Marshall Memo 81

A Weekly Round-up of Important Ideas and Research in K-12 Education
April 4, 2005

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Quotes of the Week

"[T]eachers learn a majority of practices during their 18 years of schooling and relatively few from top-down approaches such as pre-service programs, written policies, or prepackaged reforms… [A]ctive collaboration among teachers, administrators, and scholars may be necessary over long periods to improve teaching practice."

Bryce Mason et al. (*Elementary School Journal*, March 2005, Vol. 105, #4, p. 354)

"To the extent that standards have helped teachers focus on the lessons they want students to learn, teach to those lessons, and devise measurements that demonstrate student (and teacher) success, standards have improved the teaching process."

Donald Gratz (see item #1)

"[C]losing the 'curriculum gap' is an effective way to close the 'achievement gap.'"

Carol Corbett Burris and Kevin Welner (see item #2)

"There's a significant psychological impact to dingy surroundings – to stained carpets and broken toilets. You can't convince employees that you love and care about them if you're sending psychic signals that you don't."

Michael Levine, quoted by Leigh Buchanan (see item #3)

"Writing is much more about focus, fit, and flow than about subjects and predicates."

Edgar Schuster (see item #6a)

1. Is Paying Teachers More for Improved Test Scores a Good Idea?

In this important lead article in the April *Kappan*, Donald Gratz, who studied Denver's experimental pay for performance program, argues that merit pay based on student test scores is inherently unworkable, creates perverse incentives to lower expectations of students, and is not essential to getting teachers to work more effectively in their classrooms. However, he does endorse the hybrid merit pay plan that Denver eventually settled on, which includes teacher-set goals, performance evaluation, and other factors.

Gratz traces the history of teacher incentive pay back to 1710, when teachers in parts of England were paid according to how well their students did on examinations in reading, writing, and arithmetic. As the British system evolved in the 19th century, some teachers began receiving "merit grants" for greater efficiency and performance pay was expanded to other subjects. Teachers' diaries from this era tell of intense preparation for the dreaded examinations; teachers felt "overpressured" by the system and they pushed their students hard to get ready for the tests.

Schools in Colonial America adopted the British performance pay model, but in the 19th century, a single salary schedule gradually evolved. This happened to address the disparities that had grown between the salaries of male and female teachers, black and white teachers, and elementary and secondary teachers. It also happened because educators were unable to establish a clear link between a teacher's performance and student learning. By the 1950s, only 4 percent of school districts were using an incentive pay system. There was a revival of performance-based pay and merit pay (based on supervisors' evaluations) in the 1970s and 1980s, but once again the ideas foundered on the difficulty of getting objective data and raising enough money for the extra pay.

In 1999, the city of Denver initiated a pilot program to test the idea of paying teachers a $750 bonus for each of two student achievement goals that were attained. Gratz says that this and other pay for performance plans depend on two conceptual pillars:

- That student achievement can be assessed with sufficient rigor, breadth, validity, and reliability that it can be used to make decisions about teacher pay.

- That pay incentives will motivate teachers to achieve better results for their students.

In addition, a pay for performance plan must be workable and lead to relatively few negative unintended consequences.

So how did these issues play out in Denver's pilot program? The teachers' union was not enthusiastic about the program and doubted it would work, but decided to let it proceed because some of their members felt there was no harm in getting extra money for what they were already doing. Three conditions were negotiated: (a) the student achievement targets would be set by teachers (and approved by their principal); (b) the pilot program would be studied by an outside evaluation agency; and (c) the decision to implement the program more widely would be subject to a vote. Thirteen schools got an 85% staff vote and signed up for the pilot. As the four-year experiment proceeded, there were a number of challenges, along with a few positive developments:

• *Including all teachers* – What was most difficult was measuring student performance in different types of classrooms. Student achievement in reading and math could be tracked using the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, but how would student learning in gym, art, and music classes be measured? What about counselors, nurses, librarians, special education teachers, and academic support specialists? The pilot schools identified and developed many different assessments, and by the fourth year, teachers were using 116 identifiable assessments and 256 teacher-made assessments. This might be seen as a positive development of the pilot, but many schools were already using the assessments – they were just getting credit for it now.

