where you are making a case for pro development.

In summary, our stance and story line are not yet clear enough.



From: EUNICE: "74104.333@compuserve.com" 6-JUL-1995 21:02:37.59
To: Nessa Rapoport <74671.3370@compuserve.com>
Cc: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>, myself <74104.333@compuserve.com>
Subject: On the manual, anchor items and other things

Nessa,

Many of the items (i.e., the Manual itself, the two instruments, the anchor items, etc.) are described in the Manual. In trying to write a couple of sentences on them, I keep turning back to what I wrote... perhaps my thought patterns need a swift kick.

I don't know if you forgot that they are described therein OR if the descriptions are insufficient. If it's the latter, PLEASE e-mail back and I'll write something else about them.

HOWEVER, I did NOT YET write anything about the so-called "software package". So I will now:

First of all, I wouldn't call a "software package", because it makes it sound like it is more than it is. The term implies that we will give them the software already set-up to input the data and create additional variables. All you would have to do is type PUM. This is not the case. Rather it's a code book (one word? hyphen?) to be used with a commercially-available software package.

The Code Book for the CIE Educators Survey should be used in conjunction with SPSS for Windows or a similar statistical software package. It will provide instructions on creating the necessary variables for the data file into which the responses from the returned questionnaires would be entered. The Code Book will contain all the descriptive information and program commands needed to create the additional variables that were used by the MEF team in analyzing the data from the three Lead Communities and in writing the community reports.

In plainer language... when they receive a software package, they need to create a data file (similar but more complex than a spread sheet) into which they enter the responses from each survey. To do this, they must first create the variables (giving each variable a name, assigned values, names for each assigned value, a size and defined missing variables). Then, once all the responses are manually typed into their appropriate place in the data file, they need to create new variables based on the original ones. For example, in the survey we asked about degrees and majors. The survey responses would be typed into the following variables: DEGREE1, MAJOR1A, MAJOR1B, DEGREE2, MAJOR2A, etc. Based on these variables (and others), new variables would be created: JSMAJOR (Do you have a degree with a major in Jewish studies?), TRAIN (Are you formally trained in Jewish studies and/or general education?), etc. Often, these latter variables form the basis for writing the report. The Code Book provides all of the necessary procedures by which to accomplish this.

Again, if you want more info, just ask!

Bill

June 14, 1995

To: Ellen, Adam and Bill
From: Nessa
CC: CIJE staff

I want to try to respond to the paper on educational leaders. These comments are not "comprehensive and systematic": If I were to review the paper with pen in hand, I would probably have more to say, but you wouldn't get my comments in a timely fashion!

Despite the fact that, sentence by sentence, the paper is clear, it is nevertheless hard for me to grasp its overall "meaning." The report gives the impression of being a mixture of data and policy, but is not yet organized in a way that makes it possible for me to separate the major from the minor, or the interpretation from the facts. (What is the analogue to "undertrained but surprisingly committed"? Or perhaps this a more complex story?)

A concrete example: On p. 7, you say: "Notably, none of the pre-school educational directors had moved to the community in order to take their current position." I understand the sentence but I don't understand the "notably" for its educational implications. Is it good that the pre-school directors have been part of the community for longer? Does that make them more effective leaders? Have they stayed or will they stay longer in their current jobs as a result?

Another example: What are the policy implications of the finding that recruitment efforts by institutions beyond the school are a minority factor in how the leaders found their current jobs? (also p. 7). Is it good for the quality of education that most leaders have been recruited by the schools? Or is it better for national institutions to get involved? And, in the latter case, would that make for better or worse leadership in the schools?

Then I asked myself: Is there a line of argument building in this paper? I thought that if I looked at the organization of the paper, I might understand it better. (I've appended the list of headings to this memo; some of what follows alludes to that list.)

P. 1: Introduction and Purpose: This section is critical and needs more context, at least for this reader. The four points on the first page are quite cryptic. Are these points new, in the sense that they were not always thought to be the case? What "research on effective schools" has demonstrated this? It worries me that for the phrase "Despite these complexities..." I could substitute the phrase "Because of these complexities" and the language of the first two paragraphs need not be changed.

"The purpose of this report is to stimulate discussion and planning for the professional growth and development of educational leaders in Jewish schools." Given that you reached 77 out of 100, and 58 in-depth, I think that this statement of purpose is a little weaker than it needs to be, and that the summary in the top paragraph on p. 2 doesn't do justice to the comprehensiveness of the study. In any case, the paragraph on p. 2 shouldn't come this early, nor be summarized in this

cursory way. (Perhaps there needs to be an "overview" at the beginning of the revised version, if you feel the need to summarize before the end.)

Also, is there--or should there be--a distinction between implications and recommendations? (See my comments on "critical findings.") I'm not sure that organizing the implications after each section is effective, compared to a strong final section of recommendations, if in your mind those two are the same thing.

Sequence: One question might be: Why does "training" follow "future plans"? Why does it follow "educational experience"? In the policy brief we began with training. Perhaps we're laying out a different set of issues here, but I would like to understand the sequence of the paper, especially if the goal is to advocate for better in-service training in the two weaker areas of Judaica and administration.

"Leadership": You talk about "leadership," but I was not able to glean whether you as authors believe it is a training attribute separate from "educational administration." Sometimes the two seem to be used interchangeably, and sometimes not. (See the first paragraph on p. 12. The first sentence says: "general education, Judaica, and leadership." The middle of the paragraph says: "Leadership and administration pose new and different challenges...") Also, on pp. 20-21 you make an important point about integrating content and skills in the leadership area. It seems to me this should be said up-front, in defining the terms. (And how would that integration even be possible in pre-training for those who come from general education?)

On the first page, the list under "research on effective schools has documented the following" seems to take a lot for granted on the part of the reader. I, for example, wouldn't know what the body of knowledge is on "leadership," or even what the definition is. (Is it a function, an attribute of personality, a role?)

Terms and audience: Does using percentages rather than numbers for such a relatively small pool leave us open to criticism? This raises the question of who is the audience for this paper. Is it the educators themselves? Communal leaders? Professionals in the federations and bureaus? The audience is obviously not an academic one (no footnotes, references to studies in general education), in which case I think we need a little more background to the theory of leadership.

Your area of expertise, Ellen, is one I wouldn't even know about if it weren't for my work here. Perhaps the attendees of the Harvard Seminar would be an illuminating microcosm to think about. Did those educators know a lot about what was going in general education on leadership issues? I feel that the opening of this paper was too condensed in bringing to bear knowledge from the world of general education to this analysis. I really wanted more comparisons with general education throughout (like the famous: "In Wisconsin, teachers in general education receive over a 5-year..."). Otherwise, how can I know what these numbers mean? What are mandatory or accepted standards of professional development for leaders in general education? I wanted more information on what we know about "best practices" for the professional

development of educational leaders in general education, especially if--which surprised me--the majority of these leaders come from general education. (Or is it that they were trained in general education but experienced in Jewish education?) Is there anything to learn about leaders from studies of other forms of parochial school education (Catholic)? Are those findings different from what is known about leaders in general education?

Comparisons between leaders and teachers: On p. 12, for example, would it be interesting to find out whether leaders were better educated Jewishly as children than teachers in the same schools? We should write this report with the knowledge that some of our data is already in the public domain, and that we can refer to it if it's salient. The phrasing "very few educational leaders are formally trained in Jewish studies or Jewish education" seems at odds with the way we spoke of comparable data on teachers. That is, if I'm reading this correctly, the figures should correspond to the training background of the teachers, if the leaders are mostly drawn from teachers. It seems as if the figures are comparable. And yet in the policy brief we didn't use the term "very few" for an overall total of 31% formally trained (compared to 37% of leaders, for which we do use the term "very few"). Do we think it's more significant in the leaders than the teachers? Certainly it is shocking to contemplate the implications for "content area." Another example: The ed. leaders attend even fewer workshops than the teachers. Shouldn't we say so? Also, we don't critique the workshops on the "systematic, comprehensive" issue, the way we do for teachers' workshops.

Pre-schools: This seems to be one of the most conspicuous policy areas where our recommendations could make a difference. It seems as if we could conclude that the lack of engagement by rabbis and supervisors is a missed opportunity for communal growth, outreach and "gateways in." But I couldn't glean how much of that lack of engagement is because the schools are not in conventional school settings, and are in JCCs instead. The isolation and segregation of the pre-schools has intriguing implications, and so I'd like to see them articulated in one place in the report.

Supplementary schools: What does it mean that the leaders here are the best trained but the schools are the least highly functioning and regarded? At our recent meeting, the staff indicated that the schools are indeed getting better because of strong leadership. How do we know this? And shouldn't we say so? (And will people believe us?)

Training: Identifying the lack of training in educational administration and "leadership" seems to me a real service, as this emerges as a definite "gap in the marketplace." It was surprising that the group is better educated in pedagogy than in Judaica; I guess this corresponds to the teachers, but it seems more striking a gap in the leadership role (and role model) in Jewish schools.

Professional development: What does it mean that they have virtually no professional development but that they don't feel the lack? How can they foster a culture of increased prof. dev. (the CIJE prescription), per your first page, if they don't subscribe to it for themselves? The sentence on p. 17 about the lack of support from national movements is provocative and has policy implications as well (perhaps at odds with the opportunity to do community-wide

professional development.) Similarly, the lack of spoken Hebrew proficiency! (And lack of desire for same.) Or: that 31% don't use the money they could use, when the conventional wisdom is that there's no money for professional development. I couldn't glean whether in-service opportunities are offered specifically for this constituency, as distinct from teachers. Is that what the central agencies are doing for their 61% ? (p. 17)

Length of experience: If they're in the system for a long time but in their current jobs for a relatively short time, I would think that the consequences to the "culture of the school" of rapid turnover at the top are grave and perhaps should be more strongly emphasized. What would it take to keep them in their current jobs? I don't know if the issue of the "school culture" and the leader's role is explicit enough.

Salaries and benefits: Did I miss your talking about the "crisis in senior personnel" and its effect of artificially inflating the salaries of leaders in certain schools because of a market shortage? What does it mean that the majority are dissatisfied with their benefits and yet many do not use their benefits? Or that synagogue privileges are important and yet 21% do not use them, even though denominational affiliation is very important to them?

Critical findings: In some cases, the "implications" at the end of each section are more comprehensive and comprehensible than what is articulated here. The critical findings list on p. 30 is less interpretive than the implications in the body of the report, and the proportion should, if a choice needs to be made, be reversed.

