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The NCPEA International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation is a nationally refereed journal published two times a year, in Spring and Fall by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration.

Note from NCPEA Publications Director, Theodore Creighton

Beginning with the Volume 8, Number 1 (March 2013) issue of the International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation (IJELP), we notified our authors, readers, reviewers, and the education community at large, that NCPEA will contribute this content to the Open Education Resources (OER) movement. This contribution to OER will be permanent and continue through the future.

In August, 2005, NCPEA partnered with Rice University and the Connexions Project, to publish our IJELP as open and free to all who had access to the Internet. Currently, there are over 400 peer-reviewed research manuscripts in the NCPEA/Connexions database. The purpose of the NCPEA/Knowledge Base Connexions Project is to "add to the knowledge base of the educational administration profession" and "aid in the improvement of administrative theory and practice, as well as administrative preparation programs." Our partnership continues but a new door has opened for NCPEA Publications to join the OER movement in a more substantive and direct way. In March 2013, NCPEA Publications and the NCPEA Executive Board committed the IJELP to the OER movement.

What are Open Educational Resources (OER)?

Open Educational Resources (OER) are teaching and learning materials that you may freely use and reuse, without charge. Open Educational Resources are different from other resources an educator may use in that OER have been given limited licensing rights. That means they have been authored or created by an individual or organization that chooses to provide access to all, at no charge. NCPEA Publications is committed to providing access to all, while assuring author/s of full attribution as others use the material.

The worldwide OER movement is rooted in the idea that equitable access to high-quality education is a global imperative (and to NCPEA, a moral/ethical responsibility and issue of social justice). Open Educational Resources, or OER, offer opportunities for systemic change in teaching and learning through accessible content, and importantly, through embedding participatory processes and effective technologies for engaging with learning. The OER Commons project aims to grow a sustainable culture of sharing among educators at all levels.

What is the OER Commons?

The Institute for the Study of Knowledge in Education (ISKME) created OER Commons, publicly launched in February 2007, to provide support for and build a knowledge base around the use and reuse of open educational resources (OER). As a network for teaching and learning materials, the web site offers engagement with resources in the form of social bookmarking, tagging, rating, and reviewing. OER Commons has forged alliances with over120 major content partners to provide a single point of access through which educators and learners can search across collections to access over thousands of items, find and provide descriptive information about each resource, and retrieve the ones they need. By being "open," these resources are publicly available for all to use.

What NCPEA OER is Not!

NCPEA open educational resources are not an open door at the NCPEA Publications submission and review stages. We have always insisted on and will continue to require very thorough peer reviews (double and often triple-blind). NCPEA Publications is fortunate to have a cadre of professional reviewers (university professors), numbering at approximately 400. Topic Editors first consider a submitted manuscript, and if appropriate content, selects/assigns two reviewers who also have the expertise/interest in the manuscript's specific topic. This process assures that reviewers will read an author's manuscript with expertise/experience in that area. The IJELP has an approximate acceptance rate of 20%. This current Volume 9, Number 1 has a 45% acceptance rate.

The "openness" of the IJELP OER comes at publication stage. Once the issues are published, they are formatted/published in an open access website, indexed by Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), catalogued as a "commendable journal" in the Cabell's Directory, and provided to the Open Educational Resource database. The IJELP is currently viewed and read by educators from over 72 countries (many 3rd World) and all 50 U.S. States (data provided by Google Analytics).

Read More at: http://www.oercommons.org

The manuscripts in Volume 9, Number 1 (Spring 2014) have been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as significant contributions to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

Contents

How the Cultural Contexts of Urban Teaching Affect Novice Science Educators: Implications for School Leaders

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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While the challenge to retain highly competent teachers affects all schools, the crisis is critical in urban districts, which historically suffer from high teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2004). This high turnover is especially problematic in the content areas of science (Ingersoll & Perda, 2010). Through ethnographic case studies the first year teaching experiences of three teachers, working in urban districts, are documented. Results focus on how the tri-cultural spheres of teacher socialization (personal, institutional, and societal) shape novice science teachers' induction into the teaching profession and the implications for school leaders. In addition the analysis of the data suggests that novice's needs and concerns differ based on the relationship between image of self in response to school and local community culture. The purpose of this study is to examine the commonalities and differences in novice teachers' experiences in order to help increase school leaders' understanding of how to better support teachers to work in urban districts. A current demand for retaining the supply of quality science teachers reinforces the need for this type of research

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Introduction

The number of teachers needed to fill K-12 public school classrooms is substantial and growing (Blank & Langesen, 2003). Every school day, nearly a thousand teachers leave the field of teaching (US Department of Education, 2009). Another thousand change schools, many in pursuit of better working conditions, and these figures do not include the teachers who retire (Ingersoll, 2003). A conservative national estimate of the cost of replacing public school teachers who have dropped out of the profession is $2.2 billion a year; if the cost of replacing public school teachers who transfer schools is added, the total reaches $4.9 billion every year (National Academy of Sciences, 2007). Complicating matters, the demand for teachers is uneven, with most acute need in locations serving poor, minority youth in urban areas and teachers new to the profession are far more likely to leave than are their more experienced counterparts (Darling-Hammond, 2002). The largest 100 urban school districts in the U.S. educate approximately 40% of all non-white students and 30% of the students from low income families yet; teacher demographics in these large urban areas do not come close to matching the student population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005).

Concern over shortages of science teachers and the impact on the state of science education have reached new heights (Calabrese-Barton, 2001). The most compelling aspect of the effects of poor science instruction in urban districts is the wide disparities between the education of African American and Caucasian students, as shown by attainment on national and local tests, dropout rates, and post school success in the labor market in STEM fields. For example Berliner (2006) compared the relative performance of African American, Hispanic, and Caucasian students using data from the Third International Mathematics and Sciences Study (TIMSS). When the data were disaggregated by race, and each racial group was scored as an individual country, stark differences were evident in the outcomes of White, Black, and Hispanic students. Berliner noted "in science the scores of White students in the US were exceeded by only three other nations. But Black American school children were beaten by every single nation, and Hispanic kids were beaten by all but two nations" (p.B3). Results such as these are a clear indicator of an educational system that is oppressive to minorities, especially in urban schools.
High profile reports from groups such as Commission on Mathematics and Science
Teaching for the 21st century, the National Academy of Sciences and the National Research Council have all directly tied shortages to the quality of science education and in turn to the future well-being of the economy and the survival of the nation (NCEI, 2005). The inability of schools to adequately staff classrooms with qualified teachers has received widespread coverage in the national media, has been heralded as a major educational problem, and has been the target of numerous reform and policy initiatives (Oakes, 2002). Although it is assumed the problem is only attributed to a teacher shortage in science, the recent literature paints a different picture. For every science teacher leaving the profession there is one in the pipeline (Ingersoll, 2003). Therefore, there is also a problem with high turnover. This analysis suggests that recruitment programs alone will not solve the staffing problems of schools if they do not also address the issue of teacher retention.

Related Literature

"While urban schools do not necessarily require of their teachers a different set of skills or competencies than suburban or rural schools, they certainly demand that teachers be cognizant of

the particular contextual and cultural variables that pertain to the urban setting" (Montero-Sieburth, 1989 p.333). Urban school districts and the students within them have distinct characteristics that should be addressed in the teacher's induction year. Urban school systems are usually large causing students to gain anonymity (Cochran-Smith, 1995). Urban districts contain multiple ethnicities and religions and there is a greater mobility of the student population. In Lois Weiner's book, Urban Teaching: The Essentials (Weiner, 1999), she discussed some of the additional considerations when working in urban populations. Weiner notes that teachers need strong content knowledge to understand and communicate the important aspects of the material through multiple approaches and teaching strategies. Teachers are successful with urban students when they create lessons that relay the information to their students in a meaningful way. She acknowledges that teachers need to be empowered to become leaders of a classroom of learners and not just transmit knowledge. To make these changes teachers need support and guidance from school leaders to make decisions within their classroom based on the needs they are seeing.

A supportive school leader can play a key role in helping new teachers not only survive, but thrive during their first year. School leaders can be instrumental in helping novices find a mentor teacher, take part in professional development and make full use of planning time. In addition to giving teachers formal opportunities to learn and collaborate, principals can boost morale simply by taking time to work alongside new teachers (DePaul, 2000). Unfortunately, rarely are administrators in urban districts able to provide new teachers with efficient support to help them succeed through the challenging first three years of teaching (Ingersoll, 1999). This often leaves beginning teachers feeling like failures and their self-confidence shattered; consequently, only the strong and most determined survive (Colbert & Wolff, 1992). Therefore, the urban teacher turnover will continue to be a problem unless improved means of understanding, supporting and training new teachers are developed and adopted by urban administrators**.**

In addition to support and training, urban administrators should help novice teachers create a tri-cultural balance among the societal, institutional, and personal contexts of teaching. Although there has been very little research in this area, a growing literature on cultural relevance provides insight into the importance of these relationships. The literature suggests that the combination of diverse students in Eurocentric schools results in a conflict of cultures (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Although schools endorse societal beliefs concerning equal treatment and equality of educational opportunities, certain practices such as the hidden curriculum, tracking and discriminatory discipline practices are in direct conflict with those beliefs (Irvine, 1992). The conflict between a school's culture and practices is characterized on the classroom level by a lack of understanding of diverse students' cultural values, norms, styles and language. Lack of "*cultural synchronization***"** because of misunderstanding, missed communications and low or no teacher interaction can result in novices having a negative teaching experience early on (Irvine, 1992). It is important for novice teachers to increase their understanding of the integral relationship between culture and social behavior and the need to view their work within a cultural context (Duncan-Andrade, 2005). In addition, it is important to have a keen awareness of their culture. "For self-understanding, teachers should recognize their own ethnocentrism and bias and realize that their worldview is not universal nor their cultural norms absolute" (Rodriguez, 2001, p. 1120).

Cultural competent teachers are needed to work with the culturally and linguistically diverse students in our nation's urban schools. Students from urban communities have diverse learning traditions, styles and preferences that are influenced by their cultural backgrounds; these

learning styles may be in disharmony with the beliefs and values of their classroom teacher and the latest pedagogical theory used in classrooms (Berry, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Nieto, 1992). The racial and cultural incongruence between teachers who are from the dominant culture and students who are not may be one factor that explains high teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). Thus, some researchers think that it is crucial that teachers begin critical discussions about their own cultural identities and the cultural identities and perceptions of their racially diverse students (Haberman, 2004). The inability of today's middle class teachers to appreciate and understand the cultural capital that each student and urban community contributes to the classroom may be the reason that minority students are not succeeding in school. A major task of urban administrators should be to help beginning teachers negotiate the conflicting aspects of the following three cultures; personal, institutional (urban districts) and the local community.

Purpose of the Study

Many new science teachers will need to take positions in urban schools without working with teachers of diverse urban students prior to taking these positions. With little or no exposure to teachers of urban youth, either as student teachers or through an examination of current research, which rarely focuses on a single secondary content area, prospective teachers will find it difficult to learn how to negotiate the cultural contexts of the teaching profession. Therefore it is essential for school leaders to begin to examine the cultural contexts of urban science teaching to help understand and support the personal and professional well-being of novice science educators. A current demand for retaining the supply of quality educators reinforces the need for this type of research.

Theoretical Framework

Personal Culture

One's perception is their reality; therefore the understanding of knowledge is grounded and constructed within a particular social, political, cultural, economic, historical, and linguistic reality (Haberman, 2004). In making meaning of what occurs in the classroom and local community a new teacher uses the filters or lenses of prior experience to interpret what is occurring (McAlpine & Crago, 1995). In other words, prior experience helps novices predict outcomes and make decisions about practice. For new teachers, if the culture is similar to their own experiences, then they can depend on prior experiences with greater conviction on the interpretation of their new surroundings. One's personal culture is derived from a variety of influences; racial/ethnic, religious affiliation, socioeconomic background, all contributes to the basis for social organization. Socialization into any new environment greatly depends on the lens of perception or cognitive framework in which one views the world. Therefore, culture can be viewed as the foundation for adaptation. Other characteristics that influence cultural socialization include extent of teacher training and knowledge of subject matter (Tobin, Roth & Zimmerman, 2001). Novice teachers come into the profession with developed viewpoints, values and goals about the purpose of education and how students should be educated. These viewpoints, values and goals are influenced by past and present experiences and are tested in the initial years of classroom teaching. A lack of experience and support during the induction years can results in novices only relying on personal value systems for solutions to the challenges of beginning teaching.

Institutional Culture

A second form of socialization is assimilating into the school culture in which one is employed. Urban schools have been described as sites where students defy teachers, parents and administrators; where administrators are concerned with keeping their schools open by trying to raise standardized assessment scores, provide security and uphold schooling as impermeable; where parents are disenfranchised from the schooling effort; where teachers view students as the enemy; where training rather than education takes place; and where daily survival is the paramount concern (Montero-Sieburth, 1989). This is of greatest significance in the identity formation of most urban teachers for a variety of reasons. One is that the teacher is being more intensely and extensively initiated into the norms and practices of the school than typically occurs in the pre-service level, even including the student teaching experience. (Ayers, 1998) Second, within the school, the carriers of the local culture and traditions are immediately and inescapably present; it is as if the novice is suddenly thrust into a "totalizing institution". Other factors in the school setting that influence socialization include guidance and support from administration, teacher colleague support and access to curricular and professional development resources. In particular, according to most of the literature, urban public schools have unique cultural characteristics that must be negotiated by the staff:

- The schools serve highly-diverse populations whose cultural model of schooling is often different from and in conflict with that of the dominant culture (Ogbu, 1995).
- The schools serve a large number of students who are linguistic minorities (Ogbu,; Seller & Weis, 1998, 2000).
- A lack of funding dictates decisions about teaching and learning (Weis, 2000).
- High-stakes test results are the primary measure of teaching and learning.
- Decision-making is centralized and invested in a bureaucracy that is politically isolated from the local communities' main interest (Weis, 2000).