• *Assessing a teacher's "value added"* – Most end-of-the-year tests don't measure what the teacher contributes to student learning during the year. In fact, Gratz argues, the kind of standards-based tests that teachers and parents are becoming accustomed to can penalize teachers whose students start further behind, driving teachers away from working in schools with disadvantaged students and, for those who stay, creating a perverse incentive to set low goals. The only fair way to measure student progress for teacher pay is to compare where students are at the beginning of the year and where they are at the end of the year, but implementing a "value added" measurement system on a large scale is extremely complex and expensive.

• *Testing for learning or to compare*? Gratz argues that rubrics are the best tools for helping students learn and teachers improve their craft, but scoring with rubrics is somewhat subjective. If a teacher is assessing students' work knowing that his or her

pay increment depends on student progress, that can be a problem. But bringing in outside scorers is prohibitively expensive and time-consuming. "As a practical matter," asks Gratz, "can this be done for multiple subjects at every grade level for every teacher?... The more we focus on comparable measurement… the more we encourage teachers to abandon the best tools for promoting learning." Denver's pilot allowed teachers to use different measurements of student learning and relied on the professionalism of teachers and principals to measure students' learning honestly. This was helpful in some ways, but, says Gratz, "it did not produce a compensation system of sufficient clarity and objective fairness to support anything beyond the small bonuses used in the pilot." This was one of the biggest reasons that Denver ultimately abandoned student learning results as the single basis for teacher compensation.

• *What's worth knowing? What's worth teaching?* Gratz notes the tendency of pay for performance plans to focus on the lowest common denominator – what's measurable. But there is a lot more to teaching than reading and math scores. Although Denver broke new ground in allowing teachers to set their own objectives, Gratz worried about the things that could not be captured:

> Among the educational successes and teacher contributions not measured are those from teachers who draw out and bolster the confidence of children with problems, who dedicate themselves to inner-city schools and children, who contact parents and involve families, who mentor younger teachers, who become involved in communities, who counsel and support troubled youths, and who provide many more such services to schools and communities. Some of these contributions may be reflected in student achievement, but only over time. Is it really in anyone's interest to encourage teachers not to do such things?"

• *High stakes* – Gratz worries that tying student achievement to teacher pay increases the tendency to narrow the curriculum and focus on tests that have high validity and reliability, which are not always the best tests to promote learning in classrooms.

The bottom line? Gratz says it's impossible to devise an assessment system that is up to the job of fairly determining teacher pay bonuses. During Denver's pilot, it appears that teachers set their own objectives honestly and professionally, but Gratz doesn't think that such an open-ended system can be implemented for an entire school district:

> [A]ny system in which substantial salary adjustments are made on individually devised measures of growth will be open to abuse and will not be trusted. The easier the objective, the more likely the pay

> increase. How is it possible to manage such an undertaking without having teachers 'rush to the bottom' with easy-to-achieve objectives? The lesson, I submit, is that teacher-set learning objectives, with support, are beneficial to student learning. By contrast, providing a bonus encourages teachers to keep these objective low and is a disincentive to higher standards.

Gratz goes on to attack the second pillar of pay for performance: that financial incentives motivate teachers to work harder, be more creative, and be more effective with their students. This assumes, Gratz says, "that a substantial number of teachers simply aren't trying hard enough." It also assumes that teachers "already know how to get kids to learn more or to perform better on tests, but they are simply not applying themselves because they get paid the same regardless of how well they do their jobs. To get them to apply themselves more strenuously – to try harder – we need only increase the reward for those who achieve (or the punishment for those who do not)."