Style--and substance!: Even for this format, you might want to box the information on p. 3 in slightly smaller type, unless there are interesting policy conclusions to draw from the demographics: Gender and its relationship to job stability may be more important at the leadership level than for teachers; so may the correlation to "extrinsic factors" on p. 5. It may be important to "even the playing field" in the gender area, and "extrinsic factors" may be key, even if this current constituency doesn't see them as primary. From the perspective of CIJE's mission: What does it mean to take seriously a profession a majority of whose current participants do not feel that its full-time nature, opportunities for advancement, level of income and status are significant? After all, our goal is to build a genuine profession, particularly at the leadership level. (I didn't understand why on p. 9 income is not an important factor for entering the field and yet on p. 21 the income is for the majority more than half their family income and they're not very satisfied with their salaries.)

Other implications puzzlements in my mind: Are we saying that in fact there is not much pre-service training overtly for leadership positions in Jewish education? Are we saying that it's appropriate for leaders to begin as teachers? (Is that how it's done in general education?) Does that mean that most leaders in general education acquire their ed. administration knowledge as part of in-service rather than pre-service training? Or do they go back to school to become ed. leaders? Is there a preferred way?

Minor style point: I would indent and single-space the direct quotes, to highlight them.

Hope this is helpful. And forgive me if I've misread, or missed altogether, points that are indeed in the text.

Nessa

Structure:

1. Introduction and Purpose
2. Methods
 - Positions and Types of Schools
3. Careers in Jewish Education: Recruitment and Experience
 - Entering Jewish Education
 - Nature of Employment
 - Types of Educational Experience
 - Recent Recruitment
 - Length of Experience in Jewish Education
 - Future Plans
 - Implications
4. Professional Training
 - Pre-collegiate Jewish Educational Backgrounds
 - Collegiate Background and Training
 - Formal Background in Judaica
 - Educational Administration
 - Training for Educational Leadership Positions
 - Professional Growth
 - Implications
5. Conditions and Sentiments about Work
 - Earnings
 - Benefits
 - Sentiments about Other Work Conditions
 - Implications
6. Leading a School Community
 - Rabbis and Supervisors
 - Teachers and Colleagues (Staff)
 - Lay Leader and Parent Involvement
 - Implications
7. Conclusions: Learning and Leading
 - Critical Findings
 - School Level
 - Local Communal Level
 - National Level
 - Learning and Leading

conf call 7/6/95

Ed leaders rpt

- Annette: descrip study is legit
 - not as tight as other paper
 - balance b/w speculat & analysis
- many issues identified
 - CITE will want to take position heavily
 - Jewish content training
 - 1/2 none / little inservice / knowledge Hebrew
 - should be stronger
- impt of ed admin is our view, not everyone's

- ADH: what is general. eval to NAM?
what would results look like w/o HUC educ
w/o rising Ortho

- Annette: fair amt of speculat - lost sense of what finding,
what is speculat
 - need to identify speculat
- p. 9 clar. if this is a finding based on interviews

p. 4 Likert - New Paths of Mgmt - work credits more imp + than salary

- ADH: descriptive doc that lays out, provokes
is good idea

this not for communities, not for outsiders
 Gail: what abt doc for communities

first consult w/ CIST, then broader

Nessa: this paper is a draft away

ADH: need to tighten, focus, w/o policy orientat

- use as basis for CITE discussion

- may result in another document

aim - for Nov 1-2, need policy recs
 based on leaders data

From: EUNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 27-JUL-1995 13:42:16.76
 To: "INTERNET:GOLDRIF@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu" <GOLDRIF@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>
 Cc: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
 Subj: Re: ed. learder report--analyses

Ellen,

Here's the analyses you requested. (Salary by setting is Table 14.)

Salary by (self-declared) full-time:

	Less than \$20,000	\$20,000 to \$59,000	\$60,000 to \$79,000	\$80,000 or More
Full-time	16%	45%	38%	
Part-time	100%	- -	- -	- -

Speak Hebrew by Setting

	Fluent	Moderate	Limited	Not at all
--	--------	----------	---------	------------

Day School	33%	20%	22%	15%
Supplementary	27%	37%	27%	12%
Pre-school	17%	20%	47%	20%
TOTAL	27%	29%	29%	14%

Write Hebrew by Setting

	Fluent	Moderate	Limited	Not at all
--	--------	----------	---------	------------

Day School	10%	48%	15%	10%
Supplementary	36%	24%	27%	12%
Pre-school	25%	25%	10%	31%
TOTAL	28%	33%	21%	18%

Read Hebrew by Setting

	Fluent	Moderate	Limited	Not at all
--	--------	----------	---------	------------

Day School	56%	26%	15%	4%
Supplementary	58%	18%	24%	- -
Pre-school	37%	33%	13%	20%
TOTAL	52%	24%	19%	5%

Bill

I'd lean towards dropping pre-collegiate Jewish education from the Atlanta, Baltimore, and Milwaukee reports (but leaving it in the full report.)

FULL REPORT

1) I don't have a strong view about the order. There are pros and cons both ways. The Atlanta report worked well with training/bkg first, so if you want to present the 3-city report that way, it's ok with me. Either way it is not chronologically organized.

2) I would put pre-collegiate training after training in the full report, as it was in the teacher reports.

3) Let's read over the full revised text and then decide about graphs and boxes. Probably we will want to use them.

4) This question gets to the heart of CIJE's agenda, and many people would cite it as the reason CIJE's approach (and earlier attempts to professionalize) cannot work. The only response I can come up with is that we have to challenge our educational leaders by demanding higher standards, and treating them as professionals. We won't know if this will succeed unless we try. The growth of the JTS and HUC education masters degree programs, and the great demand for the graduates of these programs, suggests the time may be ripe for this approach to succeed.

SSCB\$

#44 25-JUL-1995 15:58:35.80

MAIL

From: EUNICE::"75457.3560@compuserve.com"
To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>
CC: Ellen Goldring <GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.vanderbilt.edu>
Subj: Report on Educational Leaders

As promised, the following items were noted on the report on educational leaders

1. Page 14- 43% of day and 48% of supplementary school leaders are certified in Jewish education. Tabel 9 does not agree.
2. Page 18- quoted sentences at the top half of the page are not clear.
3. Page 20- all references to \$60,000 should be "\$60,000 or more per year" not "over \$60,000". (four places)
4. Page 32- what is release time?

MAIL>

Adam and Bill,

I guess I have a need to pass this on to you.

Some issues I may have not addressed so please check:

- 1) Is there enough from the implications in the conclusions?
- 2) I did not re-write first two paragraphs per Nessa. Do you want to? Do we want to keep the effective schools stuff in?
- 3) We said we would do a Table of Contents

Other issues:

- 1) There is definitely a problem with the word supervisor, no one knows what that means, and what we meant is mostly for vice principals, depart. heads, etc. But we didn't separate this out in the specific item on the survey, so should we just leave it like it is?
- 2) Bill, if you have info or can get it about accreditation standards for ed. leaders in pre-schools that have state/or other accreditation, that would be very important. Also, I'm trying to track down the same info for private schools that are accredited...what are the standards required of the principals. I hope I'll have for this draft, playing lots of phone tag.
- 3) We have a contradiction on pg 28 and Bill maybe you can look at the data and figure it out better. We say that some leaders are constrained (women) and not geographically mobile, but then we say many are new to the community, and then we say spouses were not a big part of choosing a school...so what is it? Are they mobile, or not? Maybe need to check by gender.
- 4) I tried to review the comments from Nessa and Gail but please do the same and see if there are places where we can be more responsive.

We may want to talk before making major changes so I can explain why I did what I did because in some places Annette said something different than others. She was very concerned about the basis for interpretations.

Lastly, in the future (just so I don't forget), Annette wanted to know: 1) Comparisons of salaries with Rabbis and leaders in other school settings, private and public (I know where to get some of this info, but obviously not right now, so we can talk about it)

2) She also wanted to know about stability and tenure of leaders in other school settings.

HAPPY READING



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 may 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.

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

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.

From: EUNICE: "GOLDRIE@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu" 7-JUL-1995 10:46:50.08
To: 74104.3335@compuserve.com, gamoran
CC:
Subj: AERA Proposal

Educational Leaders in Jewish Schools
Ellen Goldring, Adam Gamoran, Bill Robinson

Introduction - Leadership in all schools is complex and challenging, encompassing numerous roles. The context of leadership in Jewish schools is similarly complex, but also has some unique dimensions. The obvious distinction is that Jewish schools have cultural, religious and moral goals as well as academic goals. Thus, the image of a school leader in a religious context may include spiritual, religious and moral responsibilities (Grace, 1995). Bryk et al. (1993) have suggested that educational leadership in Catholic schools is viewed by incumbents as 'a vocation to serve', rather than an individual career. Similarly, in a study of Catholic headteachers in England, Grace (1995) found that an ethic of 'serving others' was central to their leadership roles.

There are structural arrangements that impact educational leadership in Jewish schools as well. Most Jewish schools are not part of a larger, bureaucratic educational system. Therefore, school leaders interact directly with lay boards of trustees in a decentralized, open 'market system'. Jewish schools are part of larger religious communities and institutions, whether it be synagogues, community centers or religious movements. Thus, school leaders are connected to a broad intersection of communal institutions.

The purpose of this paper is to begin to explicate the roles of the educational leader in Jewish school settings and ask what types of professional preparation programs can be developed for these roles. The first part of the paper will present the context of Jewish schooling as a framework for analyzing educational leadership in Jewish schools. The second part of the paper will examine empirically two questions: The first question is, Why do educational leaders enter the field of Jewish education? Is there a commitment to service and religion as found by Bryk and others in other types of religious schools? Given the unique context of Jewish schooling and the leaders' reasons for entering the field, the second question is, What are the professional backgrounds and training experiences of educational leaders in Jewish schools? This paper will stimulate discussion about the role of formal preparation programs in preparing school leaders for moral leadership roles (Sergiovanni, 1992).

Methodology - A survey of educational leaders was conducted in three Jewish communities in the Southeastern, Midwestern, and Northern United States. The three communities were chosen because they are engaged in a project that is aimed at reforming Jewish education. The survey was administered to all directors of formal Jewish educational institutions, including day schools, supplementary schools, and pre-schools. Other supervisors and administrators in these schools, such as vice-principals and directors of Judaic Studies, were also included. A total of 100

2

surveys were administered, and 77 persons responded. In addition, data from in-depth interviews with 58 educational leaders from the three communities are used to supplement the survey data.