Local Community Culture

Last, the local community plays a significant role in the socialization of a novice educator. Most new urban teachers do not reside in the communities in which they teach; therefore their impact as role models and exposure to the local community is limited to the scheduled school day (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). The diminished sense of community lessens the communication between parents and school people disenfranchising parents from the schooling effort. In addition, modern cities are characterized by cultural heterogeneity (Ladson-Billings, 2001). Ways of life of urban community members usually differ from the values and beliefs of white middle class science educators. Despite the cultural diversity within the urban community, the prevailing assumption among many white middle class novice educators is achievement for minority low-income students is the same as it is for any other group (Perry, 2003). If you know what works for suburban white students, then you know what works for urban minority students. But since learning is fundamentally contextual, there are different social, emotional, cognitive, and political competencies required of low-income urban youth (Perry). In some instances, the rules from family and community may be compatible with those of the school, but, in others, the incompatibility of home/community and school norms can create dissonance for the urban student. This conflict creates a gap between the urban community culture and the school culture.

In the book Young, Gifted and Black, Perry argues that low-income urban minority youth are not successful in American public schools and their families are at odds with the structure and standards due to the following dilemma: Low-income urban minority youth and adults have a hard time committing to working hard in American public school districts, given that:

- They cannot predict when or under what circumstances this hard work will be acknowledged and recognized by individuals in and out of school.
- Achieving in school is separation from the cultural reference group**.**
- No matter what other members of the reference group accomplish, these accomplishments are not likely to change how the group is viewed by the larger society or to alter the castelike position in the society. (p. 4-5)

Tri-cultural Conflict

Novice educators come into the classroom with strong beliefs about the teaching of science that may be in direct contradiction with the beliefs and norms of the school and local community. Research evidence has shown that teachers within impoverished urban schools are so overwhelmed by the demands of their teaching environments that they can barely function (Au, 1998). They carry theory around in their heads, but they often do not know how to apply this knowledge in the given context because they are so at odds with the institutional polices and practices of the district (Wilkinson, 1997). Compounding their predicament is the instructional grouping design for diverse categories of students, which results in tracking, bilingual education, and vocational education (Montero-Sieburth, 1998). Therefore, even among the best-intentioned urban teacher who believes in differentiated instruction in the forms of constructivist, inquiry based, and critical thinking teaching styles when applied to low socioeconomic students these philosophies and practices are not implemented and teaching and learning has little relevance to urban students' lives. This existence offers few opportunities for urban teachers to consider their roles in the context of the unique personalities and cultures of their schools and communities. Part of succeeding as a teacher and staying with the profession is socializing into being a member of the teaching community. In the suburban setting, the suburban new teacher begins to teach in the school that has a familiar culture and teaches students with a familiar culture. The socialization process is smooth because there are fewer cultural conflicts (Cochran-Smith, 1997). When the new suburban teacher goes to teach in the urban setting the school culture is different from what he/she experienced as a student or student teacher. The culture of the local community, students, and school is different from that of the novice teacher. There is conflict among three cultures making it difficult for urban novice educators to negotiate the cultural spheres of socialization. The participants of this study were particularly vocal in their criticism of teaching in urban districts. They found adapting to the cultural spheres of socialization the most challenging component of their new job teaching science. They were never taught how to negotiate the unfamiliar school and community cultures in contrast to their own personal cultural beliefs.

Context of the Study

The New Teachers Dinner Club was developed to support novice math, science and elementary teachers. The majority of the dinner club participants taught in an urban district. The district with

the largest number of dinner club participants had approximately 30,000 students. Like many other urban school districts, the community suffers from a lack of physical and human resources, several schools are labeled as under performing based on standardized tests scores and over 50% of the students come from low income households. In addition, ninety percent of the teachers taught in schools in which more than half of the student population is identified as minority. On average approximately ten to fifteen novice teachers would attend the NTDC meetings. The demographics of NTDC participants reflected beginning teachers nationally. They were predominantly middle class white females. The teachers represented an uneven gender mix of 70% females and 30% males. The majority of the teachers (60%) taught science in grades 5-8 middle school range. Approximately 27% taught grades 1-4 elementary range and the smallest portion taught grades 9-12.

Research Design

Three qualitative methods were used to gather data and develop case studies; field notes from eight dinner club meetings, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations with three of the dinner club participants. Interviews and field notes were audio taped and transcribed for analysis. There were two dinner club facilitators, field notes were recorded immediately after the dinner meetings. Dinner club meetings were two hours long and consisted of dinner for the first hour and a discussion related to a specific topic for the last hour. Each discussion topic correlated to classroom or educational topics of personal concern expressed by participants through an information survey. Three participants of the dinner club were selected to serve as the focus of the case studies. Participants were selected on the basis of the following criteria: (a) each teacher taught middle school science; (b) taught in an urban district; (c) had a strong commitment to attend all of the NTDC meetings; (d) was in his/her first year of teaching. Each focus teacher was interviewed twice for 50-90 minutes, and two observations of their science instruction were conducted to assess the impact of teacher background against the impact of school and local community contexts on induction.

Data Analysis

The categories and theoretical statements in this paper are grounded in qualitative data drawn from three case studies of novice urban teachers. Data were collected and analyzed according to Strauss and Corbin's qualitative research guidelines for grounded theory research and constant comparative analysis using open and axial coding (1994). The grounded theory methods focus on the discovery of categories and relationships between and among categories relevant to a particular phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The research procedures used allow categories to emerge directly from the data into the developing model. In the first round of coding, segments of data were organized according to the categories cultural socialization forces identified in the literature (personal, institutional, and local contexts). In the second round of analysis, emergent themes were identified around the impact of the tri-cultural socializations forces on teacher beliefs about urban communities, the teaching profession, and teaching practices. This involved the use of the constant comparative methods, a process designed to generate, revise and regenerate categories and codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Next, a descriptive case memorandum for each focal teacher was developed which included examples from their classroom observations, interviews, and NTDC discussion comments. From these

cases emergent themes regarding the link between cultural socialization forces and teacher induction were identified. Last, a cross case analysis of the case studies was conducted. From the cross-case analysis matrices and other displays were developed to further understand the data.

Three focus teachers were the subjects of the case studies. James, Velma, and Lamar were all first year middle school science teachers, of European descent, teaching in an urban district in which they did not reside. Teaching was a career change for the three novices. James was a former EMT, Lamar a former engineer, and Velma was a former early childcare provider. Two of the three received their teacher training from a traditional graduate teacher education program and the third, Lamar, received his training from an alternative teaching certification program. All three regularly attended the New Teachers Dinner Club meetings

Results

The teaching experiences of three novice educators were examined as they undertook their first year of teaching in a culture different than their own. Their stories demonstrate the challenges of teaching in an urban setting, and it offers suggestions for novice educators who may be experiencing, "tri-cultural" conflict. It suggests that a tri-cultural conflict is a clash between ones personal beliefs and value system (culture), with the culture of their institution of employment, and the local community. Thus, for a novice urban teacher acculturation into the profession is confounded by a need to also become acculturated to a new set of school and local community values, and in some instances language (McAlpine & Crago, 1995) While these novices' experiences do not reflect all urban educators, they provide some noteworthy variations in the interrelationships among the societal, institutional and personal cultural contexts of teaching.

James "Where I am now [urban district] those ideas are out the window"

James was a dinner club participant who was very unhappy with his first teaching assignment being at an urban school. He took a position in an urban district because there were no available science positions at the suburban districts close to his home. He had very progressive teaching ideas, but felt restricted because of his job assignment. James was a perfect example of a novice who carried educational theory in his head, but did not know how to apply this knowledge in the given context. He was conflicted with institutional polices, his own bias that certain teaching methods can only be done under familiar conditions, and the lack of support and connection to the local community. His tri-cultural conflict did not allow him to appreciate the unique personalities and cultures of the school, students, and the community:

> **School cultural conflict.**
> My teaching philosophy says a whole lot about building communities and using constructivist inquiry based teaching styles. Where I am now [urban district] those ideas are out the window. The main reason why I am unable to teach in this fashion is because the majority of my students are special ed. or ELL and getting my students to be still and stay on task is a big challenge. I don't really use any philosophy because the main goal of the school is behavior modification instead of teaching in a way where learning can occur. In reality I'm not doing much teaching for learning, I'm just getting through the curriculum and not focusing on the needs of the students. The system just wants me to get them [students] ready for the test. I'm just shoving information at them and saying that I

taught them, but in reality I haven't. This situation makes it hard to collect a paycheck every two weeks because I know there are issues with my teaching and student learning. (Interview, March, 2009)

James struggled with a school culture which served a large number of students who are linguistic minorities, teachers were viewed as trainers rather than educators, and high-stakes test results were the primary measure of teaching and learning. These institutional factors were such a burden to James he questions whether contemplates leaving the profession. Instead of trying to implement new teaching strategies and putting his teaching philosophy into practice, he fell victim to the "nothing can be done here" scenario. James' institutional conflict was compounded by his personal belief system that doing well in math and science equals success. He expected his students to share his values despite their exposure and experiences with science education:

Personal cultural conflict.
I was always into science. I was an EMT in the military prior to coming here. I think it has always been about science because it was ingrain in me coming up that if you were going to be somebody and make money that science or becoming a lawyer or a doctor was the way to go. So that had a huge influence in my decision. I always took my math and science courses seriously. That is why I find it hard to understand why the students don't take their education seriously. I had fun in school but I always knew the importance and the power of a good education. (Interview, January 2009)

In spite of the fact that students in high-poverty urban settings are quantitatively lagging behind their suburban counterparts on standardized tests, school grades in science courses, have reduced access to new textbooks, scientific equipment, and science related extracurricular activities, they are still expected to perform at the same level (Oakes, 2000). Urban students have limited access to high-level math and science courses and are disproportionately tracked into low-level classes in which educational achievement focuses on behavior skills and static conceptions of knowledge (Calabrese-Barton, 2001). Further, in these classes students spend more time reading from textbooks and completing worksheets and are expected to be passive learners rather than active users and producers of science related knowledge (Calabrese-Barton, 2003). Unfortunately, James assumes that his students are not serious about their math and science courses instead of assuming they are lacking opportunities to experience science in positive authentic ways. In addition, James believes students of a certain race and socioeconomic backgrounds are better prepared to do science. This belief system is detrimental in a diverse urban school setting. During a December dinner club discussion James blames a lack of fundamental skills as the reason why students in urban districts are less prepared to do science than suburban students. He equates their race and socioeconomic status to their academic ability:

Community cultural conflict.
I think you have to have the fundamentals in any field. Students in suburban areas for the most part have the fundamentals to do well in school. I don't think the students I am teaching have the fundamentals or the language of science and that is a big obstacle in itself. How am I supposed to teach middle school science lessons on the solar system or physical science

> when most of them read and write at a third grade level? (Dinner Club Field Notes, December 2008)

James speaks of the fundamentals of doing well in school in an ambiguous manner. He is familiar with a culture that sends children to school with certain skills and behaviors. Instead of James establishing these skills sets in his class or adapting his teaching style to meet the needs of his students, he discredits their talents and potential. Although he has never taught in a suburban school system, he assumes students in suburban districts are better prepared because he is familiar with his own experience as a successful suburban student**.**

Velma "I grew up in an affluent area of New Jersey and what was cool was getting good grades"

One of the greatest barriers is the difficulty in transforming novice white middle class teachers' attitudes regarding race, class, ethnicity, and critical awareness of structural inequities in America (Cochran-Smith, 2001). Velma was another teacher who experienced tri-cultural conflict during her first year of teaching. Her memories of her own "picture-perfect" schooling experience fogged her view and caused her to react negatively to the experiences of urban youth:

> **Personal cultural conflict.**
> The other thing we are battling is being cool does not mean being smart. There are a couple of girls who do well in school; there is one girl in the 7th grade and two girls in the other 7th grade class, and they all happened to be white. They were ostracized because they were not part of the culture and no one gives them the time of day. It is so hard for me to understand why they act like this [students of color]. I grew up in an affluent area of New Jersey and what was cool was getting good grades. Everyone worked really hard and talked about their class rank and the amount of homework they did. Everybody was in a race to be in the top five spots. (Interview, February 2009)

Velma's recollection of her secondary school experience is similar to most successful students; all students at the school she attended did well. Therefore her experiences with "good" students are primarily at affluent suburban schools and her affiliation with students who struggle academically is at the urban school where she teaches. She sees this as a static situation, and her belief system becomes an obstacle to helping her students' change their perception of being cool. Another factor that contributes to Velma's tri-cultural conflict is her interaction with the parents and local community members. The most effective community experiences are sustained efforts to help prospective teachers learn how to interact in more genuine ways with parents and other adults from different racial/ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds (Ladson-Billings, 2001) When novices experience cultural conflicts with the local community the inevitable occurs, miscommunication and confrontation with students, parents and community leaders. If novices are not part of the community they teach in, the result can be feelings of alienation, diminished self-esteem and an "us verses them" attitude. Like several other first year teachers, Velma expressed a concern with classroom management techniques. During one of the observations students were playing cards, throwing objects, calling out and paying little attention to the science lesson. Velma tried to work with the parents of the students who were giving her the most trouble, but she viewed them as part of the problem:

Community cultural conflict.