We associate this logic with the business world, but Gratz points out that for the last several decades the trend in business has been away from extrinsic and toward intrinsic rewards (Theory X giving way to Theory Y). Surveys in Denver during the pilot showed that even teachers who strongly supported the plan said they were not working harder than they did before; they were already working as hard as they could! And teachers said the small pay bonuses were not enough to make it worthwhile to work harder. "Money is not an incentive," said one teacher. "It's an insult." Nevertheless, Gratz reports that teachers believed that

> both they and their schools were more focused on student learning, that this focus had led to better results for students… and that the pilot's emphasis on content-based learning objectives, data, and individual growth had improved their success… [T]he emphasis on learning and achievement and the increasingly sophisticated support provided by the design team spurred schools to focus more directly on issues of achievement, provided a tool that principals could use to discuss achievement with teachers, and in many instances created a more organized and focused schoolwide effort to improve achievement in reading, writing, and math. This result appears to have less to do with rewarding higher performance and more to do with providing focus, support, data, and specific techniques for applying what is known about learning at the school and classroom level."

In short, three things happened in the pilot schools as a result of the program, none of them related to teacher motivation:

- Individual teachers learned new skills.
- Schools focused more clearly on teaching and learning;

- Denver improved its curriculum alignment, school support, and assessments.

Gratz concludes that although the pay for performance pilot was the vehicle for these three changes, they could have been implemented without financial incentives for teachers.

"Education is a profession, not a trade," Gratz concludes, "and its results are too complex to measure with objective precision. Clearly, pay for performance, however appealing it sounds, does not accomplish its intended purpose. The pursuit of this goal should be abandoned for a system of accountability that acknowledges the complexity of children, of learning, of communities, and of society's broad desires for its children and itself."

Following this logic, Denver ended up crafting a modified plan designed to "enhance the entirety of the teaching process." The final incentive system, which was approved by a vote of the teachers' union and is awaiting a referendum by the citizens of Denver to provide full funding, includes:

- Teacher-set student achievement goals;
- Supervisor evaluations;
- Willingness to work in more difficult settings;
- Willingness to take on other jobs deemed important to overall student success;
- Efforts at continuous self-improvement.

"Lessons from Denver: The Pay for Performance Pilot" by Donald Gratz in *Phi Delta Kappan*, April 2005 (Vol. 86, #8, p. 569-581), no e-link available

2. A High School Closes the Gap with Heterogeneous Grouping

This *Kappan* article tells how a diverse suburban Long Island, NY school district (Rockville Centre) slowly dismantled half of its high school's tracking system, gave many more students a rigorous academic curriculum in heterogeneous classes, and made remarkable progress closing a huge racial achievement gap (see graph below).

The initial stimulus for this effort was an ambitious goal set by superintendent William Johnson and the board of education in 1993: *By the year 2000, 75% of all graduates will earn a New York State Regents Diploma.* (When this goal was set, 58% of Rockville Centre graduates earned a Regents diploma; in the whole state of New York, 38% of students met that target. To qualify for a Regents diploma, students have to pass a minimum of eight end-of-course Regents exams, including two in math, two in laboratory sciences, two in social studies, one in English language arts, and one in a foreign language.)

Looking at the data, district officials could see that low-track classes were disproportionately populated by African-American and Hispanic students and the academic expectations in these courses were considerably lower than they were in the upper tracks. Disturbing as this information was, the district implemented de-tracking cautiously over several years, checking on the data at each stage:

• *First, Rockville eliminated low-track high-school courses* (which were not geared to Regents expectations) and gave struggling students extra support classes. At first, this seemed to be working: the overall number of Regents diplomas increased. But the racial gap did not close: students who fell short of getting Regents diplomas were still disproportionately African American, Hispanic, free- and reduced-price meal qualified, and special education. It was clear that just eliminating low-track courses was not enough.