Findings - The results suggest that many school leaders enter the field of Jewish education because of a strong commitment to Judaism and a desire to serve the Jewish community. Despite the strong commitment to their religion, most of the educational leaders have professional training in the field of general education, but only half have collegiate and professional backgrounds in Judaic content areas. The majority of educational leaders do not have formal training in school administration, supervision or leadership. The paper will raise questions regarding the nature of preparation programs for preparing school leaders in schools with spiritual, religious and moral missions.



From: EUNICE: "GOLDPIEB@trvax.Vanderbilt.Edu" 11-JUL-1995 14:27:35.14
To: 74104.333@compuserve.com
Cc: gamoran
Subj: ed. Learder report--analyses

Bill, I'm beginning to go over the comments from Gail and Nessa,
and sort out those we need to talk about, however, Gail
has a number of good questions that require some analyses,
so can you please do this, specifically
I think she raises these questions in her comments points numbers:
5,11,

(in regard to pages) 9, pg. 11, p. 15, pg. 19, pg. 20, pg. 23, pg. 24,
pg. 26, pg. 27.
Often she asks for info broken down by setting, etc. We do not necessarily have
to do this but we need to see the data to know if there is important distinctions
we want to make or to say there are no differences by setting. Please
review her comments to see if I missed any that require data analyses.
This is high priority!!

Thank

P5 Did you send me the report on disk, yes I got the e-mail but would like
it on disk anyway. e.

From: ELNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 11-JUL-1995 21:53:36.07
 To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>,
 myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
 CC:
 Subj: More analyses on ed lead

Ellen,

I'm not certain that I'm responding to the precise points/questions (Gail raised) that you are interested in, so if not re-e-mail.

On point (page) #8 - Concerning the 43%, those educational leaders who work in day schools and JCCs are counted as NOT working in the synagogues to which they belong (obviously). The 64% may be a better statistic by itself.

On point (page) #11 - Concerning the role of national organizations (a point addressed in more detail under the Initial Recruitment section) -

By school affiliation:

- Out of 15 educ leaders working in schools affiliated with the Reform Movement, 1 found their position through a central agency, 2 through a national professional organization, 1 through a friend or mentor, 9 through institutional recruitment, and 2 other ways, but none through a graduate school placement.
- Of the 5 (total) positions that were found either a national agency or a graduate school placement, 2 were in Reform institutions. (Actually, there were a total of 6, but missing data on school affiliation for one.)

By personal affiliation:

- Out of 19 educ leaders who declared a personal affiliation of Reform, 1 found their position through a central agency, 3 through a national professional organization, 1 through a friend or mentor, 10 through institutional recruitment, and 4 other ways, but none through a graduate school placement.
- Of the 6 (total) positions that were found either a national agency or a graduate school placement, 3 were filled by persons affiliated personally with the Reform movement.

** Thus, I don't think the Reform national organizations fared much better than the others! And, given the small numbers, I wouldn't report this.

You didn't request this, but on point (page) #9, Gail had asked to break down by affiliation those who are offered prof. dev. money but choose not to take it. Here, there's something interesting.

By school affiliation:

- 7 out of 17 educ leaders who work in Orthodox schools (and 2 out of 4 in Traditional schools) who are offered money do not avail themselves of it.
- the figures are substantially smaller for everyone else (3 out of 12 Conservative; 2 out of 14 Reform; 2 out of 6 community schools; 1 out of 3 JCC)
- also 6 out of 23 who work in Orthodox schools are not even offered money

By personal affiliation:

- Mixed findings: 8 out of 18 Orthodox; but 6 out of 17 Reform - who are offered don't take it.
- (and 2 out of 9 Traditional; 3 out of 16 Conservative).

I think that's what you wanted?

From: ELNICE:~"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 11-JUL-1995 21:53:36.97
 To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>, myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
 CC:
 Subj: More analyses on ed lead

Ellen,

I'm not certain that I'm responding to the precise points/questions (Gail raised) that you are interested in, so if not re-e-mail.

On point (page) #8 - Concerning the 43%, those educational leaders who work in day schools and JCCs are counted as NOT working in the synagogues to which they belong (obviously). The 64% may be a better statistic by itself.

On point (page) #11 - (Concerning the role of national organizations (a point addressed in more detail under the Initial Recruitment section) -

By school affiliation:

- Out of 15 educ leaders working in schools affiliated with the Reform Movement, 1 found their position through a central agency, 2 through a national professional organization, 1 through a friend or mentor, 9 through institutional recruitment, and 2 other ways, but none through a graduate school placement.
 - Of the 5 (total) positions that were found either a national agency or a graduate school placement, 2 were in Reform institutions. (Actually, there were a total of 6, but missing data on school affiliation for one.)

By personal affiliation:

- Out of 19 educ leaders who declared a personal affiliation of Reform, 1 found their position through a central agency, 3 through a national professional organization, 1 through a friend or mentor, 10 through institutional recruitment, and 4 other ways, but none through a graduate school placement.
 - Of the 6 (total) positions that were found either a national agency or a graduate school placement, 3 were filled by persons affiliated personally with the Reform movement.

** Thus, I don't think the Reform national organizations fared much better than the others! And, given the small numbers, I wouldn't report this.

You didn't request this, but on point (page) #9, Gail had asked to break down by affiliation those who are offered prof. dev. money but choose not to take it. Here, there's something interesting.

By school affiliation:

- 7 out of 17 educ leaders who work in Orthodox schools (and 2 out of 4 in Traditional schools) who are offered money do not avail themselves of it.
 - the figures are substantially smaller for everyone else (3 out of 12 Conservative; 2 out of 14 Reform; 2 out of 6 community schools; 1 out of 3 JCC)
 - also 6 out of 27 who work in Orthodox schools are not even offered money

By personal affiliation:

- Mixed findings: 8 out of 16 Orthodox; but 6 out of 17 Reform - who are offered don't take it.
 (and 2 out of 9 Traditional; 3 out of 16 Conservative).

I think that's what you wanted?

From: EUNICE:~"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 11-JUL-1995 23:13:47.24
 To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>, myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
 C:
 Subj: more analyses

Ellen,

Here's the rest:

On page 5 (you didn't ask, but...)
 - 78% of those working in only one setting (83%) are full-time. Thus, 22% are not.
 - 77% of those working in 2 or more setting (17%) are full-time. Thus, 23% are not.
 [And, setting refers to paid positions.]

On page 15, concerning 2/3 of day school leaders untrained in either general education or Jewish studies, but 43% of day school leaders certified in Jewish studies and similar figure for degree in Jewish studies:
 This is true for two reasons:
 1. Almost all of the day school leaders who have certification in J studies also have a degree in it (and vice-versa), thus only 52% of day school leaders are "trained in J. studies".
 2. The 2/3 figure refers to those who are missing EITHER the J. studies or the general ed. piece - only 1/3 have both pieces.

NOTE: The line on page 14 that Gail points out is slightly incorrect - see Table #2 for correct figure of 44% of supplementary have certification in J. ed.

On page 20, I don't think we have the info available that Gail wants on whether or not increased salaries and benefits would translate into greater willingness to engage in prof. dev. activities. I suggest re-writing to state "...as they suggest implications for possible levers by which to enhance the willingness and capabilities of educational leaders to engage ...".

On page 23,
 - Only 29% of those who are dissatisfied with their hours (18% of total) work part-time. Thus, 71% of those who are dissatisfied stated that they work full-time.
 - Also, there seems to be no pattern between being satisfied with hours available and working in more than one setting.
 - Most of those who work part-time (76%) are either very satisfied or somewhat satisfied with the amount of hours available.

On page 24, we don't have any info from the survey on what "moved" people from teaching to administration. [Though, next year I want to combine the educational leaders and the teachers and explore the differences between the two groups (or lack thereof).]

On page 26, Rabbi & Supervisors by Setting - We did this in the cross-tab dataset I created. For supplementary only:

INVOLVEMENT OF RABBS	GREAT DEAL	SOMEWHAT
----------------------	------------	----------

NONE

In defining school goals	52%	33%	15%
In curriculum discussions	52%	36%	12%
In every aspect	38%	47%	16%

PERCEIVED REGARD FOR JEWISH EDUCATION (BY RABBIS)

Very Important	88%
Somewhat Important	12%
Somewhat Unimportant	- -
Very Unimportant	- -

SATISFACTION WITH SUPPORT RECEIVED (FROM RABBIS)

Very Satisfied	61%
Somewhat Satisfied	30%
Somewhat Unsatisfied	9%
Very Unsatisfied	- -

Finally, on page 26, concerning the Adult Academy - I don't know where you pulled the quote from. If it's Atlanta, I don't know of anything by this name, though it may be an old name. Currently, the JCC sponsors adult education classes under name "Jewish II."

Bill



5

From: EUNICE: "74104.3335@compuserve.com" 17-JUL-1995 22:33:38.86
To: "INTERNET:GOLDRIE@ctr.vax.Vanderbilt.Edu" <GOLDRIE@ctr.vax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
Cc: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
Subject: Re: Tomorrow's call

Ellen,

If to 2:30 not enough time... on my part, I have plenty of flex time (obviously) to schedule another one.

We don't have a question on teachers moving to administrative positions. I've thought about this before ... not only do we not have a question on why, but on how long (they've been an administrator), on whether they moved from a teaching to an administrative position in the same school or switched schools, etc. ... and we left off many important questions on relations of leaders with other constituents.

(1) As of now, we don't have enough information to understand the different career paths of educators (from the first job or class they took to their current position). There are many questions involved in this issue and I'm not certain that a question that asks them to rate factors (in terms of their importance) that influenced their decision to take an administrative position is more important than other possible questions. On the other hand, I'd like to see a more structured set of questions on the issue of "career path" included in the Interview Protocols.

(2) I think this will continue to be a problem - as we continue to do analyses and produce papers, we will think of new things that would be great to include in the survey. Perhaps, we should never look at the survey as a finished product, but always a work in progress. If this be the case, we will continue to provide revised additions (excepting the "anchor items") on a periodic basis. Moreover if we view the Evaluation Institute as closer to a study group of and for "experts in the field" (along with their lay and professional community counterparts), then as a group they(we) will certainly come up with additional changes.

Bill.