Parents come to meetings and cry. I am surprised because they are disappointed [with their child's behavior] but there are no plans in place and the parents are like I never finished high school, and I find that the kids and the parents are not very open minded about wanting more or better for themselves. What's wrong with continuing the cycle? I'm not trying to say there is anything wrong with the Hispanic culture, but they don't have any vision for improvement, or wanting something better, or traveling, or wanting to find out about new cultures and new ideas. I keep telling the kids that education really is power. It buys your way to wherever you want to go. Their response is, "I don't want to go anywhere". They do not perceive education as an important value. What is even harder is that there are about 300 employees and only about 20 of them are Hispanic and half of them are custodians or ELL aids. The rest of the staff is white. There are only about 4 teachers who are Hispanic, so it doesn't give them any role models or anyone to look up to. Plus, most of the parents work in factories or menial labor especially the ones who don't speak English. Some of the parents work in the mall or a fast food restaurant or they don't work at all and are on welfare. I don't think these lifestyles are bad, but there is more out there. The other thing that is hard to deal with in their [Latino] society is that it's so matriarchal and mom is just god and whatever mom says or does goes. I think this is part of the teen pregnancy problem. They believe if you become a mom you have power. So becoming a mother gives the young ladies a chance to become someone. I have a bunch of students who are having sex and talking about getting pregnant. There is a sixth grader who is pregnant there are several of the 8th grade boys who have gotten girls pregnant and brag about it (Interview, April 2009).

Velma has differentiated herself from the Latino community, but fails to recognize she is an integral part of her students' lives. She acknowledges there is a lack of positive role models employed at the school, but she can't see herself as an agent of change or a role model in the community. She describes the Latino community as not being open-minded to other ideas and cultures, but finds no faults in her lack of knowledge of different groups and her view of success. Despite Velma's negative comments about the local community, she was a foster care provider for several Latino youth in the community and is currently putting one of her former Latino foster children through college. Velma wants to be an effective science teacher and empower her students to be successful in life; regrettably Velma's definition of success is framed in white middle-class values. Her desire to change them without changing herself is one of the main reasons she is experiencing tri-cultural conflict. In addition to feeling unprepared to work with diverse students, Velma is at odds with the school wide pressure of preparing students for the state high-stakes tests.

School cultural conflict.

We are also responsible for teaching WIN (writing instruction now). Every subject area is responsible for teaching the kids how to write cohesive paragraphs to help with the open response questions [on high stakes exam]. Also in homeroom we are responsible for administering and correcting school wide morning math activities. So I'm a math, English and science teacher. I don't like that I have to use science time to teach other subjects because there is a citywide final and my test results are compared to the results

of all the other middle school science teachers in the district. (Dinner Club Field Notes, November, 2008)

In addition to the regular stressors of first year teaching, urban educators have to endure the burden of increased accountability and high-stakes testing, poor working conditions, lack of autonomy in teaching and limited input into school decision making. State-sponsored standardized testing, and the homogenization of curricula that accompanies it, had a huge impact on Velma's idea of what it means to be a middle school science teacher. Velma fails to understand that high stakes tests and accountability requirements don't mean that her work in science education is restricted to school policy.

Lamar "Unfortunately, no one has taught these kids the value of exploring"

Like James and Velma, Lamar was struggling with how to negotiate the cultural spheres of teaching. He discovered quickly that his passion and knowledge of the subject area were not enough to be a successful urban educator. Lamar was raised in an environment were science was done for fun therefore, he found it difficult to believe that his students didn't value science exploration. As a child he was able to see how science class connected to his home adventures of taking things apart with his dad and brother, but the science experiences he provided in the classroom were disconnected from his students' home life:

> **Personal cultural conflict.**
> I've always wanted to teach science. When I was growing up I would love to take things apart, like the lawnmower, and put them back together and show my brother and father how I did it. For me being a science teacher is like helping others explore the unknown. Unfortunately, no one has taught these kids the value of exploring and because of tests requirements I am limited to teaching specific topics. I really don't know how to get through to these kids. Some days a lesson goes well but on other days I feel like I'm speaking a different language to them and all it takes is one thing to get them off track and I'm done. For example the other day a student got into an argument in the previous class and she brought her attitude to my class. That ruined the class period. She wouldn't stop talking to her friend about the fight and I finally asked her to go see the vice principal and on her way out she said, "Mr. you're racist". Sometimes I feel like I'm the wrong color to work here. I can't relate to these kids and they don't relate to me (Interview, April 2009)

Although Lamar wants to get his students excited about learning science, he clearly feels disconnected from the students and the community culture. Statements such as "sometimes I feel like I am the wrong color to work here" express his discomfort with being the minority amongst his students. The pressures of high-stakes assessments change his initial belief that a science teacher is one who helps students explore:

> **School cultural conflict.**
> I need to learn how to cover the material in a way that interests these students. I have to learn to think like they do. I wanted to set up some inquiry-based projects for the students like taking apart a computer and figuring out how it works but there is no time. I have to cover material up to chapter six before the winter break. I have to lecture for the majority

> of the period so the students can take notes because there are not enough books for every student. Because we are an under performing school we are mandated to follow strict curricular guidelines. I have no freedom for creativity. (Dinner Club Field Notes, November 2008)

Often novices believe following strict curricular guidelines means little or no creativity in their teaching, and they are required to cover vast amounts of material through lecture and worksheets. Lamar's cultural conflict with the school has convinced him that he is disconnected from the students and his primary job is to deliver information. In many ways he has lost sight of his initial reason for becoming a teacher, teaching students the value of exploring. During one of the observation periods, Lamar lectured for twenty-minutes on the digestive system and provided a fifteen-minute activity worksheet related to the digestive system. During this lesson there were constant disturbances. Students were talking in small groups about non-science related topics and or dismantling any object they could find in the class. After the lesson Lamar spoke briefly about the students' lack of involvement in the lesson:

> **Local community cultural conflict.**
> What you just saw is why I need ideas. They are bored and uninterested in what I'm doing. I need to learn the tricks of the trade. I want them to have a better experience in science class. I want the lessons to be relevant to their lives, but these kids don't see "science" in their communities. It's not safe for them to explore their surroundings. My perception of urban communities is a place with a large population of low income Black, Hispanic, and recent immigrant families, the students are usually from single parent homes and parents don't have high expectations of their kids and don't see the point of academics. Most are not familiar with outdoors or the natural world and are use to violence in their daily lives. I don't think this as an adequate environment to explore. (Post-observation, December 2008)

It takes a whole village to raise a child," according to the African proverb that has become popular among educators. Presumably the child referred to might be educationally disadvantaged, low income, and a student of color not just one fortunate enough to be raised in exemplary circumstances. As an urban educator, Lamar did not subscribe to the principle that all children have a right to a decent education. James, Lamar, and Velma were not willing to accept their role as a resident of the village and prepare their students accordingly. Due to their tri-cultural conflict they were merely occasional visitors with a shallow tourist's understanding of the village and its children.

The data illustrates a conflicting relationship between the culture of the school and the local community with the novice teacher's self-concept and values of how to meet the needs of students. For Lamar, James and Velma, mandated curriculum, high- stakes assessments, and poor perceptions and relationships with students and parents have a negative impact on their self-concept as teachers. Their negative descriptions of working with students, parents and community members illustrate their insecure relationship with working in an urban district. All three-focus teachers were unable to negotiate the cultural spheres of socialization and as a result are consciously and unconsciously reinforcing the power structure of white upper -middle class America. Unfortunately, this country has yet to produce a system of teacher education that successfully, and in sufficient numbers, prepares teachers for effective work in diverse urban

school settings (Darling-Hammond, 1994). Despite the standards movement, teachers of students from poverty need more than a good grasp of content knowledge (Leland & Harste, 2005). They need to be able to understand and negotiate the cultural spheres of urban teacher socialization. Freire (1998) wrote,

> I am not angry with people who think pessimistically. But I am sad because for me they have lost their place in history. There is a lot of fatalism around us, which insists that we can do nothing to change the march of social-historical and cultural reality because that is how the world is (p. 26-27).

School leaders can play a key role in helping urban novice understand the importance of their work and learn how to negotiate the cultural realities of urban teaching, once they are able to internalize that things are challenging largely because they are unfamiliar they will have the ability to intervene and improve the situation. "This attitude is not developed overnight or in the safety of a college classroom. It is the product of inner struggle, self-interrogation, and the realization that anyone can grow into a new kind of person" ((Leland & Harste, p.76). School leaders need to acknowledge this occurrence and help new teachers develop strategies to negotiate these three unique cultures.

Conclusion

The relationships among the themes identified in this study are complex. Further research is needed to better understand these relationships and specific strategies for school leaders to implement. The information provided through the narratives reveals the importance of novice having a forum to voice their concerns. Urban school administrators can play an integral role in providing these forums. Urban districts leaders should provide opportunities for novice teachers to dialogue with other educator and work through the cultural socialization spheres in a safe supportive environment. Developing such relationships could also be supported through participation from university teacher preparation programs, urban districts, and local communities. Educational legislation related to accountability pressures is an increasingly powerful force in urban schools. Beginning teachers need to understand their rights and responsibilities and have opportunities to voice their frustration as well as develop strategies to navigate through the requirements of common core based education. In addition these areas need to be examined in relationship to teacher retention in urban districts.

This study is significant for several reasons. First, it represents the initial steps in research exploring the cultural contexts on urban novice science educators. Next, it is essential for teachers to understand the impact of teaching in an environment that is different from their own. It is also valuable for school leaders to understand the importance of helping novice teachers create a cultural balance during the induction phase of their profession. With a better understanding of the cultural contexts of teaching we can help promote the professional and personal well being of beginning urban science teachers.

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The Political Sense of Urgency for Educational Leadership Preparation Programs to Show Impact Data

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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Higher education today is confronted with increasing marketization and aggressive regulation of the public sector. In an attempt to address these challenging issues, public universities are undergoing unprecedented change, particularly Colleges of Education. Redesigning educational leadership preparation programs, working in partnership with local school districts, and embedding field work are just some of the strategies that Colleges of Education have implemented to address these challenges. Now some states are requiring their public institutions to justify their educational leadership preparation programs' existence by showing the difference their program makes to their graduates and to the field. This article first discusses the reasons why educational leadership preparation programs need to show performance, value, and impact with a specific focus on Florida. Second, the article questions whether program faculty currently has the capacity to gather program impact data. Finally, the article describes strategies that program faculty can implement in order to develop robust impact statements.

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> The importance of clearly defining what successful learning or performance looks like has become increasingly evident during the past decade. Without a doubt, the better one understands what excellence looks like, the greater one's chances are for achieving—or surpassing—that standard. (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2011)

> Program impact is an outcome measurement, "a systematic way to assess the extent to which a program has achieved its intended results. The main questions addressed are: What has changed in the lives of individuals, families, organizations or the community as a result of this program? Has this program made a difference? How are the lives of program participants better as a result of the program?" (The Evaluation Forum, 2000, p. 9)

Introduction

Higher education has become "market-obsessed," competing for students in a world where university marketing predominates, and where considerable effort is focused on ensuring that the product is perceived as superior to any other in the field. In 2003 David Kirp suggested that higher education as a market commodity is measured by student input (i.e., what students bring into the program) such as GRE scores, years of experience in the field, and job titles that imply success in the field. This process replicates the way the private market rewards firms with profits when they produce and sell units of the required quality. But this quantitative data tells a future purchaser of the program little about quality or consumer experience. In order to help the student consumer and to make the institutional choice less opaque, there are calls for increased accountability and improved assessment reverberating throughout all levels of higher education (Lydell, 2008; Pounder, 2011).

Historically, the assessment of student outcomes for graduate education has been limited (Lydell, 2008). But in the last decade graduate education has begun to operate in an international context and it is therefore important that universities benchmark their programs in a global environment. Recently, educational leadership faculty have been forced to examine "what goes on" within their graduate programs and, more specifically, what outcomes for students this education yields (Lydell, 2008) in an attempt to both ensure and market program effectiveness and quality. In fact, the most recent newsletter from Division A, American Education Research Association (AERA, Spring, 2013), Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership Special interest Group highlighted the importance of program evaluation in the international arena by focusing on "Linking Administrator Preparation Programs to Student Outcomes," asking whether this is a "quixotic quest."

The focus of this paper, however, is program value and impact, not program evaluation. Program impact is increasingly important in the growing marketplace of higher education, particularly for public institutions delivering programs that address standards and criteria required by their state. In Article IX, Section 7(a), the Florida Constitution, establishes a system of governance for the State University System of Florida (11 public universities) "in order to achieve excellence through teaching students, advancing research and providing public service for the benefit of Florida's citizens, their communities and economies." One of the responsibilities of the Board of Governors is "avoiding wasteful duplication of facilities or

programs." To this end the State University System of Florida Strategic Plan 2012–2025, created by the Board of Governors, emphasizes three critical areas: Excellence, Productivity, and Strategic Priorities for a Knowledge Economy. Under the category of teaching and learning the governors highlight (a) strengthening the quality and reputation of academic programs and universities; (b) increasing degree productivity and program efficiency; and (c) increasing the number of degrees awarded in STEM and other areas of strategic emphasis. The governors state that "some unproductive academic programs are being re-tooled or terminated" (p. 7). The term "unproductive," is concerning depending on the lens being used (e.g., efficiency, contribution to the workforce, contribution to research and development, or contribution to a specific discipline or field).

Also in Florida, Senate Bill 1664 passed by the House (YEAS 110 NAYS 7) was presented to the Governor for signing, June 3rd, 2013. An issue of concern for educational leadership faculty is the fact that the bill states that a person with experience in "executive management," and a pass on the Florida Educational Leadership Exam (FELE) is eligible to obtain a temporary principal license with the proviso that they are mentored for three years. The proposer of the bill (Senator John Legg) believes this is in line with Florida's commitment to education choice. This further emphasizes the increasing need for university preparation programs to be able to show their impact in the field.

If all programs in public universities in Florida are being evaluated in the same manner, and if the role of the community/state colleges continues to move into areas that were previously the domain of universities (i.e., four year undergraduate degrees, teacher preparation), it is imperative that a university be able to show how a specific program can be differentiated from that in another public institution. This can be achieved by clearly articulating the value and impact of the program on the graduating individual, the educational field, school districts served, schools, and student achievement. If a university's program in Florida is unable to show impact, they may be viewed as "unproductive," making the program vulnerable to closure.