• *Next, the district required all eighth graders take accelerated math.* This change was spurred by the fact that low-achieving high school students were way behind the pace they needed to maintain to pass the second math Regents exam; while high-track tenth graders were taking trigonometry and advanced algebra, low-track tenth graders were just beginning first-year algebra. So Rockville directed its middle school teachers to revise and condense the accelerated math curriculum that had previously been reserved for the highest achievers and teach it to all eighth graders in heterogeneously-grouped classes. The middle school also offered support classes called math workshops to struggling students and provided after-school help four days a week. The results were dramatic: the percent of regular-education black and Hispanic eighth graders who passed the first math Regents exam (focused on algebra) jumped from 23% to 75%; the pass rate among white and Asian American students rose from 54% to 98%.

• *At first, special education students received intensive preparation in a tracked class.* The 1998 cohort of special needs students were prepped to take the first math Regents at the end of ninth grade in a resource-rich double-period math course. Although the special needs students were grouped with low-achieving ninth graders, there were three adults in the room (a math teacher, a special education inclusion teacher, and a teaching assistant) and Rockville was hopeful that they would accelerate. But the experiment was a failure: acutely conscious that they were in a low-track class, students were disruptive, teachers spent large amounts of time on behavior management, and a negative culture pervaded.

• *Special education students were accelerated.* Starting with the 1999 cohort, special

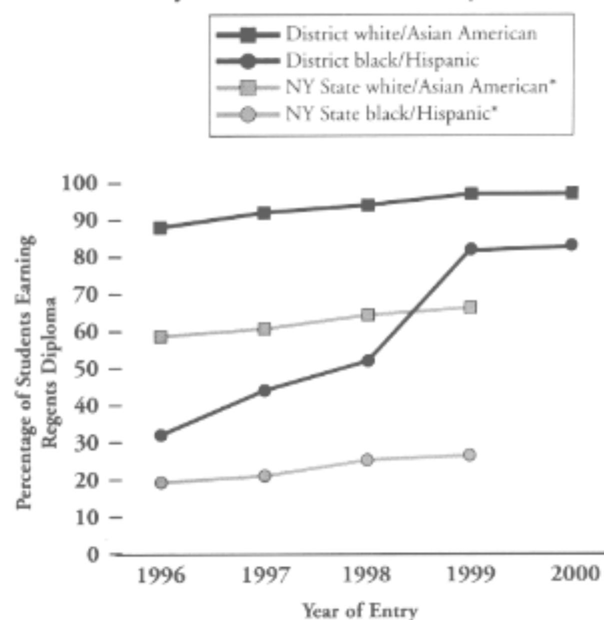
education students were grouped heterogeneously in middle school and took the first math Regents in eighth grade. The next year, ninth-grade teachers reported that the tone, activities, and discussions in heterogeneously grouped classes were academic, focused, and enriched.

• *High school science was de-tracked.* Starting with the 2000 cohort, high school science classes were grouped heterogeneously and taught the newly-developed New York biology curriculum. There was a major improvement in the passing rate on the first science Regents exam: after one year of de-tracking, the passing rate for African-American and Hispanic students increased from 48% to 77%; the passing rate for white and Asian-American students went from 48% to 77%.

• *All ninth-grade classes were de-tracked.* Starting with the 2001 cohort, all remaining ninth-grade classes were grouped heterogeneously.

• *Two years later, some 10th-grade classes de-tracked.* To help all students meet the demands of the advanced curriculum, the high school provided every-other-day support classes in math, science, and English language arts. These classes are closely linked to the curriculum and allow teachers to pre- and post-teach topics to students who need additional help.

Regents Diploma Rates by Year-of-Entry Cohort and Ethnicity



*The New York State data are reported by graduating class; the state does not report year-of-entry data for Regents diploma rates. Therefore, the state data also fail to reflect dropouts and show higher Regents diploma rates than would be reported if given by YOE cohort. (Rockville Centre has a dropout rate near zero.) For these reasons, the trends shown in this figure are informative but cannot provide exact comparisons.