From: EUNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 14-JUL-1995 12:26:53.68
To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrfeb@ctrvax.vanderbilt.edu>, myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
CC:
Subj: JCCs

Ellen,

I think this is the information you wanted on the JCCs. I looked over the list of campuses where the educational leaders and teachers completed the surveys. Out of a total of 22 pre-schools, 6 are housed in JCCs, 1 in a JFS (Jewish Family Service - Milwaukee), and the rest (15) are housed in supplementary and/or day schools.

These numbers represent neither the total number of pre-schools in each city nor the population of pre-school educational leaders. So, I'm not sure how useful it is.

The only other measurement is the educational leaders responses to school affiliation. As reported on page 3 of the discussion paper, 4% of all the educational leaders indicated that their school is housed in a JCC. All of those who indicated so work in a pre-school setting. (COUNTING ONLY PRE-SCHOOLS, 20% (3 educational leaders only) indicated that their pre-school is housed in a JCC.

Bill



can't be priv w/o license/cert. it

most priv schls have
cert + reg for privs

elite priv schls prefer to
be accredited

- as by Sth A^{ssn} Colls & Schls
in most states, state also accred schls

to meet stds

- masters in admin, supervisory, etc.
or coursework in admin + cert

write letter about impt of
anchor terms

- pleased at your interest

- need for standards + cooperation

→ national data base

- you + your community
will want to know

SM
2/20/11
12:00 PM
1st. 10 min

**LUEDTKE-STORM-MACKEY
CHIROPRACTIC CLINIC, S.C.**
2702 MONROE ST. MADISON, WI 53711
CLINIC 231-3370

HARVEY T. STORM, D.C.
RES. 836-1393

STEPHEN R. DEWITT, D.C.
RES. 837-4785

EUGENE R. YELLEN-SHIRING, D.C.
RES. 242-0056

DATE Nov. 8 AT 8:30 O'CLOCK

IF YOU ARE UNABLE TO KEEP APPOINTMENT PLEASE PHONE

☐ MON. ☐ TUES. ☒ WED. ☐ THURS. ☐ FRI. ☐ SAT.

link to parents
- 605 p 6:15-7:15 PM

Eiken

① need not dev to pms
so can s-ppt tfr
- teaching changes
- pms need to keep it

② need find of roles
can pms take to create
community
- relate to pms
- s.c.c. culture, pms, ss
es in s.c.c.s where
intro tfr
- in this are roles for kids

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 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

9:30 - 11:00

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. 11:30-12:30 Presentation of Models: 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?

1:30 -2:30 Discussion of CIJE's Response

IV. 2:45 - 4:00 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

E. Steering Committee Presentation

V. 4:00 - 4:30 MEF WORKPLAN -- 1995-96

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

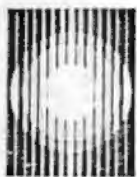
B. Dissemination and Use of "Module"

From:

Principals for our Changing Schools

National Com. for The Principalship

NAESP NAESP 1990



PERFORMANCE DOMAINS OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Principals provide leadership to schools along two dimensions. Exercising broad leadership, they influence school cultures by building a vision, stimulating innovation, and encouraging performance. Principals also exercise initiative in a more technical sense by the daily practice of functional leadership. They "make things happen" and ensure that the organization's tasks are accomplished.

Broad leadership requires more than utilizing the several performance domains simultaneously. As organizational cultures develop to meet challenges, as strategies for change are formulated, the principal selects from a generous palette of knowledge and experience and perspective to influence the direction of the school. Throughout the school year effective leaders mix and match proficiencies to shape the instructional climate, lift aspirations, and reduce environmental constraints.

Also important is functional leadership, defined here as a single but essential performance domain. Though narrow in scope, this dimension of leadership centers upon moving groups to accomplish tasks. This specific function, however, is distinct from the overarching dimensions of broad leadership that shape the quality and character of institutions.

I. Functional Domains

These domains address the organizational processes and techniques by which the mission of the school is achieved. They provide for the educational program to be realized and allow the institution to function.

1. Leadership: Formulating goals with individuals or groups; initiating and maintaining direction with groups and guiding them to the accomplishment of tasks; setting priorities for

one's school in the context of community and district priorities and student and staff needs; integrating own and others' ideas for task accomplishment; initiating and planning organizational change.

2. Information Collection: Gathering data, facts, and impressions from a variety of sources about students, parents, staff members, administrators, and community members; seeking knowledge about policies, rules, laws, precedents, or practices; managing the data flow; classifying and organizing information for use in decision making and monitoring.

3. Problem Analysis: Identifying the important elements of a problem situation by analyzing relevant information; framing problems; identifying possible causes; identifying additional needed information; framing and reframing possible solutions; exhibiting conceptual flexibility; assisting others to form reasoned opinions about problems and issues.

4. Judgment: Reaching logical conclusions and making high quality, timely decisions given the best available information.

5. Organizational Oversight: Planning and scheduling one's own and others' work so that resources are used appropriately, and short- and long-term priorities and goals are met; monitoring projects to meet deadlines.

6. Implementation: Making things happen; putting programs and plans into action; applying management technologies; applying methods of organizational change including collaborative processes; facilitating tasks; establishing progress checkpoints; considering alternative approaches; providing "mid-course" corrections when actual outcomes start to diverge from intended outcomes; adapting to new conditions.

7. Delegation: Assigning projects or tasks together with clear authority to accomplish them and responsibility for their timely and acceptable completion.

II. Programmatic Domains

These domains focus on the scope and framework of the educational program. They reflect the core technology of schools, instruction, and the related supporting services, developmental activities, and resource base.

8. Instructional Program: Envisioning and enabling instructional and auxiliary programs for the improvement of teaching and learning; recognizing the developmental needs of students; insuring appropriate instructional methods; designing positive learning experiences; accommodating differences in cognition and achievement; mobilizing the participation of appropriate people or groups to develop these programs and to establish a positive learning environment.

9. Curriculum Design: Interpreting school district curricula; planning and implementing with staff a framework for instruction; initiating needs analyses and monitoring social and technological developments as they affect curriculum; responding to international content levels; adjusting content as needs and conditions change.

10. Student Guidance and Development: Providing for student guidance, counseling, and auxiliary services; utilizing community organizations; responding to family needs; enlisting the participation of appropriate people and groups to design and conduct these programs and to connect schooling with plans for adult life; planning for a comprehensive program of student activities.

11. Staff Development: Identifying with participants the professional needs of individuals and groups; planning and organizing programs to improve staff effectiveness; supervising individuals and groups; engaging staff and others to plan and participate in recruitment and development; initiating self-development.

12. Measurement and Evaluation: Determining what diagnostic information is needed about students, staff, and the school environment; examining the extent to which outcomes meet or

exceed previously defined standards, goals, or priorities for individuals or groups; drawing inferences for program revisions; interpreting measurements or evaluations for others; relating programs to desired outcomes; developing equivalent measures of competence.

13. Resource Allocation: Planning and developing the budget with appropriate staff; seeking, allocating, and adjusting fiscal, human, and material resources; utilizing the physical plant; monitoring resource use and reporting results.

III. Interpersonal Domains

These domains recognize the significance of interpersonal connections in schools. They acknowledge the critical value of human relationships to the satisfaction of personal and professional goals, and to the achievement of organizational purpose.

14. Motivating Others: Building commitment to a course of action; creating and channeling the energy of self and others; planning and encouraging participation; supporting innovation; recognizing and rewarding effective performance; providing coaching, guidance, or correction for performance that needs improvement; serving as a role model.

15. Sensitivity: Perceiving the needs and concerns of others; dealing with others tactfully; working with others in emotionally stressful situations or in conflict; managing conflict; obtaining feedback; recognizing multi-cultural sensibilities.

16. Oral Expression: Making oral presentations that are clear and easy to understand; clarifying and restating questions; responding, reviewing, and summarizing for groups; utilizing appropriate communicative aids; adapting for audiences.

17. Written Expression: Expressing ideas clearly in writing; writing appropriately for different audiences such as students, teachers, and parents; preparing brief memoranda.

IV. Contextual Domains

These domains reflect the world of ideas and forces within which the school operates. They explore the intellectual, ethical, cultural, economic, political, and governmental influences upon schools, including traditional and emerging perspectives.

18. *Philosophical and Cultural Values:* Acting with a reasoned understanding of the role of education in a democratic society and in accord with accepted ethical standards; recognizing philosophical and historical influences in education; reflecting an understanding of American culture, including current social and economic issues related to education; recognizing global influences on students and society.

19. *Legal and Regulatory Applications:* Acting in accordance with relevant laws, rules, and policies; recognizing governmental influences on education; working within local rules, procedures, and directives; administering contracts.

20. *Policy and Political Influences:* Identifying relationships between public policy and education; recognizing policy issues; examining and affecting policies individually and through professional and public groups; relating policy initiatives to the welfare of students; addressing ethical issues.

21. *Public and Media Relationships:* Developing common perceptions about school issues; interacting with parental and community opinion leaders; understanding and responding skillfully to the electronic and printed news media; initiating and reporting news through appropriate channels; enlisting public participation; recognizing and providing for market segments.

PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION , 14 / 5
Curriculum Issues and the Postsecondary Preparation of Educators

University of Miami

Education Law
Fundamentals of Educational Administration
School Level Finance
Computer Applications for Administration
Communication/Leadership of Task Groups
Conceptual Bases of Educational Administration
Curriculum Planning
Administration of Human Resources

University of Northern Florida

Instructional Leadership
Introduction to Educational Leadership
Educational Technology: Applications for School Managers
Human Resource Development in Education
Educational Leadership and Management
School/Community Relations
Education and the law
School Finance
A, B, D, E Curriculum Development, Implementation, and Evaluation

University of Southern Florida

Principles of Educational Supervision
Principles of Educational Administration
Educational Leadership
School Law
School Finance
Foundations of Measurement
Micro computers in School Administration
Foundations of Curriculum and Instruction

University of Western Florida

Leadership in Education: Theory & Practices
Introduction to Applied Educational Research Statistics
Educational Organization and Administration
Human Relations in Education
Curriculum Issues in Student Development and Learning
Administration of School Personnel
Law and Education
Introduction to School Finance
Principal
Social, Historical, Philosophical Foundations of Education: Policy and Program Analysis

Table 56. Professional Administrative Services Credential Competency Domains and CSLA Modules

CSLA MODULES

1. Taking Stock of Yourself as an Instructional Leader	(7 hours)
2. Building Your Vision Upon Principles of Educational Practice	(21 hours)
3. Shaping Your School's Culture to Improve Student Learning	(14 hours)
4. Constructing a Thinking & Meaning-Centered Curriculum	(14 hours)
5. Building a Quality English/Language Arts Program	(14 hours)
6. Building a Quality History/Social Science Program	(14 hours)
7. Structuring Your School for Student Success	(14 hours)
8. Developing an Accountability System that Supports Student Success	(28 hours)
9. Building a Quality Science Program	(14 hours)
10. Building a Quality Mathematics Program	(14 hours)
11. Leading Successful Change Efforts in Your School	(7 hours)
12. Creating Successful Schools Through Professional Development	(14 hours)
13. Meeting the Needs of Limited English Proficient Students	(14 hours)
14. Connecting Students and Schools: Positive School Climate	(14 hours)

TOTAL - 29 DAYS (203 hours)

	CSLA MODULES														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
CTC COMPETENCY DOMAINS															
Organizational Theory, Planning and Application, to include:															
The theory and functions of human organizations as independent social entities within American society.		X	X				X				X				
Structuring and leading groups in a variety of organizational settings, to include school boards, parent and community groups, staff groups, and regional and state organizations.			X				X								
Instructional Leadership, to include:															
Management strategies designed to achieve goals and objectives.		X					X				X				
Human relations and the dynamics of groups.			X												
Learning and instructional research and theory.				X	X	X			X	X					
Educational trends and issues.				X	X	X			X	X					
Current and emerging needs of society for the improvement of school curriculum and practices.				X	X	X			X	X					
Strategies to meet diverse pupil needs.				X	X	X			X	X				X	
Computer technology applied to instructional practices.															