Faculty in educational leadership programs need to develop the capacity to evaluate the impact of their preparation programs and, as a field, develop a more sophisticated understanding of the preparation approaches that contribute to the school improvement work of graduates who become educational leaders (UCEA website). A search of marketing materials for educational leadership preparation programs finds frequent use of the term "impact," with a usual reference to program graduates making an impact in the field. Far too frequently, self-reported perceptions of administrators and teachers, accounts of program graduates' employment patterns, and in some cases reported measurements of student outcomes in schools led by program graduates are used to illustrate impact. However, objective causal linkages between program features and particular leadership behaviors and their effects on organizational dynamics, teacher practices, and targeted student outcomes remain opaque (Orr, 2011). Data on time-to-degree indicators while a common measure evaluative measure reveal nothing about program impact or quality but a lot about program efficiency.

Why Do Programs Need to Show Performance, Value, and Impact?

Impact requires a program to change attitudes or behavior, or benefit society (Diem, 1997). Identifying program impact is important for four reasons: (a) to justify the investment of public funding; (b) to earn and build professional, organizational, and political credibility and support; (c) to yield tangible data (quantitative and qualitative) that enable a public institution to show the

quality of their program(s); and (d) to satisfy the requirements of political bodies and funding agencies. Measuring impact is part of both the summative evaluation component, which judges the quality and worth of a program, and the formative evaluation component, which provides feedback to help improve and modify a program (University of Central Florida, Program Assessment Handbook, 2008).

Do Educational Leadership Preparation Programs Have the Capacity to Show Program Performance, Value, and Impact?

Currently, administrative preparation programs are under tremendous political pressure to demonstrate their value and impact on the performance of leaders whom they prepare and ultimately the schools that they lead. There are over 500 university-based educational leadership preparation programs in the United States, all of which are accountable to state and national leadership preparation standards and graduates' performance on the state leadership test (UCEA website, 2008). These university programs are now under scrutiny by critics external to the educational leadership professoriate who argue that educational leadership program content, rigor, and relevancy are generally suspect (Fordham Foundation, 2003; Hess, 2003; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005). Some states have responded to their critics—Iowa, Mississippi, Alabama, Tennessee, Florida, and Louisiana—by pressuring colleges and universities to update their educational leadership training programs.

Arthur Levine, then-president of Teachers College, at Columbia University, concluded in 2005 that many university-based school leadership programs are engaged in a "race to the bottom," attempting to attract students by offering lower standards, ensuring less demanding course work, and awarding degrees in less time and with fewer requirements. Levine also noted that many programs fail to actualize the placement of school leadership graduates in administrative posts. In a parallel critique, the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) report *Schools Can't Wait: Accelerating the Redesign of University Principal Preparation Programs* argues:

> There is a lack of urgency for refocusing the design, content, process, and outcomes of principal preparation programs based on the needs of schools and student achievement and little will happen until there are committed leaders of change at every level—state, university, and local school district. (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2006, p. 4).

A 2007 Wallace Foundation survey of 22 higher education institutions concluded that "many universities are not getting the job done . . . [they] have moved at a glacial pace to make improvements, or have made only cosmetic changes" (p. 10). Furthermore, the report criticized leadership faculties for being overly concerned with maintenance of existing course work (often posited as evidence of meeting required standards), faculty independence in course content development, and potential losses in enrollment that might translate to decreases in revenue production.

Contextual Background: Development of Florida State Standards

In 1979 the Florida legislature passed the Management Training Act (FS 231.086), which outlined a new system for administrator certification. This system involved three major

partners—the state's universities, the 67 school districts, and the Florida Department of Education (FDOE). Each partner was assigned roles or functions. CoEs were tasked with teaching the knowledge base associated with the field of educational leadership. The act also specified that principals should be trained in competencies, identified by the commissioner of education, necessary to execute school-based management. It also authorized school boards to submit to the commissioner a proposed program designed to train school leaders.

Additional legislation in 1980 created the Florida Council on Educational Management (FCEM) (FS 231.087) to be controlled by the deputy commissioner of education, not CoEs. The council consisted of 17 appointed members (six principals, three university professors, three persons from private-sector management, one elected school superintendent, one appointed superintendent, one school board member, one person engaged in school district management training, and one person from the Department of Education). Duties of the FCEM included identification of requisite principal competencies, validation of these competencies, development of competency measurement and evaluation, production of policies for compensation, identification of screening, selection, and appointment criteria, and other related activities. The FCEM was also asked to create and adopt guidelines and a review process and procedures for program approval. CoEs' educational leadership programs were directed to offer in their program the following eight core curriculum areas: (a) public school curriculum and instruction, (b) organizational management and development, (c) human resource management and development, (d) leadership skills, (e) communication skills, (f) technology, (g) educational law, and (8) educational finance, plus six credit hours in either elementary, middle, secondary, or exceptional student education. School districts, through their respective human resource and management development (HRMD) programs, were expected to provide "hands-on" (performance of the 19 principal competencies adopted by the FCEM and all duties required by the district school board) through a type of administrative internship and management/principalship training program. The FDOE was given the responsibility for approval of Colleges of Education's curricula, districts' HRMD programs, and the administration of the required Florida Educational Leadership Examination (FELE).

In 1981, FS 231.087 was retitled as the Management Training Act and included revisions and additions (such as recognition of the Florida Academy for School Leaders and the connection of selection, appraisal, and training programs to certification).

In 1985, the legislature passed the Principals and Assistant Principals; Selection (FS 231.0861). This act was important as it prescribed a deadline (July 1, 1986) for compliance of districts to adopt and implement their approved, objective process for the screening, selection, and appointment of principals and assistant principals. It also provided strict guidelines concerning out-of state administrators moving into Florida and examination requirements for new administrators. Also in 1985, the legislature renamed FS 231.087 Management Training Act; Florida Council on Educational Management; Florida Academy for School Leaders; Center for Interdisciplinary Advanced Graduate Study. This revision created district program approval guidelines and a training network, and emphasized 19 Principal Competencies as well as yearly accountability.

Several state board rules were written and enacted in 1986 to provide criteria as written in the statutes for certification of principals and assistant principals. Florida School Principal Certification (SBER 6A-4.0081) addressed the requirements Levels 1, 2, and 3 Certification. Florida Educational Leadership Examination (SBER 6A-4.00821) concerned the written examination for certification (i.e., the Florida Educational Leadership Examination or FELE).

Specialization Requirements for Certification in Educational Leadership—Administrative Class (SBER 6A-4.0082) required three years of successful teaching experience, a master's degree, and successful completion of the Florida Educational Leadership Core Curriculum for initial certification. School Principal—Administrative Class (SBER 6A-4.0083) required documentation of successful performance of principalship duties through the Preparing New Principals Program. It also addressed the requirement of a district-based objective screening and selection system.

With the sunset of the law in 1999 requiring HRMD programs based on the 19 competencies, the state was required to develop new leadership standards. A Commissioner's Educational Leadership Summit was held in September 2002 to bring together business, higher education, and school district leaders to discuss educational leadership. The summit outcomes were an agreement to develop new educational leadership standards modeled after the Educator Accomplished Practices (EAPs), creation of "Standards Working Group" to research and draft standards, and a peer review process to promote stakeholder involvement (Florida Department of Education website).

In 2003 a series of meetings was held with representatives of school principal and higher education groups, along with selected school administrators, resulting in revisions to the Florida Principal Competencies and sample key indicators. Over 200 participants from 40 counties participated in the development of the standards. In addition, all current school principals in the state were sent the recommended standards and were asked to comment on them, along with representatives of the Florida Association of School Administrators (FASA), the Florida Association of District School Superintendents (FADSS), the Florida Association of Professors of Educational Leadership (FAPEL), and the Florida Department of Education (FDOE) (Florida Department of Education website, 2013).

In 2005 the Florida Principal Competencies were replaced by the Florida Principal Leadership Standards (FLPS), State Board of Education (SBE) 6B-5.0012. They served as the state's standards that Florida school leaders must demonstrate in preparation programs and in school administrator evaluations. FPLS were adopted into rule (6 A-5.080) by the State Board in 2006–07, and Educational Leadership and School Principal Certification programs were redesigned to implement the new standards in 2008.

In 2006 the Florida legislature passed the William Cecil Golden Professional Development Program for School Leaders (F.S.1012.986), which replaced the school districts' HRMD plan that was designed to meet the "sunsetted" Management Training Act. This act included the following goals: (1) provide resources to support and enhance the principal's role as the instructional leader; and (2) build the capacity to increase the quality of programs for preservice education for aspiring principals and in-service professional development for principals and principal leadership teams.

In 2012 the legislature adopted the Fourth Edition of the Competencies and Skills Required for Certification in Educational Leadership in Florida. The revised competencies and skills reflect an alignment to the revised Florida Principal Leadership Standards, Rule 6A-5.080, Florida Administrative Code (FDOE memorandum, 2013). The FPLS currently form the basis for all of Florida's leadership preparation programs and establish the core practices for leadership appraisal systems. Revisions to the competencies and skills consequently necessitated content changes across all three current FELE subtests resulting in a new examination, FELE 3.0.

Criticism of Colleges of Education

Under the Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act (1990), higher education institutions are required to produce data on the following: (a) retention and graduation rates; (b) financial assistance available to students and requirements and restrictions imposed on Title IV aid; (c) crime statistics on campus; (d) athletic program participation rates and financial support; and (e) other institutional information, including the cost of attendance, accreditation and academic program data, facilities and services available to disabled students, and withdrawal and refund policies, to calculate and disclose a precisely and uniformly defined graduation rate. From the beginning there were doubts about the usefulness of using this rate to compare the effectiveness of institutions. The media were quick to create league tables, and, not surprisingly, opinion of the league tables among institutions varies depending on their ranking positions.

Major stakeholders such as state and federal legislators perceive the US educational system as falling behind international competitors. The Spellings Commission report by the US Department of Education (2006) accused American higher education of becoming what "in the business world, would be called a mature enterprise: increasingly risk-averse, at times self-satisfied, and unduly expensive" (p. xii). The commission called on higher education institutions to develop "new performance benchmarks designed to measure and improve productivity and efficiency" (U.S. Department of Education 2006, pp. 14, 19, 20). The National Commission on Accountability in Higher Education issued a report in 2005 that made similar recommendations. But neither the Spellings Commission report nor the National Commission on Accountability in Higher Education explained how transparency, measurement, and accountability measures improve graduate education, specifically in educational leadership programs.

As criticisms mount, there is an increasing sense of urgency among Colleges of Education to be seen as relevant and essential to school leadership preparation. Colleges of Education are cognizant of the current critical narrative that accuses them of falling short due to academia isolation, elitism, and lack of understanding of current problems occurring in the field. This narrative is constantly reiterated as state- and national-level policy actors, urban districts, foundations, and private organizations question how best to prepare leaders, particularly given existing shortages of highly qualified principals and superintendents and the complex demands of leading school reform efforts.

Can Program Faculty Gather the "Best" Data?

How do we know that a program is a "quality program" and that its graduates are "quality educational leaders?" The first indicator in Florida would be whether the program is state accredited. In Florida there are eight private institutions offering Educational Leadership (EL) Preparation programs, 12 public institutions, and one district with a total of 5,132 candidates and 1,700 completers in 2011, the last year for which data is available. In 2012 the Florida Department of Education contracted with MGT of America Inc. (MGT) to review and examine the implementation of the Continued Program Approval Standards for teacher and school leader preparation programs in Florida's 48 institutions of higher education, as required under Part D of the Great Teachers and Leaders' portion of Florida's Race to the Top (RTTT) application (MGT report, 2012).

Further, the FDOE is also working with a Race to the Top (RTTT) committee, the Teacher and Leader Preparation Implementation Committee (TLPIC), to review the Continued Program Approval Standards, identify and recommend performance measures, review curriculum, and recommend modifications to the site visit processes. The TLPIC is currently exploring new ways to assess and improve educational leadership preparation at the state level. Its work is cognizant of the work of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), Educational Administration—Special Interest Group Taskforce on Educational Leadership Preparation, and the recommendation by the National Conference of State Legislatures (2012) who identified the need to redesign preparation programs, develop tougher program accreditation, strengthen licensure and certification requirements, and provide meaningful mentoring programs and quality ongoing professional development. Turning their attention to program input, they recommended higher standards in recruiting, selecting, and retaining a talented pool of aspiring principals, and finally they recommended evaluating candidate and program effectiveness. The need to find meaningful outcome measures is one that states, organizations, and institutions are wrestling with.

Paradigm Shift: From Evaluation to Performance, Value and Impact

Literature on educational administration program value and impact is limited. In 2011 the Context for Success project, sponsored by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, brought together a group of scholars and policy makers to consider issues related to effective program evaluation focused on designing "input-adjusted metrics." With the support of the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the consulting firm HCM Strategists invited a number of scholars from around the country to write papers that would discuss the methodological issues in accounting for differences in student populations when evaluating institutional performance. In some cases these authors were also asked to demonstrate the effects of such adjustments using actual data (Clotfelter, 2012). Seven papers were commissioned, along with an overview and a literature review. These will be available in September on the project website at http://www.hcmstrategists.com/contextforsuccess/.

The most authoritative study to illuminate the chain of causal influences between program design features and school outcomes was conducted by Orr and Orphanos (2011). Through the application of structural equation modeling, they found that the effect sizes of principals who graduated from exemplary preparation programs were significantly larger than principals who graduated from traditional programs on effective leadership practices, school improvement practices, and effective school culture.

In 2012 Davis and Darling-Hammond examined five exemplary preparation programs and found that only one program had multiple and robust measures that linked program features with graduates' effects on important school outcomes. The University of Illinois, Chicago, had developed an evaluation protocol that used a longitudinal approach with multiple measures of student and principal performance measures and comparative descriptive analyses between treatment and nontreatment programs, graduates (principals), and K–12 students in the Chicago public school system.