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The results between 1996 and 2000 were impressive. While the racial achievement gap in New York state persisted, students in Rockville Centre made substantial progress closing the gap. In fact, as the graph above shows, black and Hispanic students in Rockville Centre surpassed the Regents diploma pass rate of students across the state by a wide margin. There were also significant gains among low-SES and special education students. The same cohorts who made these dramatic improvements enrolled in advanced courses at a higher rate in their final years in high school.

The authors conclude: "Achievement follows from opportunities – opportunities that tracking denies… When all students were taught the high-track curriculum, achievement rose for all groups of students – majority, minority, special education, low-SES, and high-SES… The Rockville Centre reform confirms common sense: closing the 'curriculum gap' is an effective way to close the 'achievement gap.'"

"Closing the Achievement Gap by Detracking" by Carol Corbett Burris and Kevin Welner in *Phi Delta Kappan*, April 2005 (Vol. 86, #8, p. 594-598), no e-link available

3. Be Careful Drawing Conclusions from Success Stories!

To find the secrets to improving a school, what could be more natural than seeking out and studying high-performing schools? But a thoughtful article in the April *Harvard Business Review* warns of the perils of a classic statistical trap: "selection bias." An example of this is generalizing about New England weather using data taken only in the summer.

"Effective schools" research tries to control for selection bias by studying both effective and ineffective schools and teasing out the differences, but anecdotal accounts of good schools can fall into the trap. For example, an analysis of highly effective organizations might find that the leaders share two key traits: they persist, often despite initial failures, and they are able to persuade others to join them. But these same traits are present in spectacularly *ineffective* leaders who persist in the face of disastrous results and continue to persuade others to follow over the cliff. The real "effectiveness factors" here are not just persistence and persuasiveness but wisdom and a winning strategy.

The key, argues the author, is studying both successful and unsuccessful organizations and really paying attention to failures as well as dazzling successes. Otherwise we will overvalue risky practices, seeing only those that won big and not the ones that lost dismally, and will not be able to distinguish success that was created

by effective policies from success that is coasting on past accomplishments or good luck.

In a sidebar, the article tells one of the most intriguing stories on this topic. During World War II, the statistician Abraham Wald was studying the vulnerability of airplanes to enemy fire. The data showed that some parts of planes were hit disproportionately more than others, and military planners assumed that these were the parts that should be reinforced with additional armor plating. But Wald came to exactly the opposite conclusion: he reasoned that the parts that were hit *least* should get extra armor plating.

Why? Because of the selection bias inherent in the data available, which came from planes that made it back safely. The planes that limped home after a dangerous mission were often riddled with bullet and shrapnel holes, but because they were still flying, Wald reasoned that those hits were in non-critical areas. The planes that crashed were definitely hit in critical areas! So Wald concluded that reinforcing the areas of surviving planes that had not been hit was the best way to increase their chances of surviving the next mission.

"Selection Bias and the Perils of Benchmarking" by Jerker Denrell in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2005 (Vol. 83, #4, p. 114-119), no e-link available

4. Ideas from Russian Schools

Becky Post, a retired Wisconsin teacher who has taught in Russia for several years, paints a fascinating picture of the culture of a typical Russian school and suggests that some practices might be worth considering in the United States:

• *Grade structure* – Most Russian schools are four stories high and include grades 1-11. Children from first grade to eleventh (the graduating grade) all mingle in the same building, separated by floors: the principal's office, gym, cafeteria, and lockers are on the first floor, grades 1-4 are on the second, 5-9 on the third, 10-11 on the fourth.