From: Examination of the 126 Preparation, Instructional and Professional Growth School Administrators of California, 1992 State Report.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Evaluation, to include:														
Conditions that result in low- or high-level pupil learning outcomes.					X	X		X					X	X
Evaluation of program and/or curriculum effectiveness.					X	X		X						
Evaluation of teaching effectiveness.								X						
Evaluation of staff performance.								X						
Evaluation of pupil achievement.								X					X	
Effective means to compare classroom, school and school district instructional goals to outcomes.								X						
Evaluating the role and effectiveness of specially-funded educational programs.								X					X	
Professional and Staff Development, to include:														
Collective planning with other administrators and participants for instructional strategies for adult learners.												X		
The application of knowledge of the functioning of organizations to adult learning and performance.			X								X	X		
Means to integrate organizational goals with specific programs of adult learning.		X										X		
Sources of funding to carry out staff development activities.												X		
School Law and Political Relationships, to include:														
The legal framework of national, state and local schools, to include statutory and constitutional provisions pertaining to equal access to public education.													X	
Political jurisdictions and bodies that make and/or affect state and local educational policy.														
The application of established legal principles to policies and practices at the local school and district level.													X	
Political forces that directly or indirectly have effect upon school practices.			X										X	

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Sociological forces that directly or indirectly have effect upon school learning.			X										X	
Theory and application in achieving compromise, consensus, and coalitions to achieve educational goals.	X						X							
Fiscal Management, to include:														
School district-level funding and budgeting.														
Financial effects of personnel and other contractual obligations.														
Current problems affecting school financing on state and local levels.														
The organization and functioning of school district business services departments.														
Management of Human and Material Resources, to include:														
Effective staff utilization patterns which combine the needs and abilities of staff, organizational constraints, and available resources.	X		X				X					X		
Developing and implementing effective personnel policies.														
Short- and long-term planning procedures for filling staff needs.														
Short- and long-range planning procedures for filling needs for building, equipment and supplies.														
Cultural and Socio-Economic Diversity, to include:														
The general ethnic, racial and religious composition of the state and the specific composition of the local community.			X		X	X			X	X			X	
Concepts of cultural values and language diversity.		X			X	X			X	X			X	
Programs and procedures for meeting the instructional needs of limited-English-proficient pupils.		X			X	X			X	X			X	X
Principles and procedures for involving all parents and other family-members in school activities and in reaching education objectives.					X	X							X	X

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	78,889	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	8.4	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	5.6	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	11.6	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	\$29,738	\$30,410
Men	11,640	28.0	42.9	9.2	9.9	9.0	3.4	3.5	22,116	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	26.6	47.9	11.7	6.6	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	5,328	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	29,919
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

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

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

³Too 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.)

Digest of Ed. Statistics 1993
U.S. Dept of Ed.

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	Educational related	Not educational related
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Public schools										
Total	\$33,578	\$31,296	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	30,478	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	203,853
Black, non-Hispanic	33,539	31,579	201,690	48,905	1,684	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	32,650
30 to 39	30,108	27,918	650,380	230,787	2,045	113,013	1,969	29,841	18,249	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	43,688	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	8,622	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	32,839	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	17,813	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.

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

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

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	64.4	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	87.8	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	64.1	9.4	26.5
Bachelor's	85.7	8.7	5.6	76.8	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.

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

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

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	86,917	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	48.8	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	0.6	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



CORWIN PRESS, INC.
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

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)

(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)⁶

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 research 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:

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 revisited 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 perspectives¹⁰ 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 admin-

istration. 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 NCEE (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; NCEE, 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).

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 complacency 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)

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 Principals, 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 out-classes 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).

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 reconstructing 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 practitioners⁷ 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 restructured 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 knowing⁹ (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 life¹⁰), 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

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 (Prestline & 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

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

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 ISSUES¹⁸

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 (NCEE, 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.

33

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 Kinnock, 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-conscious stratification" gave rise to the great nineteenth century English "public" (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 headmastership (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 and charismatic leadership style; (2) high paternalism (the "pater pattern") (Rec, 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.

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 Uppenheim, 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 professionalism" of teachers combined with strong trade unionism (Hoyle, 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.

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.

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 baccalaureate 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. Experiential 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 accommodating 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 Glat-ter, 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 measurably. 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.

References

- Baron, G. (1956). Some aspects of the headmaster tradition. *Researches and Studies* 14: 7-16.
- Bernbaum, G. (1976). The role of the head. In R.S. Peters (Ed.), *The role of the head*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- Brunel University (1986). *Master's degree course in public and social administration: 1986 handbook*, p. 7.
- Buckley, J. (1985). *The training of secondary school heads in Western Europe*. Windsor, England: The NFER-Nelson Publishing Co., Ltd.
- Callahan, R.E. (1962). *Education and the cult of efficiency*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Cambridge Institute of Education. (1985). Brochure, p. 2.
- Cambridge Institute of Education. *Research handbook*. n.d., p. 2.
- Crewe and Alsager College of Higher Education (Faculty of Education). (n.d.). *M.Sc./postgraduate diploma in educational management*, p. 16.
- Dennison, W.F. (1985). Training headteachers as managers: Current trends and developments. *The Durham and Newcastle Research Review* 2: 221-24.
- Department of Education and Science. (1977). *Ten good schools: A secondary school inquiry*. London: HMSO.
- Department of Education and Science. (1985a). *Further education in-service provision*. London: HMSO.
- Department of Education and Science. (1985b). *Better schools*. London: HMSO, p. 53.
- Department of Education and Science. (1985c). *The development of higher education into the 1990's*. London: HMSO.
- Education Week*. (1986, February 19) Better elementary principals called for. *Education Week* 23:7.
- Glatter, R. (1972). *Management development for the education profession*. London: Geo. Harrap, Ltd.
- Hoyles, E. (1968). The head as innovator. In B. Allen (Ed.), *Headship in the 1970's*. London: Basil Blackwell.
- Hoyles, E. (1973). Strategies of curriculum change. In R. Watkins (Ed.), *In-service training: Structure and content*. London: Ward Lock.
- Hoyle, J.R. (1975). Programs in educational administration and the AASA guidelines. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 21:71-93.
- Hoyle, J.R. (1986). Proposed program for the preparation of educational administrators. Draft document.
- Hughes, M. (1986). *Trends and issues in educational management development in England and Wales*. Paper presented at the 1986 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, Calif.
- Hughes, M.; Carter, J.; and Fidler, B. (1981). *Professional development provision for senior staff in schools and colleges*. University of Birmingham, Department of Social and Administrative Studies.
- Institute of Education, University of London. (1986). *Prospectus 1986-87*.
- March J.G. (1974). Analytical skills and the university training of educational administrators. The 1973 Walter D. Cocking Lecture in Educational Administration. In J.D. Herring and R.E. Klimes (Eds.), *Walter D. Cocking lectures: The NCPEA series of prominent papers in educational administration*, pp.93-161. Berrien Springs, Mich.: Center for Studies and Services in Education, Andrews University.
- Marsick, V., and Watkins, K. (1986). *Learning and development in the workplace*. Paper prepared for the National Conference of the American Society for Training and Development.

- Mezirow, J. (1985). A critical theory of self-directed learning. In S. Brookfield (Ed.), *Self-directed learning: From theory to practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mid-Kent College of Higher and Further Education. (1986). *22-day management course for secondary headteachers 1986*.
- Oxford Polytechnic. (1984). Application to the Council for National Academic Awards for the Re-approval of a Two-Year, Part-time Course Leading to the Award of a Diploma in Professional Studies in Education (Educational Management).
- Peters, R.F. (Ed.) (1976a). *The role of the head*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Peters, R.F. (1976b). Introduction: Contemporary problems. In R.F. Peters (Ed.), *The role of the head*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Pitner, N. (1982). *Training the school administrator: The state of the art*. Eugene: CEPM University of Oregon. Chapter 28, this volume.
- Ree, H. (1968). The changed role of the head. In B. Allen (Ed.), *Headship in the 1970's*. London: Basil Blackwell.
- The Scottish Centre for Studies in School Administration. (1984/85). *Annual report—1984/85*, Appen. 2.
- Taylor, W. (1976). The head as manager: Some criticisms. In R.S. Peters (Ed.), *The Role of the Head*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Ulster Polytechnic. (1980, November). *Master of science degree in educational management*. Proposal to the Council for National Academic Awards.
- ✓ University Council for Educational Administration. (1983–1984). *Preparing leaders to anticipate and manage the future*. A Report in Four Parts. Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration.
- Wall Street Journal*. (1986, February 18). Better principals, not just teachers.