The nonprofit urban principal preparation program New Leaders has also accumulated a considerable amount of evidence about their graduates who become principals, their leadership practices, and various school and student outcomes. Likewise, the New Teacher Center at the University of California, Santa Cruz, has developed an administrator preparation program

evaluation protocol that aligns principal behaviors, attitudes, and retention data with student achievement outcomes. In addition, the National Institute for School Leadership is engaged in the development of strategies to assess the relationship between certain administrative practices and student achievement (Davis, 2013).

The Council of the Great City Colleges of Education sponsors the Dr. Shirley S. Schwartz Urban Education Impact Award to honor an outstanding partnership between a university and an urban school district that has had a positive, substantial impact on student learning. Criteria for the award include employment data, leadership roles, and school value-added scores. In 2012 the College of Education at the University of Illinois, Chicago, won the award. It is worth noting that the award's criteria included the school value-added scores. This remains a contentious criterion as program graduates not in an administrative position may be required to use their teacher scores, which can be used to compare program completers while they are in instructional or nonadministrative positions as well as when they receive administrative appointments. But is this an impact measure for educational leadership program graduates?

Program Performance, Value, and Impact Strategies

Unlike undergraduate education there is no graduate version of the Collegiate Learning Assessment that measures a program's value added. In Florida, in order to graduate from a state approved program, a Beginning Effective School Administrator Candidate (BESAC) must pass the Florida Educational Leadership Exam (FELE). A standardized test of content knowledge that creates a standard measure of BESACs across all Florida-approved leadership programs. FELE as a measure of program effectiveness is therefore not influenced by intervening variables in the school setting impacting an accurate measurement of preparation program effects (FAPEL, White Paper, 2013).

The National Governors Association recommended that colleges and universities be funded based on the effectiveness of their graduates in the workplace, and to this end the state collects program completion data and employment data. But there are pragmatic issues with both. First, certain accountability expectations and assessments, such as completion time to program graduation, while informative, are insufficient to enable programs to strengthen capacity to develop quality leaders capable of leading continuous school improvement for all children and their schools (UCEA website, 2008). Second, employment data is affected by the intervening time gap between program graduation and successfully achieving a principal position. Intervening variables, such as Level 2 Certification programs, and professional development impact the program graduate. Further, across the state there is a lack of consistency among school districts of the assigned coding of school administrators' titles. Principal, assistant principal, dean, curriculum coordinator, community education coordinator, and any of the above as "interim" are counted as a school-based leadership position, but some may be instructional, nonadministrative positions (dean, curriculum coordinator, etc.). Personnel classifications are instructional/nonadministrative or administrative or classified. BESAC students fall in to the instructional/nonadministrative category and may remain there as teacher leaders either in schools or at the school district levels. Educational leadership program graduates require time to achieve a school leadership position. Further, time is then required to measure individual student and program impact in the field, assuming that appropriate methods can be found that are stable over a number of years.

In trying to identify appropriate program impact rather than program evaluation strategies, it is useful to be cognizant of Bennett's hierarchy of program cause and effect in response to a need to show program impact. Bennett (1975) developed a seven-step hierarchy that shows the causal links between the steps from inputs to outcomes. Program impact increases as you move through the hierarchy.

1. Inputs: Costs, time, and personnel
2. Activities: Workshops, field days, seminars, awareness-raising campaigns
3. Participants: Number of people, their characteristics
4. Reactions of participants: Degree of interest, likes and dislikes
5. Changes in knowledge, attitudes, skills, and aspirations
6. Practice change: Adoption and application of knowledge and skills
7. End results: Range of outcomes that might be desired in program delivery

Bennett pointed out that program designers must be able to answer the question: "How do you know this program was responsible for these impacts?" Bennett stated that the data required to measure program impact on clients (e.g., program graduates, school districts) can be gathered in only three ways: ask them, test them, or observe them.

Recent studies reveal that researchers have used a variety of quantitative (e.g., descriptive and inferential statistics, regression analyses, structural equation modeling, hierarchical linear modeling) and qualitative methods (e.g., case studies, grounded theory, and ethnography) to link program features with graduates' impact on school and student outcomes. However, much of the literature focuses on the aggregate characteristics of programs and their relationship to particular leadership practices, characteristics, or career outcomes (Darling-Hammond, LaPoint, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Hess & Kelly, 2005), which Bennett would categorize as low-level impact. Other research has assessed the relationship between preparation program elements and graduates' career advancement and retention (Orr, Silverberg, & LeTendre, 2006; Orr, 2011), which would be categorized at a higher level in Bennett's hierarchy. Current efforts to measure how programs impact particular principal practices and school outcomes could be categories in Bennett's highest level of program impact.

What Can Educational Leadership Programs Do to Develop Robust Impact Statements?

First, program faculty should be clear why they are gathering and publishing program impact, performance, and visibility data. Who is the desired audience? The answer to this question will determine how the impact data and statements will be used.

An effective, impactful program must be informed by horizontal and vertical communication. By this we mean that program design and desired outcomes should be grounded not only on state standards but on the input of all stakeholders, specifically program graduates and school districts served by the program. Such collaboration aids the gathering of program graduate performance data at prespecified points after graduation both from the graduate and from an independent agency. The development of a collaborative partnership in program delivery places a moral imperative on partners and stakeholders to help in the gathering of program data, which always proves difficult whether instigated by the program, the university, or the state.

Clifford, Behrstock-Sherratt, and Fetters (2012) described several program outcomes from which impact statements can be grounded, all of which reflect principal practice in the field: (a) a shared vision, (b) improving instruction, (c) a supportive learning environment, (d) managing resources, (e) positive relationships, and (f) ethical leadership.

The development of impact statements currently tends to be dependent on data gathered by university alumni offices that for some time have collected data on program graduates' employment status, promotion efforts, salary attained, and other additional data as requested by educational leadership faculty. However, educational leadership programs intent on gathering impact data need more specific information from their program graduates. Gathering such information is delicate and requires considerable open communication with the university's alumni department regarding their own timeline and information gathered.

Conclusion

The proliferation of a higher education market economy, alternative institutions, and alternative course delivery at traditional institutions require not only a reexamination of educational leadership graduate program assessment but also authentic awareness of program impact on the graduate and the school districts served. At the moment there is no known method that allows programs to establish irrefutable causal relationships between various program features and specific school outcomes. At best, analytic evaluation methods provide only estimates and approximations. This paper has argued that differentiating program evaluation from program impact is challenging but necessary for public universities offering an educational leadership preparation program. The development of reliable and accurate metrics for assessing the impact of educational leadership program graduates is promising and in the future will be the focus of considerable attention as it becomes paramount to the survival of some public university programs.

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Responding to Demographic Change: What Do Suburban District Leaders Need to Know?

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This study examined the demographic shifts in a medium-sized school district in West Michigan and the responses developed as a result of these changes during the last two decades. Findings indicated that the district's school demographics changed from being European American to minority dominant. As a result of these changes in student population composition, the district status shifted to Titles I and III and had to comply with federal policy mandates. The researchers identified and analyzed specific responses the district developed for meeting not only federal policy requirements, but also for responding to students' academic and social needs. Recommendations for central office, school principals, and classroom practitioners are included.

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Introduction

During the last three decades, suburban school districts have experienced demographic shifts within their student populations. These changes can be attributed to a movement of populations traditionally inhabiting cities and urban neighborhoods in search of better educational opportunities for their children (Larson, 2003), domestic migration, and immigration (Hodgkinson, 2002). Demographic change remains one the most powerful factors compelling national, state, local, and district decision makers to develop educational policies that inevitably have consequences on curricula and approaches to teaching and learning. At the national level, demographic pressures have often resulted in the enforcement of existing inclusive laws and the creation of new policies to accommodate newly arrived immigrants and to support struggling disadvantaged learners and their families. Although there may be disagreements regarding the application of educational laws in the United States, nonetheless they remain the basis for integration and the promise of a quality education for disadvantaged learners — including those from low socioeconomic class, marginalized minorities, and culturally and linguistically different students.

In spite of the fact that the events of September 11, 2001, have triggered or exacerbated anti-immigrant sentiments in the United States, immigration has been on the rise, mainly from war-torn countries the world over. This influx of new immigrants from distressed countries, referred to as refugees, has modified the American demographic composition not only in urban areas, but also in the metropolitan suburbs usually inhabited by middle and upper middle class European Americans. The resettlement of these newcomers in communities that were once almost homogeneous has called for a number of reforms at the school district level.

In light of these changes, this qualitative descriptive case study examined population changes in the city of Kentwood, Michigan, and the influence of these changes on its public school district/system. Two major questions guided this research: (a) what demographic changes have occurred in the Kentwood Public Schools District during the last 25 years, and (b) how has the school district been responsive to these demographic shifts, either in response to federal and state laws/requirements or as policies were independently developed?

Background

Public schools have always known demographic changes, particularly after desegregation in the late 1950s onward. The initial landmark for these changes was the Oliver Brown, et al. v. Board of Education of Topeka, et al. case, during which the Supreme Court of the United States ruled that the doctrine of "separate but equal" should not exist in public education and that the plaintiffs were denied the equal protection of the laws promised by the Fourteenth Amendment (Katzman, 1980). However, as schools integrated African Americans and other culturally different learners, European Americans left schools where there was much diversity in student population; they either enrolled in private schools or moved to suburban neighborhood schools (Caldas & Bankston III, 2001).

Demographic Trends in Suburban Schools

Recent literature on demographic shifts in suburban school districts shows a number of new trends, including an increase in racially, culturally, and linguistically different learner

populations and a decline in the European American population. Gillum (2009), quoting Richard Fry from the Pew Hispanic Center, reported that whereas the enrollment of White students constituted 75% of students enrolled in suburban schools prior to the 1990s, that population fell to 59% from 1993 to 2007. Among culturally and linguistically different students, the Latino population constitutes the largest group that has expanded in suburban school districts. Black and Asian students have also increased their enrollment in these districts (Gillum, 2009). Holme, Diem, and Welton (2013) reported that from 1990 to 2010, the European American population in suburban communities decreased from 81% to 65%, whereas the Hispanic population grew from 8% to 57% and the African American population went up to 10%. These findings are corroborated in studies by Evans (2007); Caldas and Bankston III (2001); Shodavaram, Jones, Weaver, Marquez, and Ensle (2009); and Huyser, Boerman-Cornell, and Deboer (2011), which have demonstrated that the enrollment of culturally, linguistically, and racially different students has significantly grown in suburban areas. Thus, what once constituted homogeneous communities mostly inhabited by European Americans has shifted from homogeneity to heterogeneity. A number of factors have contributed to this change.

Causes of Demographic Shifts

Studies accounting for the increasing demographic diversity of suburbia have identified four major contributing factors: (a) an historical combination of demographic, social, and policy forces; (b) the desire to provide children with quality education; (c) the aging population; and (d) comfortable living conditions. Holme et al. (2013), in a study about demographic changes in suburban schools and how district leaders respond to those changes, stated that modern suburban communities were created from a combination of demographic, social, and policy forces that occurred from the mid-20th century to the mid-1990s. During that period, White middle class families benefitted from federally insured mortgages and federally funded means of communication, mainly roads. Thus, they constituted insulated homogenous communities.

However, in recent years, these neighborhoods have seen demographic changes. Some of these changes have been accelerated by the deterioration of social conditions in inner cities, where poverty and violence have increased. The culturally, linguistically, and racially different people who could afford to live in the outskirts have moved away from central cities. Also, many of the non-White populations moving to suburbia are relatively young and have school-age children; at the same time, many of the European Americans no longer have children in school (Holme et al., 2013). In a related vein, Rury and Saatcioglu (2011), in a study of advantages procured by suburban schools, stated that the search for better schools is one of the reasons families leave cities for suburbs. Not only are suburban schools racially and ethnically diverse, but they are also heterogeneous socioeconomically (Holme et al, 2013; Caldas & Bankston III, 2001; Lassiter & Niedt, 2013.)

Holme et al. (2013) have contended that the percentage of low-income learners has almost doubled during the last 35 years and that the number of low-income families living in the suburbs is approximately the same as that of central cities. Lassiter and Niedt (2013) have argued that the characterization of suburban areas as homogenous and mostly populated by the middle and upper middle classes is a myth. Not only are these communities racially and ethnically diverse, but they are also socioeconomically dissimilar. This diversity in areas could be explained by the fact that many businesses have relocated to the outskirts of central cities,

bringing with them people of varying socioeconomic status. Nonetheless, communities and schools have responded in a variety of ways to this heterogeneity.

Suburban School Districts' Responses to Demographic Changes

As a result of the influx of racially, culturally, socioeconomically, and linguistically different learners in suburban schools, district- and school-level leaders could not remain unresponsive. In addition to racial, linguistic, cultural, and socioeconomic challenges, schools and local educational decision makers have to meet federal and state mandates.

Researchers who have investigated suburban school districts' and schools' responses to demographic changes have been consistent regarding a number of findings, including (a) acceptance or resistance to change; (b) perceptions of racially, culturally, and socioeconomically different learners; (c) power relationships; and (d) compliance with federal laws and court rulings.

Accommodating Culturally and Linguistically Different Learners

As suburban population characteristics have been changing — and schools cannot legally discriminate against anyone based on visible, invisible, or nationality of origin traits — educational institutions have been compelled to implement adjustments to meet the needs of racially, culturally, socioeconomically, and linguistically different learners. Evans (2007), in a study about the responses of high schools to a growing number of African American students in communities once overwhelmingly inhabited by European Americans, found that some of the schools studied implemented inclusive policies and took initiatives to meet the needs of this population. Some of these changes included hiring new minority teachers and school administrators, providing teachers with professional development in multicultural education, consulting with experts in multiculturalism, and integrating African American social issues in the curricula. In a similar vein, Holme et al. (2013), in their study related to changes implemented by a San Antonio, Texas, suburban school district to accommodate learner diversity, found that district leaders adopted a number of changes: hiring content and reading specialists, administrative staff, and family outreach personnel; extending teacher duties before and after school; and providing training in differentiated learning and cultural responsiveness.