• *Recess breaks* – Between each 40-minute class students are allowed to take a 10-minute recess in the hallways. Post describes these breaks as utter chaos with no supervision by teachers, who shut their classroom doors and prepare for the next lesson. "Students are running and screaming," writes Post. "A boy with a toy gun hides around a corner, waiting for a classmate to pass by, and then jumps out in a mock attack. Girls are jumping rope, and boys are sliding down banisters. A teacher walks by and says nothing." But when the bell rings, students immediately step into

their next class and stand politely beside their desks until the teacher says, "Good morning. You may sit down." Post speculates: "Perhaps the frequent, short, wild breaks help them sit attentively during their classes."

• *Discipline* – Classroom behavior is usually quite good in Russian schools, according to Post, and she believes that an important factor is the practice of having students carry "daybooks" from first through ninth grade. Students must record their daily schedule and homework assignments in this ledger, and teachers have the option of entering a grade on a child's classroom performance, good or bad. At the end of each week, the homeroom teacher looks at all students' daybook entries to make sure everything is filled in and then signs the books. Parents must also check and sign their child's daybook each week.

• *Super-looping* – Russian students remain with the same homeroom (usually 30 students) from first through eleventh grade and bond intensely. Starting in fifth grade, students get a homeroom teacher who stays with them through graduation. The homeroom teacher checks the daybooks, communicates with parents, and plans activities, including evening and weekend trips to concerts, plays, or trips to the ballet or a museum in another city. At graduation time, there is often great emotion as students and parents part after a seven-year relationship.

• *Foreign language study* – Russian students start learning a language by fifth grade at the latest and most become quite fluent. Language classes are taught in smaller classes of 15 students.

• *Peer observation* – Every teacher is required to teach at least one "open lesson" for colleagues. This is a regular lesson to which colleagues and administrators are invited. Post reports that teachers find these lessons a source of good teaching ideas and observe closely how students respond.

"What We Can Learn from Russia's Schools" by Becky Post in *Phi Delta Kappan*, April 2005 (Vol. 86, #8, p. 627-629), no e-link available

5. The "Broken Window Theory" for Schools?

A forthcoming book argues that the "broken window theory" applies outside the world of crime prevention. Originated by criminologist James Q. Wilson in 1982, the theory says that if a city doesn't deal with broken windows, abandoned cars, litter, graffiti, and other "minor" urban detritus, miscreants get the idea that the authorities aren't attentive and in charge and are more likely to commit more serious crimes. Michael Levine, in *Broken Windows for Business* (Warner, Fall 2005), argues that an

organization's true priorities are revealed by the small stuff. The boss may be saying "We are all one team," but the rank and file know better if the broken vending machine isn't getting repaired. "There's a significant psychological impact to dingy surroundings – to stained carpets and broken toilets," says Levine. "You can't convince employees that you love and care about them if you're sending psychic signals that you don't… [Bosses] need to do whatever it takes to fix those bad little things before they become much, much bigger."

The worst broken windows, says Levine, are broken people. If clearly incompetent people aren't dealt with, others surmise that their work isn't respected and are less likely to put forth their best efforts. "Levine recommends getting rid of poor performers as quickly as possible, letting everyone affected know the problem has been dealt with. That may prove unpopular among some employees in the short run, but in time they will appreciate the improved environment."

"Sweat the Small Stuff" by Leigh Buchanan in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2005 (Vol. 83, #4, p. 20, 22), no e-link available

6. Short Items:

a. Sentence diagramming and the quality of students' writing – In an *Education Week* article last week, Edgar Schuster, an author and former teacher, asks this provocative question: "Apart from the fact that they could write lengthy, coherent, graceful English sentences, what did Thomas Jefferson, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Abraham Lincoln, Henry David Thoreau, Herman Melville, and Mark Twain have in common?" The answer? "None of them studied sentence diagramming." Schuster believes that there is no correlation between the era in which sentence diagramming was heavily emphasized in U.S. schools (from its development by Alonzo Reed and Brainerd Kellogg in 1877 though the 1940s) and the quality of students' writing.

"*Writing*," says Schuster, "is much more about focus, fit, and flow than about subjects and predicates."