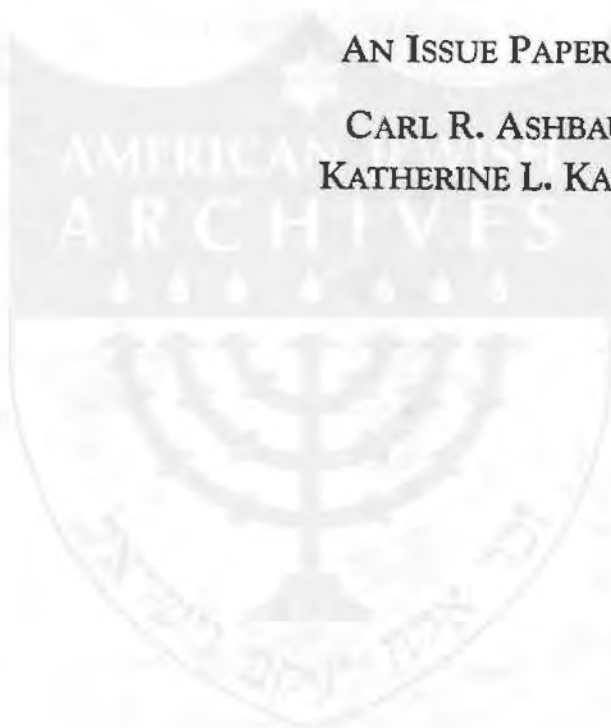
American
Association
of Colleges
for
Teacher
Education

STANDARDS

The Licensure of School Administrators: Policy and Practice

AN ISSUE PAPER BY:

CARL R. ASHBAUGH
KATHERINE L. KASTEN



JUNE 1992



NPBEA
National
Policy
Board
for
Educational
Administration

CONTENTS

Introduction	1
Methodology	3
Licensure for School Principals	5
Licensure for Superintendents	10
Extent of Licensure Regulation	14
Alternative Licensure	16
Discussion of the Issues	17
■ The knowledge base	
■ Experiences required for licensure	
■ Professional development	
Representation	24
Conclusion	25
Bibliography	26

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 Principals¹

	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

14

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 Superintendents¹

	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 ¹	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 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

LOUISIANA

MINNESOTA

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, 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 qualify 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 unlevveled 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 Administration 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.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. December 1990. *Teacher education policy in the states: A 50-state survey of legislative and administrative actions*. Washington, D.C.
- Bliss, J. R. 1988. Public school administrators in the United States: An analysis of supply and demand. In *Leaders for America's Schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration*, ed. D. E. Griffiths, R. T. Stout, & P.B. Forsyth, 193-99. Berkeley, Calif: McCutchan.
- Bradley, A. February 14, 1990. States, colleges heeding call to improve administrators' training. *Education Week*, 1, 12-13.
- Campbell, R. E., L. L. Cunningham, R. O. Nystrand, & M. D. Usdan. 1990. *The organization and control of American schools*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill.
- Fuhrman, S. H. 1989. State politics and educational reform. In *The politics of reforming school administration*, eds. J. Hannaway & R. Crowson, 61-75. Philadelphia: Falmer Press.
- Goodlad, J. I. 1990. *Teachers for our nation's schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gousha, R. P., P. L. LoPresti, & A. H. Jones. 1988. Report on the first annual survey certification and employment standards for educational administrators. In *Leaders for America's schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration*, ed. D. Griffiths, R. T. Stout, & P. B. Forsyth, 200-6. Berkeley, Calif: McCutchan.
- Hallinger, P., & J. Murphy. 1991. Developing leaders for tomorrow's schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72, 514-20.
- Kennedy, M. M. 1991. Policy issues in teacher education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72, 659-65.

Marshall, C., D. Mitchell, & F. Wirt. 1989. *Culture and education policy in the American States*. New York: Falmer Press.

McDonnell, L. M., & R. F. Elmore. 1987. Getting the job done: Alternative policy instruments. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 9, 133-52.

Mitchell, D. E. 1988. Educational politics and policy: The state level. In *Handbook of research on educational administration*, ed. N. J. Boyan, 453-66. New York: Longman.

Murphy, J. 1991. The effects of the educational reform movement on departments of educational leadership. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 13, 49-65.

—*Restructuring Schools: Capturing and Assessing the Phenomena*. 1991. New York: Teachers College Press.

National Commission on Excellence in Education Administration. 1988. Leaders for America's Schools: The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. In *Leaders for America's schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration*, ed. D. Griffiths, R. T. Stout, & P. B. Forsyth, 1-38. Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan.

National Policy Board for Educational Administration. 1989. *Improving the preparation of school administrators: An agenda for reform*. Charlottesville, Va.

National Policy Board for Educational Administration. 1990. *Alternative certification for school leaders*. Fairfax, Va.

Preparation of Educational Administrators. Statement of Purpose adopted by the Plenary Session of the University Council for Educational Administration, October 27, 1989.

Prestine, N. A. 1991. Political system theory as an explanatory paradigm for teacher education reform. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38, 237-74.

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.

I 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).

II 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

AUG 07 '95 02:40PM MELTON JTS
 Fax Transmittal Memo 7672
 To GAIL DORPH
 Company Location
 Telephone #
 Fax #
 Comments
 No. of Pages 1
 Date 8/7/95 Time 3:40 PM
 From BURT COHEN
 Company JTS A
 Location
 Telephone #
 Fax #
 Original Disposition:
☐ Destroy ☐ Return ☐ Call for pickup

THE JEWISH THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY ACADEMIC BULLETIN 1995-96

Jewish Education

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 5023x | Models of Leadership:
Teaching Early Prophets in the Jewish School
Zielerstein W 10:25-12:15 | 3 credits |
| 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. | | |

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 *mar'a 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 *mar'a d'ama* of the individual affiliate school. The term "*mar'a d'ama*" 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

Post-It™ brand fax transmittal memo 7671		# of pages 14
To Gail Berph	From Rebt. Abramson	
Co.	Co.	
Dept.	Phone #	
Fax # 212-532-2646	Fax # 353-9439	

GUIDELINES AND
REQUIREMENTS
FOR LICENSES



ועד תעודות הארצי
למורים ולמנהלים עבריים

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

1995

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.**

CONTENTS

Introduction.....	2
History of the Board.....	3
Composition of the Board.....	4
National Board of License Representatives.....	5
Requirements for a Teacher's License.....	7
Certification for Graduates of the Association of Institutions for Higher Learning in Jewish Education.....	13
Requirements for a Principal's License.....	16
Requirements for an Early Childhood License.....	18
Requirements for a Jewish Family Educator License.....	20
Requirements for a Teacher of Talmud License.....	23

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

<i>Chair:</i>	Rabbi Jacob Rabinowitz
<i>Executive Secretary:</i>	Dr. Hyman J. Campeas
<i>Vice Chair:</i>	Dr. Alvin I. Schiff
<i>Secretary/Treasurer:</i>	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
Boston
Chicago
Cleveland
Los Angeles
MetroWest, NJ
Miami
New York
Philadelphia
Washington, DC
West Palm Beach

Rabbi Joseph Braver
Dr. Daniel Margolis
Dr. Al Levin
Dr. Sylvia Abrams
Yonatan Shultz
Dr. Wallace Greene
Miles Bunder
Dr. Hyman J. Campeas
Rochelle B. Rabeeya
Dr. Yaakov Halpern
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
HUC-JIR, New York
University of Judaism
Spertus College
Baltimore Hebrew University
Hebrew College, Boston

Sara Lee
Dr. Kerry Olitzky
Dr. David Ackerman
Dr. Byron Sherwin
Dr. Shulamith Elster
Dr. David Gordis
Dr. Harvey Shapiro

Jewish Theological Seminary
Yeshiva University
Cleveland College of Jewish Studies

Gratz College

McGill University
Brandeis University
York University

Dr. Aryeh Davidson
Rabbi Jacob Rabinowitz
Dr. David Ariel
Dr. Lifsa Schachter
Dr. Gary Schiff
Dr. Diane King
Dr. B. Barry Levy
Dr. Susan Shevitz
Dr. Michael Brown

Central Agencies without Boards of License

Toronto
Providence

Rabbi Irwin Witty
Rabbi Arnold Samlan

At Large Delegates

Dr. Solomon Goldman
Dr. Alvin I. Schiff
Dean Sylvia Ettenberg

Dr. Richard Wagner
Samuel Steinberg
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 the degree of academic background and professional experience. Teachers are encouraged to enter the certification process and work toward each higher step through a combination of Academic Study and Life Experience activities. The 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 acquired through academic study and "life experience". Each level of certification also requires a corresponding level of Hebrew language proficiency. The Teacher's License is renewable every five years.

ACADEMIC STUDY

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

- Member institutions of the Association of Institutions for Higher Learning in Jewish Education.
- Accredited colleges and universities in North America, including those 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 universities which are recognized by the Ministry of Education as certified to grant diplomas such as "Moreh Musmach", "Moreh Bachir", or academic degrees.
- Post High School Yeshivot, including those Yeshivot in Israel that are recognized by the Ministry of Education and in North America that are recognized by Yeshiva University.
- High school study in Day Schools, Israeli High Schools and

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 two hours per week of annual teaching to a maximum of six units per year. A total of nine units may be granted toward the education requirement. A letter of validation from the supervisor must be submitted with the application.

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

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	9	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
Brandeis University
Cleveland College of Jewish Studies
Gratz College
Hebrew College
Hebrew Union College - Jewish Institute of Religion
Hebrew Union College - Jewish Institute of Religion
Jewish Theological Seminary of America
McGill University
Spertus College
University of Judaism
Yeshiva University
York University

Baltimore, MD
Boston, MA
Cleveland, OH
Philadelphia, PA
Boston, MA
Los Angeles, CA
New York, NY
New York, NY
Montreal, QUE
Chicago, Ill
Los Angeles, CA
New York, NY
Toronto, ONT

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 be completed within a five year period. For individuals who have received the A 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 fulfill the requirements for the next higher level of licensure. Accurate records of the courses, seminars and workshops should be maintained by the teacher and submitted to the Executive Secretary of the local board (where applicable) or the National Board of License at the time of renewal.

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 Jewish Educational Administration from one of the AIHLJE schools and who have completed courses equivalent to those required in #2 above, or those who have earned a Masters Degree with a specialization in Education Administration designed for Jewish schools such as the cooperative graduate program of George Washington University and the College of Jewish Studies of the BJE of Greater Washington shall be eligible for the Principal's License once they have received the level A Teacher's License (מורה מוסמך) and have completed requirements #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 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

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

<u>Course Areas</u>	<u>Units</u>
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 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 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

Definitions of Requirements

Family Dynamics

The purpose of this course area is to present educators with theoretical foundations and techniques necessary to successfully work with and support 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.