Often, adjustments have consisted of an increase in materials such as instructional technology tools — mainly computer equipment, science kits, and computer-assisted language learning programs (Larson, 2003). Inclusive policies and practices have often resulted in not only making adjustments to curricula and professional development training for staff and leadership, but also in connecting racially, culturally, and linguistically different parents to individual school and district central office leaders (Ishimaru, 2013). This was the case for one Christian school studied by Huyser et al. (2011), who examined the ways in which two Christian schools responded to demographic changes. In the same vein, in Evans' (2007) study, a school district hired African Americans as administrators.

Resistance to Change

In spite of the fact that some of these adjustments were incorporated in good faith, European Americans (parents, school and district leaders, and teachers) often resisted or opposed inclusive

policies and adaptations carried out to accommodate newcomers. From district leaders to European American parents, it seems that diversity in school districts was welcome as long as it did not infringe on their privileges and power. Often, opposition was based on perceptions of racially, culturally, and linguistically different people (Shodavaram et al., 2009). In general, there were two broad types of opposition: passive and active. Passive opposition was reflected in what researchers have called "White flight," during which European American parents withdrew their children from schools as culturally and linguistically different learners in suburban schools reached a significant number.

School rezoning has also been a contentious factor (Smith, 2010; Caldas & Bankston III, 2001; Huyser et al., 2011; Holme et al., 2013). White parents threatened to withdraw their children if culturally different students had to be in the same schools with their children, particularly if the newcomers were African Americans. Even when schools designed inclusive policies and adjusted curricula to meet newcomers' needs, their implementation and enforcement posed problems. In Evans' (2007) study, for instance, African American students were disproportionately punished and were perceived as problematic. Similarly, in a mixed result study, Huyser et al. (2011) found that the European American students' parents opposed diversity based on the impact they believed it would have on the school. Not only parents resisted change, but European American teachers also appeared to be unprepared and unwilling to implement and make needed accommodations for racially and culturally different learners.

Teacher resistance has often resulted in conflicts with racially and culturally different school administrators. Evans (2007) discovered that many European American teachers who often punished and referred African American students for minor infractions entered into conflicts with administrators who were racially different. Administrators accused teachers of maintaining hostile behaviors toward African American students. Teachers reproached administrators for running away from their responsibilities to contact parents of students who misbehaved.

Another factor that has impeded change relates to power and the possibility of exercising authority either to carry out change or to prevent diversity adjustments from being enforced and implemented. This power is often held by people who are in the upper middle class, most likely European Americans. Evans (2007) argued that although the suburban schools he investigated had designed inclusive policies, significant transformation could not occur, even at shallow levels such as discipline. In one of the high schools Black History month was even struck from the calendar of school activities. Similarly, Holme et al. (2013) discovered that decision making and the distribution of resources rested in the hands of a power elite who could accept or refuse school district policies. These authors recounted the behavior of a group of European American elite parents who opposed their school district leaders' decision to rezone school attendance boundaries to balance racial and socioeconomic disparities in schools. When some of the power elite's children were included in zones that were to be mostly attended by various races and lower socioeconomic class children, influential parents exercised pressure to have their children attend schools of their socioeconomic class. Paradoxically, these most influential parents would vote against propositions to raise or evenly distribute funds for improved facilities and instructional equipment among all the schools (Holme et al., 2013; Caldas & Bankston III, 2001). Thus, this opposition to racially and socioeconomically disempowered people could only be ended through court rulings or through laws (Caldas & Bankston III, 2001; Holme et al., 2013).

To ensure that all children receive quality education, courts of justice and the federal government have often ruled and passed laws compelling schools to develop and apply plans for distributing resources and making adjustments to accommodate everyone, particularly children from the lower socioeconomic classes (Caldas & Bankston III, 2001; Holme et al., 2013). Schools and district leadership have to comply with these rulings and laws. However, the comprehension and application of these mandates have often posed problems.

Federal Mandates Compliance

There has been a dearth of literature treating the issue of compliance with federal mandates. When studies addressed educational law parameters, they were usually part of an examination that related to constraints imposed by these policy requirements. However, a few researchers (Terry, 2010; Turnbull & Anderson, 2011) and national evaluators have discussed the capacity of states and school districts to comply with Titles I and III of the No Child Left Behind Act. The studies related to these two mandates have shown mixed results in relation to their application in states and districts. Turnbull and Anderson (2011), in a study related to state capacity to implement Title I, found that states largely complied with the procedural requirements. However, there were some dysfunctions related to the distribution of qualified manpower. Furthermore, Turnbull and Anderson revealed that there was a lack of communication between states and districts. As a result, many low-performing schools' needs could not be met. In addition, states also prioritized their assistance to various low-performing schools to only support those that were severely underperforming. Finally, the authors discovered that states were unable to advise schools on scientifically proven methods and strategies that would help schools raise students' test scores.

While Turnbull and Anderson (2011) focused on states' capacity to implement Title I, showing the positive aspects and shortcomings in its implementation, a report from the U.S. Department of Education (2007) described the key provisions and implementation of that policy. The researchers found that 29% of states with data related to low socioeconomic status students were likely to meet the Title I policy goals by 2013-2014. The report also indicated that fourth-grade culturally different students in reading, mathematics, and science had improved their scores while results for middle and high school were mixed. Achievement disparities between high-needs students and middle and upper middle class students tended to also narrow.

Tanenbaum et al. (2012), in a national evaluation of Title III implementation at the state and school district level, found that most states and school districts had put in place procedures to identify, report, and track English learners' progress. In addition to the procedural aspects, the researchers realized that most school districts used one or a combination of English development programs, including English as a second language (ESL), content-area teaching through sheltered English immersion methods, and bilingual education programs. Of these programs, ESL was the most widely used in various ways encompassing push-in and pull-out. Whereas ESL remained the most popular instructional program, 87% of Title III school districts reported using content in English with some accommodations for English learners. While some states encouraged delivery of instruction in bilingual education, others restricted the use of native languages. Although these programs were recommended in school districts, there was no obvious proof to assess their effectiveness in relation to state and national tests. The researchers also revealed that states were using highly qualified teachers or provided teaching staff with professional development training that allowed them to support English learners' learning.

Although states were in compliance with Title III policy mandates, funds supporting English learners' instruction and support were declining.

Unlike national evaluations that focused on states' capacities to fulfill Titles I and III policy requirements, Terry (2010), in a qualitative case study related to two districts' capacities, found that a number of issues persisted. Superintendents appeared to have little knowledge of the policy mandates and would rely on subordinates to accomplish compliance-related duties. Even when these collaborators reported that a number of schools did not comply with legal requirements, the superintendent — depending on the nature of the relationship with a principal — would decide to ignore the report or support the school administrator in his/her behavior. While some principals were knowledgeable of the law's requirements, others did not even know what these policies addressed. In addition, some principals showed reluctance in their application. A number of administrators and teachers did not understand the relationship between legal requirements to raise students' academic performance and special needs students' participation in general education programs. In a similar vein, the author reported that most school building principals related the No Child Left Behind duties to school improvement. There was a widespread belief among both building principals and teachers that policy mandates were a waste of time and resources. As a result of that conviction, many teachers and administrators remained uncommitted to making instructional changes that would support raising students' academic attainment.

Although the literature appears to have dealt with many topics related to population shift in suburban areas, most of the researchers have focused on the traditionally known U.S. ethnic groups, mainly African Americans and Latinos. Undoubtedly, these groups are fast growing and often capture decision makers' attention. However, taking into account recent trends in population growth, there is an increasing influx of immigrants from various parts of the world, including Eastern Europe, Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, and Asia. Many of these newcomers arrive from war-torn countries and are often sponsored by churches and religious organizations. Because they are sponsored, many of them are relocated to the suburbs of central cities. The literature so far has not focused on specific educational programs and accommodations that suburban school districts propose to address this shift in their student demographics.

Method

Research Design

This study was a descriptive single-case study of Kentwood Public Schools (KPS) school district's endeavors to adapt to demographic changes in its schools. The case focused on two major aspects: (a) population changes not only in the school district, but also in comparable surrounding suburban districts, and (b) actions undertaken by KPS to adapt to this demographic pattern shift.

Case studies are designed to study in-depth phenomena in their natural settings (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1989). Yin (1989) defines a case study as an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources are used" (p. 23). Furthermore, he contends that case studies are appropriate when they illuminate a decision or set of decisions. Case studies can focus on institutions, processes, programs, neighborhoods, events, or

organizations. The present study met at least two criteria as defined by Yin: illuminating a decision and focusing on an institution.

Research Site

The City of Kentwood is a suburb located south of Grand Rapids, Michigan. The city's population is 49,694, which is subdivided as follows: European American or White - 31,628 (63.65%); African American or Black - 6,602 (13.30%); Latinos - 4,844 (9.75%); Asian American - 3,265 (6.57%); Biracial and multiracial - 1,963 (.04%); Native American or American Indian - 134 (3.95%); Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander - 15 (.03%); other and not identified – 1,243 (2.50%). Built on 20.95 square miles, the city is bordered to the west by Wyoming, to the north by Grand Rapids and Grand Rapids Township, to the east by Cascade Township, and to the south by Gaines Township. The median household income is estimated at $50,710, with a per capita income of $24,651 in 2011 (City of Kentwood, 2013a). Originally known as Paris Township in 1839, its charter was adopted in 1967. However, to prevent further land occupation by Wyoming and Grand Rapids, the city was ultimately named after Kent County.

The KPS District includes 17 schools: 10 elementary schools, one early childhood development center, three middle schools, one high school subdivided into two campuses (freshmen and 10^{th}-12^{th} grades), and one alternative high school. There are 8,842 students with 540 teachers. While there is much diversity in the student population ethnically, culturally, and linguistically, the teaching staff remains heavily dominated by European Americans, who constitute 95%.

Documentation

The documentation for this study was gathered from archives and the second researcher, who could provide school information as she is a member of the central office executive team. Information was also gathered by surveying various websites, including those of the U.S. Census Bureau, the KPS District, the National Center for Education Statistics, and the Michigan Department of Technology, Management & Budget. In addition to the websites and documents from the KPS District, data were obtained from the Kent Intermediate School District through telephone calls and e-mails.

Results

Research Question 1

The first major study question was *what demographic changes have occurred in the Kentwood Public Schools District during the last 25 years?*

In response to this question the researchers examined demographic data from the City of Kentwood, suburban school districts around Grand Rapids, and the KPS District. The researchers analyzed the state and city population shifts and compared them to trends in the City of Kentwood and in KPS and surrounding districts.

According to the Michigan Department of Technology, Management and Budget (2012) drastic demographic changes occurred in Michigan during the last three decades, as seen in

Figure 1. Domestic population deflated during periods of economic crisis, with a slowing trend in 2011-2012. The department found that in 1981-1982 the domestic population declined by more than 150,000. A similar phenomenon was observed in 2010-2011 when 42,000 people left the state. In 2011-2012, although the trend slowed, the number of people who left the state was still high — approximately 33,000. However, the number of new immigrants in the state in 2010-2011 increased by 16,000 and continued to increase in 2011-2012 by 17,000.

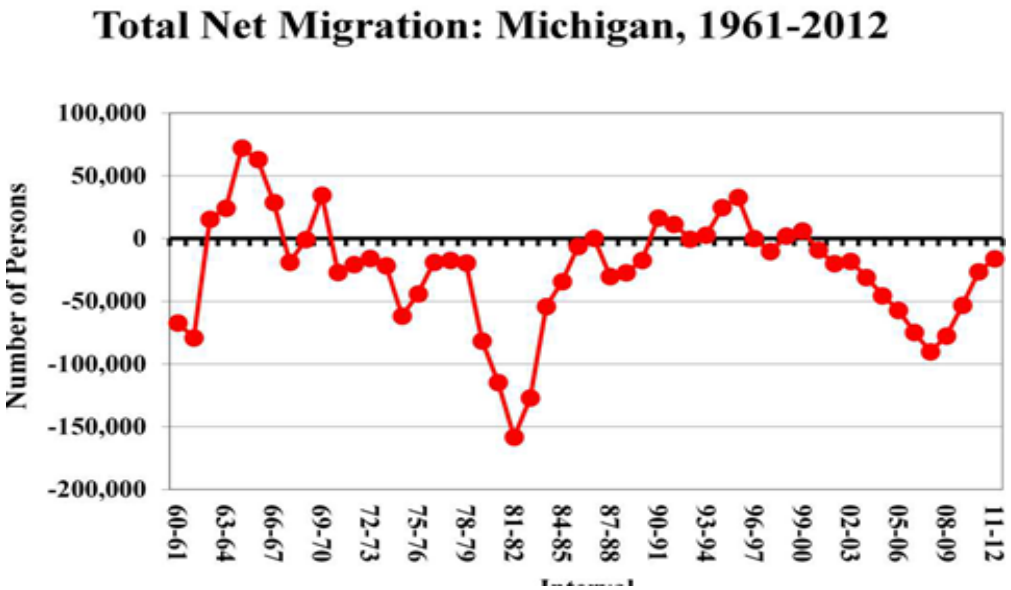

Figure 1. Data supplied by Michigan Department of Technology, Management & Budget (2012).

While these trends have occurred at the state level, the population in the City of Kentwood has been growing and was estimated to be 49,694 in 2011 — a 1% growth during the time the state of Michigan had negative growth of 0.1%. Of these 49,694 people, 63.65% were European Americans and 13.5% were foreign born (City of Kentwood, 2013b). This shift in demographic patterns from being European-American dominated to having more culturally and linguistically diverse students is also evident in the surrounding school districts.