"No, Virginia, Diagramming Will Not Improve Students' Writing" by Edgar Schuster in *Education Week*, March 30, 2005 (Vol. 24, #29, p. 34), http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2005/03/30/29schuster.h24.html

b. Website on African-American migrations – A new website has extensive classroom information on the 13 major African-American migrations over the last 400 years. Part of a project titled "In Motion: The African-American Migration

Experience," the online materials include narrative, illustrations, maps, teacher lesson plans and other resources. More than 16,500 pages of texts, 8,300 illustrations and 60 maps are available by migration name, geographic area, and a timeline. The material "offers a new interpretation of African-American history focusing on the self-motivated activities of people of African descent to remake themselves and their worlds," says project curator Howard Dodson, who directs the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture at the New York Public Library. Check it out at http://www.inmotionaame.org.

Spotted in *District Administration*, April 20005 (Vol. 41, #4, p. 69), no e-link available

c. Kids' websites – *Newsweek* recommends four websites suitable for students in upper elementary grades and higher:

- http://www.Strangematterexhibit.com - Introduces kids to the field of materials science by letting them virtually transform carbon into spacesuit fabric, decide if Styrofoam is stronger than mozzarella cheese, and examine a Coke can under a microscope.
- http://www.Puzzlemaker.com - This site makes it easy to design and print customized word searches, crosswords and cryptogram puzzles to boost vocabularies. You supply the words and clues, the site does the rest.
- http://www.Pbskids.org/dontbuyit - Teaches kids to be media savvy by revealing popular advertising gimmicks. It explains how food stylists use glue and food coloring to prep burgers for photo shots and how much Nike pays Tiger Woods to wear its Swoosh.
- http://www.Ratemyteachers.com - Maintained by thousands of student volunteers, this site exposes ineffective teachers and praises exceptional ones. "A useful tool for parents and a good outlet for kids," says *Newsweek*.

"Virtual Teachers" by Cornel Garfman in *Newsweek*, March 28, 2005 (Vol. CXLV, #13, p. 59), no e-link available

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Do you have feedback? Is anything missing?
If you have comments or suggestions, if you saw an article or web item in the last week that you think should have been summarized, or if you would like to suggest additional publications that should be covered by the Marshall Memo, please e-mail: kim.marshall8@verizon.net

About the Marshall Memo

Mission and focus:

This weekly memo is designed to keep principals, teachers, superintendents, and others very well-informed on current research and best practices in K-12 education. Kim Marshall, drawing on 35 years' experience as a teacher, principal, central office administrator, and writer, lightens the load of busy educators by serving as their "designated reader."

To produce the Marshall Memo, Kim subscribes to 39 carefully-chosen publications (see list to the right), sifts through scores of articles each week, and selects 5-10 that have the greatest potential to improve teaching, leadership, and learning. He then writes a brief summary of each article, pulls out several striking quotes, provide e-links to full articles when available, and e-mails the memo to subscribers every Monday (with occasional breaks; there were 50 issues in 2003-04).

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Publications covered:

(those read this week are underlined)

American Educational Research Journal
American Educator
American School Board Journal
ASCD SmartBrief
Atlantic Monthly
Bay State Banner
Boston Globe
CommonWealth Magazine
District Administration
Ed. Magazine (Harvard School of Education)
Education Digest
Education Gadfly
Education Next
Education Update (ASCD)
Education Week
Educational Leadership
Educational Researcher
Edutopia
Elementary School Journal
Harper's
Harvard Business Review
Harvard Education Letter
Harvard Educational Review
Journal of Staff Development
Middle School Journal
NASSP Bulletin
New York Times
New Yorker
Newsweek
PEN Weekly NewsBlast
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Reading Research Quarterly
Reading Today
Rethinking Schools
Review of Educational Research
Teachers College Record
Teacher Magazine

E-links will be provided whenever possible.