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 <i>blatt</i> Gemarrah with commentaries covering a minimum of three <i>masechtot</i> . 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 <i>se'iphim</i> 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.

STAN DARD S (md, GA, WI)

Requirements for Certification

of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators

for Elementary and Secondary Schools

Fifty-eighth edition, 1993-1994

AMERICAN JEWISH
ARCHIVES

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.

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 may 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.

1

From: SSCB:GAMORAN 17-AUG-1995 22:37:53.00
To: BARRY
CC: GAMORAN
Subj: references on JCCs

Barry,

Various readings I've looked over have pointed to what may be some useful references on education in JCCs. I wonder if you have any of them and if so, could dig them up for me. I'm looking for:

Barry Chazan. "What is informal Jewish education?" Journal of Jewish Communal Services 67 (4) Summer 1991.

Bernard Reisman. "Social change and response: Assessing efforts to maximize Jewish educational effectiveness in JCCs in North America." Jewish Welfare Board, 1989.

Barry Chazan and Steven Cohen. Assessing the Jewish educational effectiveness of JCCs: The 1994 study. JCCA, 1994.

Thanks,

Adam



From: EHNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 18-SEP-1995 13:57:44.25
 To: Adam Gamoran (gamoran@), Ellen Goldring (goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu),
 myself (74104.3335@compuserve.com)
 CC:
 Subj: revised on state requirements

Adam and Ellen,

Problem: You can become an administrator in Maryland and Wisconsin WITHOUT having fulfilled any specific subject matter (content) requirements, other than in administration/supervision.

In Maryland: While there are subject matter requirements for a teaching certificate for teachers in the public school system, a person who taught in private schools can become an administrator in the public schools without fulfilling subject matter requirements for a teaching certificate (only teaching experience and courses in administration/supervision).

In Wisconsin: They must fulfill an approved teacher education program, which includes student teaching, education courses, and TYPICALLY a major in a subject matter area (BUT, according to the person I spoke with, NOT NECESSARILY). [I've been trying to reach another person there who is the expert on it, to double-check this.]

So, WHAT TO WRITE on page 4?

- Should I just keep it as is, only substituting Maryland or Wisconsin for Georgia?

- Or, should I substitute "and formal education in a particular subject matter" for "and a teaching certificate in a specific content area"?

- Or, ???

I don't think we want to write about a state's requirements without indicating all three components! (Though of note: it supports Adam's original thesis that administrators don't need additional subject matter knowledge.)

NOW, on the professional growth requirements:

- Neither state requires an Education Specialist credential, as does Georgia.

- In Wisconsin, educational leaders must take 6 semester credits over a five year period, or approved in-service workshops totalling 180 hours (30 clock/contact hours equals one semester).

- In Maryland, educational leaders must also take 6 semester credits over a five year period, or approved in-service workshops totalling 90 hours (15 clock/contact hours equals one semester).

** I'm aware that they have very different clock/contact hour equivalents! **

So, I suggest the following sentences for page 11:

Milwaukee report:

"For example, in the State of Wisconsin, leaders must take 6 semesters credits in the field of administration and supervision every five years. In addition, other mechanisms are in place for certified educational leaders to retain their state certification, such as participating in Wisconsin State Department of Education approved in-service workshops. To remain certified, all educational leaders must attend 180 hours of workshops over a five-year period."

Baltimore report:

Exactly the same, except substitute "Maryland State Department of Education" for "Wisconsin State Department of Education (MSDE)", and substitute "90" for "180".

OPINIONS?

3

From: EUNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 3-OCT-1995 09:03:50.07
To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctrvax.vanderbilt.edu>,
myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>
CC:
Subj: years as leaders

Ellen and Adam,

In answer to your queries on whether they have taught in their current leadership setting, on years as a leader in their current position and in Jewish education:

1. Across all settings, the large majority have taught in their current settings as teachers. Sixty-eight percent of day school leaders have worked as teachers in a day school. Seventy-nine percent of supplementary school leaders and 81% of pre-school leaders have taught in their respective settings. (I thought that this would be an unsurprising finding, thus it was not included in the report. What seemed suprising was how much experience they have in settings other than their current one.)

2. We have no way of knowing how long they have been a leader in Jewish education. The information they provided on the "big career" question (#7 - years in various positions) is not useful, since (in the past) they may have held leadership positions in two different settings simultaneously.

3. The question on "years in current setting" (#9) has always been problematic. Comparing it to question #7 (years in various positions) creates even more problems. I will explain:

a. Does years in current setting (#9) mean (1) years working in a day, supplementary, or pre-school setting regardless of which community, (2) years working in a day, supplementary, or pre-school setting in their present community, or (3) years working in their current school? Not only do we need to decide this in order to interpret their responses to this question, but to question #7 as well (as is discussed below).

Notably, in the Manual the question now reads "current school(s)". In the community reports, we assume option (2): years in same (current) setting in current community.

b. If we see their response to question #9 as indicating the number of years spent in their current SCHOOL, then there are four possible career scenarios: (1) all their time as a leader has been spent in their current school and no time teaching there, thus their response to questions #7 and #9 should be equivalent and both represent the number of years spent as a leader in their current school;

(2) all their time as a leader has been spent in their current school and they have also spent time teaching there, thus their response to question #9 should be greater than to question #7 and their response to question #7 (only) represents the number of years spent as a leader in their current school;

(3) they have spent some time as a leader in their current school and time as a leader elsewhere, and no time teaching in their current school, thus their response to question #7 should be greater than to question #9 and their response to question #9 (only) represents the number of years spent as a leader in their current school;

(4) they have spent some time as a leader in their current school and time as a leader elsewhere, and they have also spent time teaching in their current school, thus their response to question #7 COULD BE LESSER, GREATER, OR EQUAL to their response to question #9 and neither of their responses are accurate indicators of their years spent as a leader in their current school.

***Given the possibility of scenario (4), we cannot determine which response is

an accurate description of the number of years spent AS A LEADER in their current school.

c. Instead, if we see their response to question #9 as indicating the number of years spent in their current SETTING (either day, supplementary, or pre-school) in their CURRENT COMMUNITY, then four (parallel) scenarios are (again) possible, yielding the same results. The four scenarios (in brief) are:

- (1) they have been leaders (in their current setting) only in their current community and never teachers in their current setting in their current community;
 - (2) they have been leaders (in their current setting) only in their current community and have also been teachers in their current setting in their current community;
 - (3) they have been leaders (in their current setting) in their current community as well as in other communities and never teachers in their current setting in their current community;
 - (4) they have been leaders (in their current setting) in their current community as well as in other communities and have also been teachers in their current setting in their current community.
- ***Given the possibility of scenario (4), we cannot determine which response is an accurate description of the number of years spent AS A LEADER in their current school.

d. Finally, if we see their response to question #7 as indicating the number of years spent in their current SETTING (either day, supplementary, or pre-school) REGARDLESS OF WHICH COMMUNITY, then their response to question #7 must be equal or less and thus the accurate indicator of years as a leader in their current setting. HOWEVER, in 13 (out of 77) cases their response to question #7 is greater than their response to question #9. The reason why their response to question #7 may be higher than to question #9 is that they have assumed that we meant ONLY in their CURRENT COMMUNITY, or they translated setting as SCHOOL. We don't know which one.

e. In addition, there are two other problems with question #7. (1) In question #7, we asked them to "check the positions you have held", not necessarily your current position. (2) In 19 (out of 77) cases, their response to question #7 is missing.

IN SUMMARY - I do NOT think that we can provide data on how many years the educational leaders have been leaders in their current setting or current school.

I hope this was clear, as I wrote it up pretty quickly. If you have any questions on the explanation or want additional data, I'll provide it on Thursday, along with responses to GAIL'S QUERIES ON THE MANUAL. Hopefully all can wait until Thursday. IF NOT, CALL ME. And, yes, I can make changes to the reports and FedEx them out on Thursday (as long as we talk in the a.m.).

Have a easy fast,
Bill

5

From: ELLNICE:"74104.3335@compuserve.com" 5-OCT-1995 18:42:00.37
To: Adam Gamoran <gamoran>, Ellen Goldring <goldrieb@ctr.vax.vanderbilt.edu>,
myself <74104.3335@compuserve.com>

CC:
Subj: and ... the answers are...

Ellen & Adam,

I would not say that I feel COMFORTABLE using the data from question #7, BUT it's the best we can do... so here it is... (with a few long-winded remarks first, of course)...

1. From the data on question #7, we can calculate "the total number of years that the respondents have held positions of educational leadership in Jewish schools." This includes both current and past positions.

2. Despite my earlier misgivings, I think that we should calculate "total number of years ... of positions of leaderships in Jewish schools", and NOT "total number of years ... of positions of leadership in their CURRENT SETTING". As Ellen has noted, it is the former that we are interested in; the latter will not tell us what we really want to know.

Concerning the possible duplication of years, from having held leadership positions in two different settings: This concerns 12 cases, of which one respondent has been a leader in both supplementary and pre-school settings, and one respondent has been a leader in both day and pre-school settings, with the remaining 10 respondents having been leaders in both supplementary and day school settings. I advocate that we assume that these positions were NOT held simultaneously. If we are wrong and they were held simultaneously, all we are doing is artificially increasing the leadership seniority of educational leaders; better to err on the side of overestimating their leadership seniority.

3. Concerning what positions to count as leadership positions. I am counting the following five items: supervisor in a supplementary setting, principal in a supplementary setting, supervisor in a day school setting, principal in a day school setting, and director in a pre-school setting.

There are 11 cases in which the respondents indicated a certain number of years as a supervisor (either in a supplementary or day school setting). In 4 of these 11 cases, the respondents ONLY indicated having held a supervisory position (and not a principal position). Thus, I advocate counting the years as a supervisor. Again, it only adds to their leadership seniority, erring on the side of overestimation. [Adam: Ellen and I had discussed the possibility of not counting the supervisor positions.] [Ellen: Eliminating the supervisor positions would help with the "problem" (of Q#7 + Q#9 > Q#11) in only 2 cases.]

Adam: I don't think that we can adjust the numbers to account for duplication, by figuring out how many leaders currently hold other leadership positions BECAUSE we did NOT ask what type of position they hold in their second school.

4. In presenting this data we are making the following assumptions:
a. the respondents interpreted question #9 to mean CURRENT SCHOOL (not setting);
b. the respondents interpreted question #9 to include their years AS A TEACHER in their current school (AND the data shows that for AT LEAST 24 cases they had taught in their current school);
c. the respondents interpreted question #7 to include BOTH PAST and PRESENT employment.