As shown in Table1, five of the eight school districts have a high percentage of English learners and a dominance of culturally and/or linguistically different students; the exceptions are Forest Hills Public, East Grand Rapids Public, and Caledonia Community schools. One of the leading districts to experience a dramatic shift in student demographics has been the KPS District.

Table 1
Diversity Comparison: Kentwood Public Schools (KPS) and Neighboring Districts' School Demographic Percentages

School District	School Year 2001-2002	School Year 2011-2012	School Year 2001-2002	School Year 2011-2012
	ELs*	ELs*	CLDs**	CLDs**
Caledonia Community	0	0.07	3	8
East Grand Rapids Public	1	0.04	6	9
Forest Hills Public	2	0.01	6	15
Godfrey Lee Public	24	32.40	58	89
Godwin Heights Public	n/d	13.00	n/d	73
Grand Rapids Public	15	20.30	72	79
Kentwood Public	2	15.00	37	58
Wyoming Public	8	14.30	28	59

* English learners
** Culturally and/or linguistically different students

During the 36 years between 1975 and 2011, the KPS student population changed from 96% European Americans to 58% culturally and/or linguistically different learners (Table 2).

Table 2
Kentwood Public Schools (KPS) District: Student Demographics by Ethnicity

Year	Total	European America	African American	Latino	Native American	Asian Pacific Island	Multiracial	Total Minority	% CLD*	% Increase/decrease
1975	6397	6125	212	38	11	11	0	272	4.25	0.00
1985	5785	5199	392	57	12	125	0	586	10.13	5.88
1995	8134	6485	961	260	44	384	0	1649	10.27	10.14
2005	9432	5041	2783	731	57	631	189	4391	46.50	26.23
2011	8877	3727	2624	1080	49	875	522	5150	58.00	11.50

* Culturally and/or linguistically different students

As part of that trend, the English learner population increased from 2% in 2001-2002 to 15% in 2011-2012. An examination of the demographic shift for the KPS District also shows that, in general, each of the groups identified as culturally or linguistically different from European Americans has been steadily increasing. With the increase in this population, a shift in socioeconomic status has also occurred. For the academic year 2012-2013, 64% of students, on average, were eligible for free or reduced price meals. Thus, with the significant increase in the number of English learners and ethnically and socioeconomically disadvantaged students, the

school district was compelled to respond to the new student landscape. Federal provisions under Title I and Title III imposed additional requirements on the district.

Research Question 2

These considerations led the researchers to ask the second question: *how has the school district been responsive to these demographic shifts, either in response to federal and state laws/requirements or as policies were independently developed?*

With the growing number of English learners and students of color entering the district, diversity became a mainstay and part of the unique fabric of KPS. New challenges rose to which the district had to respond. KPS' responses were implemented in a number of ways — by designing new policies, training teachers and support staff, creating a newcomer center for English learners, tailoring support systems for culturally and linguistically different students through a community/school district partnership, and partnering with a local tertiary academic institution. The details for KPS' responses are presented here in the context of Titles I and Title III.

Title I - Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged - is an amendment to the 1965 law known as Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. As amended, this act mandates that all schools receiving federal funding ensure that all students are provided with ". . . a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments" (U.S. Department of Education, 2004, para. 1). The law requires that schools implement academic educational programs and support systems for all students that aim at bridging the disparities among students, particularly between disadvantaged students and those who are from relatively privileged socioeconomic status.

Part A of Title III is titled Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). It aims to ensure that English learners and immigrant students who are non-native speakers of English achieve language proficiency and meet the same standards as their English-speaking peers in content areas. To achieve this, the federal government allocates funds to state and local education agencies. Schools and school districts receiving Title III funds are obligated not only to report annually on English learner progress, but also have to inform parents about ESL programs that they implement. Title III also compels school districts to maintain communication with parents and communities.

Kentwood Public Schools District has responded to these mandates by issuing a number of policies and by changing its practices. As the number of English learners and culturally and linguistically different students increased, the district created a multicultural advisory committee (MAC) comprised of students, staff, parents, and community members, and designed short- and long-range strategic diversity plans. The MAC was entrusted with the role of producing a document detailing diversity.

In terms of practices, the district has created academic programs targeted to meet state benchmarks, and has implemented academic and support programs. For example, in addition to the newcomer center and push-in and pull-out English development programs, the district has built a mentor program aimed at helping students to become academically and socially successful. The school district has also created support staff groups that provide intervention services for students exhibiting high-risk behaviors. To implement new and existing diversity

policies, the district has provided its personnel (faculty and staff) with multicultural or cultural sensitivity workshops, at the end of which these employees should demonstrate cultural competency behaviors in dealing with the culturally and linguistically different learners and coworkers. As a complement to these school-based endeavors, the district has also partnered with community agencies that provide in-school counseling services.

Along with these efforts, the school district has also recruited certified teachers in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) and paraprofessionals called ESL interventionists. When these interventionists did not have a teaching background in ESL, the district partnered with a local university TESOL program to provide courses in second-language teaching methodologies. To advance English proficiency among English learners, KPS implemented the use of English language learning software that focuses on language development, literacy instruction, and strategic first-language support. The foundation of this language learning software is based on five essential components of reading identified by the National Reading Panel: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Personal communication with the Assistant Superintendent of Student Services, December 28, 2012).

Discussion

The data in the results from this study showed a discrepancy between the city demographic composition and that of the schools. Although the city has a European American population estimated at 63.65%, only 42% of the students from that ethnic group attend KPS schools. This finding seems to indicate that there is an attrition of European American learners in the district. As mentioned previously, a number of researchers (Caldas & Bankston III, 2001; Terry, 2010; Huyser et al., 2011) have called this phenomenon White flight. However, one cannot ascertain whether this decline in European American students is because parents from that group want their children to avoid racially and socioeconomically different learners. Many factors may explain this decline, including the creation of many charter schools and the fact that some of the domestic population has been leaving the state while there has been an inflow of immigrants.

Another finding related to the discrepancy between the city demographic data and those of the school district in connection to socioeconomic status. According to the City of Kentwood website (http://www.city-data.com/city/Kentwood-Michigan.html), the yearly median household income is estimated to be $50,710. But the school district's food service reports that 64% of the students have been eligible for free or reduced price meals. One plausible explanation of that apparent discrepancy can be found in the estimated per capita income of $24,651 in 2011, thus positioning KPS as a Title I district.

Types of Interventions

In terms of compliance with No Child Left Behind Act requirements and making adjustments to demographic shifts, the findings of this study showed four types of interventions: (a) policy and practices, (b) professional development, (c) partnerships with community agencies and higher academic institutions, and (d) educational structures and instructional programs.

At the policy and practices level, the district has developed a mission statement that emphasizes a commitment to diversity and the development of academic excellence. This commitment was translated into a number of practices, including the creation of the MAC

advisory committee. The commitment to diversity was also translated into practice through multistage cultural training for the personnel. The City of Kentwood has been recording an influx of many immigrants from war-torn zones and from parts of the world whose cultures are not known by most of the district's school educational practitioners. Those factors may explain the rationale behind the development of a multicultural advisory committee. The formation of the MAC is also consistent with findings in Evans' (2007) case study of three high schools, where one of the schools constituted a faculty diversity committee.

Along with the development of policies and practices related to diversity, the district has also been active in providing its personnel with professional and academic training. The study results indicated that educational practitioners have received cultural sensitivity training. In addition, the KPS District has established mentoring groups to assist disadvantaged students. These findings align with Shodavaram et al's (2009) research conclusions that many teachers are unprepared to teach immigrant students of non-European ancestry, and hence hold erroneous perceptions of this category of students. Research has also consistently shown that educational practitioners need to be given knowledge and skills that allow them to be effective with culturally diverse learners. Providing culturally responsive training workshops may be the right action to undertake. However, the district has not yet diversified or sought to diversify its personnel, particularly the faculty.

In addition to culturally responsive training sessions, the district has partnered with a local academic institution and a professional support institution to provide knowledge and skills to paraprofessionals and a number of teachers. That training has essentially been oriented toward instructional assistants and teachers who implement ESL programs and content classes with English learners.

As a complement to the professional training, KPS has developed educational structures and ESL programs for English learners. The newcomer center provides sheltered content English to newly arrived students, which is complemented by the district's push-in and pull-out ESL programs. The district has also purchased computer software aimed at developing phonological and phonemic awareness together with vocabulary and grammar usages. In addition, the school district runs an after-school program based on Lindamood-Bell Learning Processes for students struggling in reading. The program is divided into two groups. These results were consistent with Tanenbaum et al's (2012) national evaluations of Title III and with Larson's (2003) observation that change in many suburban school districts consists of adding more on to what already existed (e.g., more computer equipment, more science kits, longer class periods).

Study Limitations

The focus of this study was to analyze the ways in which the Kentwood Public Schools District responded to demographic shifts and how that district complied with the policy mandates contained in Titles I and III. The study did not focus on how these mandates are applied at the school level. In addition, it was not the researchers' intention to explore teachers' and parents' perceptions of diversity and demographic changes. Further research is needed in these areas. Also, one of the researchers is part of the district's leadership team; thus, the presentation of the results and their analyses may have been positively skewed.

The school district trains teachers and other staff members. However, no data were gathered showing whether the knowledge and skills gained from these trainings are being applied as they are supposed to be implemented. Also, more research is needed to evaluate the

extent to which the language programs and software purchased for English learners' development are effective.

Recommendations

In light of these findings and their analyses, a number of recommendations can be offered to K-12 researchers, school district central office leaders, board of education members, building principals, teachers and staff, students' parents, and community members. In relation to the training of mainstream or disciplinary teachers (i.e., teachers who teach in heterogeneous classrooms but are not specialists in English learner issues), school districts that comply with federal mandates need to provide their teachers with training in sheltered English immersion teaching strategies. Sheltered English immersion models foster effective teaching not only for English learners, but also for any native speaker of English. Although KPS provides its English development paraprofessionals with such training, they are not teachers; they are only instructional assistants. There is a need to require that all content-area teachers take courses or attend workshops dealing with such courses. Involving teachers in attending professional development workshops or taking courses related to sheltered models cannot be done without strong district leadership intervention.

In a related vein, school district leadership may provide mainstream teachers and their TESOL practitioners with an array of approaches that have been shown to be effective for heterogeneous classrooms. Thus far in Kent County, and in many counties in West Michigan, teachers have been provided with sheltered immersion observation protocol (SIOP) training — a sheltered English immersion approach developed by Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2012) — almost to the exclusion of other approaches. It is essential to widen the scope of teaching approaches. The SIOP model is one approach among many. Widening the choices in teaching approaches allows teachers to select one or more teaching methods suitable to their teaching style and students' learning modalities.

Along these lines central office administrators need to: (a) implement curricular changes to meet diverse learner needs; (b) provide school personnel with diversity training that ultimately changes perceptions and behavior toward racially, culturally, and linguistically different people; (c) develop and implement programs that foster community involvement in school-related activities; (d) identify budget and financial sources to support diversity; (e) constantly elicit suggestions from school personnel and the community for improving the integration of multiculturalism in both curricular implementation and extracurricular activities; (f) fully implement existing multicultural education policies: and (g) balance teaching staff ethnicities to reflect the student population.

These initiatives and policies can only bear fruit if they are supported and translated into practice by building principals and teachers. For example, building principals must ensure a friendly, inclusive, and welcoming school environment; enforce district diversity policies; and lead and encourage diversity integration curricular initiatives. To complement this, teachers should integrate diversity topics and concepts into their daily teaching practices, and identify and use culturally responsive materials that are effective with diverse learners.

Conclusion

In general, challenges posed by demographic changes in suburban school districts (and specifically KPS) appear to have been met. However, adaptations have only been implemented to comply with federal and state mandates. For the particular case of KPS, it seems that although the student population is diverse, the teaching and administrative staff remains disproportionately European American. There is a compelling need to make concerted efforts to ensure that minority groups are fully represented in the teaching and administrative ranks in order to reflect the new multi-ethnic student landscape. Reflecting diversity within the composition of the staff will further demonstrate the district's commitment to excellence and equity for all.

Efforts must also be made to attract and retain European American students if KPS and all suburban school districts want to take pride in the fact they are diverse and value diversity. Otherwise students' learning and social experiences will clearly suffer in a world that is increasingly global and diverse.

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A Developmental Model for Educational Planning: Democratic Rationalities and Dispositions

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The Developmental Democratic Planning (DDP) model frames educational planning as a process that extends beyond the immediate focus of a particular planning effort to acknowledge and cultivate the potential of all members of the organization to fulfill their roles as active participants in the democratic life of the organization. The DDP model construes educational planning efforts as a vehicle for enacting organizational change. To create a democratic planning culture, educational leaders cultivate and promote approaches to organizational leadership and planning that include (1) the leadership dispositions of hospitality, participation, mindfulness, humility; and (2) the organizational dispositions of mutuality, appreciation, and autonomy.

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Introduction

This paper moves forward a model for educational planning grounded in key leadership and organizational dispositions that are salient to developing and enhancing the capacity of the organization to foster and promote a democratic culture. Central to the model (and unique to the literature on educational planning), the process is explicit and deliberate in moving forward both individual and organizational goals. The model frames educational planning as a process that extends beyond the immediate focus of a particular planning effort to acknowledge and cultivate the potential of all members of the organization, individually and collectively, to fulfill their roles as active participants in the democratic life of the organization. Educational leaders who are committed to creating a democratic culture in their schools must provide ongoing opportunities for individual members of the educational organization to contribute to the development of the organization, through "group thinking, group action, and group responsibility" (Mursell, 1955, p.68). The planning model presented here describes an approach to utilizing educational planning processes to create the kinds of opportunities that Mursell describes.