[Adam: You may not want to call "b" an assumption, but I want to be clear that given how we are using the data this is a necessary interpretation (i.e., that at least 24 leaders had taught in their current setting).]

I tried to falsify these three assumptions by examining in how many of the 24 cases did the leaders state that they had moved to the community in order to

7

From: IN%"GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu" 13-DEC-1995 14:19:23.75
To: IN%"gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu"
CC:
Subj: FYI- see next message for my response--

Return-path: <GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
Received: from eunice.ssc.wisc.edu by ssc.wisc.edu (PMDF V5.0-5 #12975)
id <01HYPLA5KXCHTFUXF@ssc.wisc.edu> for gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu; Wed,
13 Dec 1995 14:19:18 -0600 (CST)
Received: from ctrvax1.Vanderbilt.Edu by eunice.ssc.wisc.edu; id AA23774;
5.65/43; Wed, 13 Dec 1995 14:20:39 -0600
Received: from PATHWORKS-MAIL by ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu (PMDF V5.0-5 #11488)
id <01HYPIKX3GEPXVNR8A@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu> for gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu; Wed,
13 Dec 1995 14:17:08 -0600 (CST)
Date: Wed, 13 Dec 1995 14:17:08 -0600 (CST)
From: GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu
Subject: FYI- see next message for my response--
To: gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu
Message-id: <01HYPIKXVQ88XVH8A@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
X-VMS-Id: in%"gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu"
MIME-version: 1.0
Content-transfer-encoding: 7BIT

----- Begin message from IN%"73321.1220@compuserve.com" 13-Dec-95

From: IN%"73321.1220@compuserve.com" "Alan" 13-DEC-1995 04:24
To: IN%"GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu" "Ellen Goldring"
CC: IN%"73321.1217@compuserve.com" "Gail Dorph", IN%"73321.1223@compuserve.com" "Ginny Levi"
Subj: Educator Survey Approach

Return-path: <73321.1220@compuserve.com>
Received: from arl-img-5.compuserve.com by ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu
(PMDF V5.0-5 #11488) id <01HYGUT3PPYK8XYXF1@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu> for
goldrieb@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu; Wed, 13 Dec 1995 04:23:56 -0600 (CST)
Received: by arl-img-5.compuserve.com (8.6.10/5.650515) id FAA27272; Wed,
13 Dec 1995 05:24:16 -0500
Date: Wed, 13 Dec 1995 05:22:55 -0500 (EST)
From: Alan <73321.1220@compuserve.com>
Subject: Educator Survey Approach
To: Ellen Goldring <GOLDRIEB@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
Cc: Gail Dorph <73321.1217@compuserve.com>,
Ginny Levi <73321.1223@compuserve.com>
Message-id: <951213102255_73321.1220_FHM25-2@CompuServe.COM>
Content-transfer-encoding: 7BIT

ELLEN,

I AM SENDING YOU SOME COMMENTS FROM GINNY WHICH SHE RAISED
WITH ME VIA THE BOARD MINUTES FROM NOVEMBER.
I SAID THAT I THOUGHT YOU HAD LOOKED AT INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS
BUT THAT I COULDN'T REMEMBER.
GINNY IS COPIED ON THIS. WHEN YOU RESPOND TO GINNY, PLEASE
SEND ME A COPY.

----- Forwarded Message -----

From: Ginny Levi, 73321.1223
To: Alan, 73321.1220
Ginny, 73321.1223
DATE: 12/11/95 10:39 PM

RE: Educator Survey Approach

Alan,

It's 3:30 Mon. afternoon and if you aren't, you should be on your way to JFK to make your El Al flight. I'm glad you got to NY so easily. You always manage to "land on your feet" where travel is concerned.

I've just gone over the Board minutes, trying to decipher your handwriting for Carol. I want to respond to your response to me, while it's fresh. The issue is whether public school leadership is the right group to use as a basis for judging preparation of Jewish school educational leaders. Lee Hendler's point was that they are different, and I side with her. Public school administrators must go through a long course of study in educational administration which Ray would argue is oriented toward working within the cumbersome public education bureaucracy and has little relevance to actual educational leadership. I am aware of many private school administrators who have had years of experience in teaching and have moved up in the ranks of administration, but who have not wanted to put themselves through the grueling and often seemingly useless training necessary to become a public school administrator. I disagree with Ellen's assertion that there is little difference in the preparation of private school leaders. I think someone should take the time to check this out and confirm (or not) Ellen's statement before we move ahead. I think her statement reflects her bias and the area in which she teaches. It shouldn't be difficult to contact the National Association of Independent Schools and ask them for data that confirms or denies. I think we look bad if we make the comparison with public school administrators without having the facts on private schools. Ellen's response at the meeting, referring to leaders of Seventh Day Adventist schools, did not seem to speak to the point raised. It suggested to me that she didn't even understand the question.

Guess my point is that we should know whereof we speak on this important point before any report is released. I continue to think we're using the wrong reference group. I'm no expert, but that's my opinion.

Hope all goes well in Israel. Ginny

----- End forwarded message

9

From: IN%"GOLDRIE@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu" 13-DEC-1995 14:28:58.33
To: IN%"gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu"
CC:
Subj: My response to Previous e-mail

Return-path: <GOLDRIE@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
Received: from eunice.ssc.wisc.edu by ssc.wisc.edu (PMDF V5.0-5 #12975)
id <01HYPFY5V6U8HTTU5X@ssc.wisc.edu> for gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu; Wed,
13 Dec 1995 14:28:53 -0600 (CST)
Received: from ctrvx1.Vanderbilt.Edu by eunice.ssc.wisc.edu; id AA24080;
5.65/43; Wed, 13 Dec 1995 14:30:11 -0600
Received: from PATHWORKS-MAIL by ctrvx.Vanderbilt.Edu (PMDF V5.0-5 #11488)
id <01HYPFUKLFM2RXVNR@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu> for gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu; Wed,
13 Dec 1995 14:26:47 -0600 (CST)
Date: Wed, 13 Dec 1995 14:26:47 -0600 (CST)
From: GOLDRIE@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu
Subject: My response to Previous e-mail
To: gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu
Message-id: <01HYPFUKLFM48XVNR@ctrvax.Vanderbilt.Edu>
X-MS-To: in%"gamoran@ssc.wisc.edu"
MIME-version: 1.0
Content-transfer-encoding: 7BIT

Ginny ,

Alan shared with me your e-mail regarding questions of educational leadership in Jewish schools. As usual your comments and questions are excellent and right on target. Thank for continuing the discussion and I hope this will be the beginning of many.

Some responses:

I did check into a number of private/independent school associations as you suggested when preparing the report including the NAIS. I have also spoken to some very prominent private school leaders. First, most private schools are accredited by their states, but also by the regional accrediting associations, such as the Mid-Atlantic Association for Colleges and Schools, or the Southern Association, etc. In their literature, for example, the Southern Association states, cucting from their standards for middle and secondary schools says,

1) "The administration head of the school (eg principal or headmaster) shall be chief executive officer of the school and shall have earned a graduate degree from an institution approved by a regional accrediting agency." So one implication for comparison, is that our principals should all have graduate degrees.

2) "The administrative head of the school shall have earned at least 15 semester hours of graduate credit in administration/and or supervision as part of the graduate degree or in addition thereto. The administrative head of a school who has training and experience that might be considered to be equivalent to the graduate credit may request the state committee to accept such training and experience in lieu of no more than six semester hours"

3) "The administrative head of a member school shall earn at least six semester hours of credit or the equivalency during each five year period of employment."

4) They also require prior teaching experience of the principal.

Having said that, there are real differences, between private and public schools, but I think the important point is that there should be some "training" in administration and leadership for leaders in both sectors. (Just a point of clarification, I do not recall saying there is no difference between public and private schools and their training. What I meant, is that I think there should be standards in both sectors).

I agree with RAY, the "curriculum" and experiences of the training may be very different and should be different in some areas. For example, one independent school principal told me the most important part of his job is fundraising and working with lay people to establish and continue endowments, etc. Most programs for public school leaders would not have this in the curriculum. Although, I also think there are some areas that are similar, such as some of the things we did (will do) at Harvard.

Also, I do not know the extent to which these standards are really enforced or embraced within the private school sector, which is a good point too. Just because they are on the books may not matter in reality. (I think I passed out the statistics of degree level for private school administrators to the staff, I do not have it with me now. I think it was lower than in public schools. We know this to be the case for teachers too; they are less trained in the private sector than the public sector.)

If we looked to the elite private schools as a model, the "deanship" may emerge with much more of a scholar/practitioner as leader view, perhaps with little or no real administrative/leadership training. I am certainly open to all these views. (This model perhaps follows a bit more the SEL model in Jerusalem). The point being, the issues need to be put on the table and the public school model provides a framework for doing so.

I would also like to mention that not all training programs are the same. A program that serves primarily urban school leaders would most likely spend a lot of time on "working through the bureaucracy", or helping "at risk students", while other programs may not. For example at Vanderbilt I would think that our program does not focus on these types of skills/issues much at all. We very much emphasize problem solving and analytic skills of leadership. In addition, as we discussed in our staff meeting, programs in ed. administration are undergoing change too, so we should be careful about talking in too many generalities. I also know that many school administrators say their programs were not helpful. This is a problem in the field.

FYI: we (at Peabody) are beginning to work with the Independent Schools Association to develop professional growth seminars for their folks during the summers (not only for principals, but admissions officers, financial aid personnel etc). I know this will help me a lot in thinking about Jewish educational leadership.

11

In addition, there is a group now, called the National Council for Private School Accreditation. It is relatively new, looking at accreditation associations to give a "stamp of approval" for all types of private schools. I do not know much about it however, involved with this group is the National Society for Hebrew Day Schools (I do not know what/who this group is, does anyone know who it is, is it the English for Tzrah u'Masrah?).

In short, I agree that we in Jewish education need to develop and define our own "brand" of leadership and professional development training. We should listen and learn from a variety of sectors and settings too. I think the Brandies consultation will make a good contribution to this discussion.

I look forward to having more discussions on this and perhaps convening a group of senior educational leaders to give us their input. For example, in Atlanta, when I went to present the report, they said they could agree on some common domains that they thought all leaders should "know and learn about" regardless of settings, denominations, etc, such as understanding adult development, teacher supervision, processes of planning and change, etc.

The issues are complex but very interesting!
Please continue to respond!

Ellen