The model, which we term Developmental Democratic Planning (DDP) builds on existing work engaging democratic leadership in educational settings (e.g., Woods 2005, Woods, 2006; Woods, 2011; Woods & Woods, In Press), but extends that work by modifying and applying it to the specific context of educational planning. The result of that application is an approach that positions planning efforts as a vehicle for enacting organizational change—both directly (i.e., by planning and implementing changes in the organization that support and facilitate democratic practices) and indirectly (i.e., by undertaking the planning process in ways that model democratic ends and are explicitly attentive to the goals of developing capacities for participation and contribution from all members of the organization). The DDP model describes a process that seeks to develop and sustain an organizational culture that is supportive of effective planning while simultaneously cultivating a democratic ethos that has implications for other functions and goals of the organization. The result of this process is an organization that embraces planning as an integral part of its ongoing work and institutional mission, and embraces democratic practice as key to its planning processes (and to all other work within the organization).

Central to this model is the idea that a democratic culture serves organizational ends beyond the immediate focus of a particular planning effort. Woods (2005, 2006) describes such ends in terms of *democratic rationalities:* ethical rationality, decisional rationality, discursive rationality, and therapeutic rationality. The cultivation of such ends demands alternative approaches to organizational leadership and planning, approaches that are described here in terms of *democratic dispositions* (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005; Johnson & Hess, 2010). Included among those dispositions are (1) the leadership dispositions of hospitality, participation, mindfulness, and humility; and (2) the organizational dispositions of mutuality, appreciation, and autonomy. Importantly, the leadership dispositions influence the disposition of the organization (of note, the reverse can also be true). In a democratic culture, the two types of dispositions can interact in a synergistic manner, with each supporting the development of the other and resulting in a *culture of certainty* within organizations – certainty of forward movement, of common vision, and of commitment to a democratic process.

According to Johnson and Hess, "educational leaders have the greatest responsibility (and even obligation) to develop, support, and participate in humane and democratic educational environments" (2010, p. 8). By making that responsibility an explicit element of the planning

process, organizations can both improve the quality of planning outcomes (Ewy, 2009) and contribute to the engagement and well-being of individuals and to the organization as a whole (Fletcher, 2008; Woods, 2005; Woods, 2011; Woods & Woods, In Press). Furthermore, educational organizations that engage in a democratic planning process provide their students with a model and the opportunity "to explore democracy as a lived experience of citizenship in their schools" (Johnson & Hess, 2010, p. 6), a deep experiential understanding of democracy that is not generally available in American schools today (Johnson & Hess, 2010).

The DDP model requires democratic leadership that supports and sustains an organizational commitment to ongoing planning and continuous improvement. Mursell (1955) argues that educational organizations need to "promote and encourage thinking and planning as widely as possible" (p. 417). From this perspective the planning function of an educational organization hinges on the creation of a *planning culture*. Mursell observed that the structured and organized planning activities of an organization usually occur in formal settings (e.g., organized staff meetings, parent-teacher associations, committees, and study groups). The success of these formal planning structures can serve to encourage organizational members to take a "spontaneous active interest in the educational problems of the enterprise" (pp. 417-418). For this *spontaneous active interest* to occur, educational leaders need to nurture an organizational culture that encourages all members of the organization (importantly, not just those members holding formal leadership roles) to engage in the ongoing planning activities needed to address the *problems of the educational enterprise,* for democracy depends on "widely diffused unofficial leadership" (Mursell, 1955, p.60).

Democratic Foundations for Planning

Deep Democracy

Our understanding of democracy goes beyond the "thin" description of basic structural and governmental democracy as it is generally understood and communicated (i.e., a representative legislature, the three branches of government, election, etc.). Rather, our understanding focuses on a *thick* notion of democracy encompassing those characteristics and skills that citizens need in order to become fully participatory members of their democratic society. For Green (1999), this is a "deep democracy," which "can guide the development of characters with socially conscious responsible agency, as well as the emergence of a more sensitive awareness of each individual's gifts, and needs, and a fuller realization of our most valuable human potentials" (p. xiv). For the purposes of the current work, we rely on Green's description of democracy.

Democratic Faith

Democracy is based on "an ethical faith applied to social living" that people have the capacity to resolve their own issues and problems (Mursell, 1955, p. 14). Mursell writes, "It is based on faith that if people are honestly and devotedly helped to understand issues and problems of life, they will be able to achieve understanding; and that if they achieve understanding, they will act on it" (p. 25-26). A faith in the people—all people—to be active, participatory and responsible is at the core of a social understanding of democracy. Futhermore, Preskill and Brookfield (2009) note that "democratic faith rests on the idea that ordinary people are more likely than isolated elites or narrowly trained experts to make decisions that are in the broad interests of the majority of

people" (Preskill & Brookfield, 2009, p. 152). At its core, then, democratic faith is an important construct for educational leaders engaged in ongoing planning efforts because "Democracy is the faith that the process of experience is more important that any special result attained, so that special results achieved are of ultimate value only as they are used to enrich and order the ongoing process" (Dewey, 1939, as quoted in Hickman & Alexander, 1998, p. 343).

Democracy's Developmental Capacity

Participation serves as a vehicle for developing individual and organizational planning capacity. Dewey (1939) argued that "democracy as a way of life is controlled by personal faith in personal day-by-day working together with others" (as quoted in Hickman & Alexander, 1998, p. 343). For Dewey, the social nature of democratic discourse and action was crucial to sound decision-making and the development of cooperative living. Mursell (1955) understood that democracy cannot be imposed as a readymade solution to a given situation or issue; it is a social process. For Mursell,

> Democracy can never be imposed. It can only be learned . . . democracy lives only in the minds, the hearts, the consciences of individual men and women. It can do no better than human beings. It can be promoted only by evoking what is wise and just in individual men and women. Democracy has no readymade solutions. It simply challenges individual men and women to work for the solution of their common problems, through reason and conscience. (p. 51)

When organizational leaders lead from a democratic stance, the planning trajectory of the organization is extended beyond a given task; specifically it is the authors' contention that such a trajectory extends into the development of individuals as continuous organizational planners. To the degree that members of the educational community share in the activities of the organization, they are "saturated with its emotional spirit" (Dewey, 1916, p.22). The boundaries between leader/teacher/student/learner are blurred as all members of the educational community contribute to the planning and direction of the organization building and sustaining an "architecture of ownership" (Fletcher, 2008) or "common mind; a common intent in behavior" (Dewey, 1916, p.30), which is foundational to the development of a democratic culture.

Developmental Democratic Rationalities

For Woods (2005, 2006), democratic educational leadership is premised upon an approach to developmental democracy comprising four *rationalities*: ethical rationality, decisional rationality, discursive rationality, and therapeutic rationality. Within that model, the four rationalities are intended to differentiate among dimensions of democratic practice with differing foci, priorities, and consequences, and to illustrate how the four rationalities complement and interact with one another. The most complete form of democratic practice, in this model, would be exemplified by practices that engage all four rationalities. Woods (2006, p.328) describes the goals of the four rationalities as follows:

- *Ethical rationality*: supporting and enabling aspirations for truth, and the widest engagement of people in this.

- *Decisional rationality*: freedom from arbitrary and imposed rule by others and the imposition of others' values. It concerns the right to participate, including rights to select representatives and to be involved in decision-making and to hold power-holders to account.
- *Discursive rationality:* open debate and the operation of dialogic and deliberative democracy.
- *Therapeutic rationality*: the creation of well-being, social cohesion and positive feelings of involvement through participation and shared leadership.

While it may seem overly obvious to offer up a definition of the term *rationalities* here, it is important that the term is not used to represent *ways* of going about leading. Rather, these rationalities represent the *reasons* for going about leading in democratic ways; they represent the ends that transcend the immediate work and support the work of bringing about real change and growth in individuals and in the organization. As stated earlier, the idea that democratic culture serves organizational ends beyond the immediate focus of a particular planning effort is the distinguishing feature of a developmental approach to democratic practice and leadership, and is an essential element of the planning model we describe in this paper. For our purposes, then, these rationalities represent the *why*, the individual and organizational ends that transcend the immediate focus of a particular planning effort to acknowledge and cultivate the potential of all members of the organization, individually and collectively, to fulfill their roles as active participants in the democratic life of the organization. The *how* is considered in the following section, via a discussion of planning dispositions.

Democratic Planning Dispositions

The Developmental Democratic Planning (DDP) model asks educational leaders to pay attention to and practice several key democratic dispositions. Brookfield and Preskill (2005) offer insights into the importance of practicing selected dispositions inside a democratic classroom where discussion is the pedagogical vehicle (p. 8). As part of the DDP model, we move Brookfield and Preskill's dispositional thinking beyond the classroom and into the larger organizational arena, reorganizing it with an eye toward distinguishing between (1) dispositions that directly engage the leader and (2) dispositions that are more appropriately ascribed to the organization as a whole. Thus, we argue here that certain dispositions serve as a foundation for both the organizational leader's actions and the overall organizations ethos related to DDP.

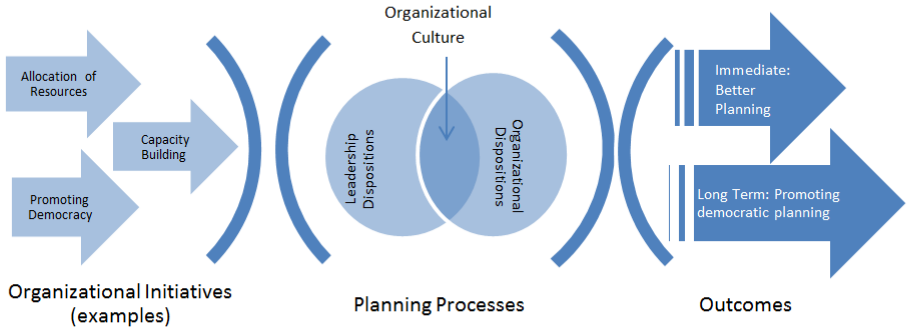

Figure 1. *Developmental Democratic Planning Model*

Core Leadership Dispositions

As educational leaders engage in the work of leading and planning inside a Developmental Democratic Planning model we believe certain depositions help facilitate the model's success. These include Hospitality, Mindfulness, and Humility.

Hospitality. Inside the DDP model, educational leaders practicing the disposition of hospitality offer their organizations the greatest opportunity for honest and meaningful discourse. It is important to note that "there is nothing soft about hospitality" it demands "an atmosphere in which people feel invited to participate" (Brookfield and Preskill, 2005, pp. 8-9). As a dispositional practice hospitality supports the development of "conviviality and congeniality" leading to an environment that encourages organizational members to "take risks and to reveal strongly held opinions" (p. 9). More importantly, "hospitality implies a mutual receptivity to new ideas and perspectives and a willingness to question even the most widely accepted assumptions" on the part of both members and formal leaders (p. 9). The development of this dispositional capacity by an organizational leader is in direct juxtaposition to an autocratic style, a style that effectively limits full participation of most organization members related to decision making and planning. Educational leaders facilitate broad participation in the organization through "intellectual stimulation and direction, through give and take, not [through] that of an aloof official imposing authoritatively educational ends and methods…the leader is on the lookout for ways to give others intellectual and moral responsibilities not just for ways of setting tasks for them" (Dewey, 1935, p. 10).

Mindfulness. It is our position that an educational organization is different from a business organization. Cuban (2004) argues that "one difference between education and business is the values that draw people into the two fields" (p. 122). Specifically, Cuban notes that many people enter the field of education with the "ideal of serving the young" (p. 122). For him, people who enter the world of business do so for other values; he notes that these values are "not better or worse, just different" and may include the "love of competition" and "the rewards of . . .

successfully building a business" (p.122). We argue that an educational leader should remember this distinction and strive to develop the disposition of mindfulness, especially when engaged in planning activities. Specifically, Brookfield and Preskill argue that "mindfulness" means paying attention to the thinking and contributions of others. When educational leaders apply this idea to planning, we practice the art of curbing, holding "…in check our desire to express ourselves fully and vociferously" (p. 11) and allowing others the space for full expression. For us, this means being attentive to the discourse, ideas and experiences of those in our organization. In this way, our daily leadership example is consistent with the ideas of DDP as we model and develop the democratic capacity of those around us. In practicing mindfulness, we understand that "it doesn't mean compromising our principles or remaining quiet at all times . . . but it does oblige us to pay close attention to what others have said" (p. 11) when they share their ideas, experiences and insights. It is our contention that mindfulness is a core leadership practice in the DDP model related to the development of individual agency and action on the part of members.

Humility. Humility in the DDP model, is a "willingness to admit that one's knowledge and experiences are limited and incomplete and to act accordingly" (Brookfield and Preskill, 2005, p. 12). A leader must acknowledge the limitations of his or her own individual understandings and learn to embrace the knowledge and understandings of the organization's membership, both individually and collectively. If leaders hope to develop a democratic, ongoing planning culture they must acknowledge that others, including those who are typically excluded from planning activities (i.e. students, parents, and community members) have ideas, and that those ideas may be more robust and more salient than the leader's. Leaders operating from a democratic perspective encourage and energize other members of the educational community, most especially those traditionally not involved in planning processes. This acknowledgment demands a level of humility not often present in organizational leadership practice.

Core Organizational Dispositions

As noted earlier, we contend that certain organizational dispositions must be cultivated as part of the culture for organizations to fully employ the DDP model.. These dispositions include the concepts of Mutuality, Appreciation, Participation and a sense of organizational Certainty.

Mutuality. The disposition of mutuality is best understood as an intentional effort by all members of the organizations to ensure that others in the organization are as fully engaged in the planning process as possible. More specifically, Brookfield and Preskill argue that "mutuality means it is in the interest of all to care as much about each other's self-development as one's own" (p. 12). By acting with this mindset, we "realize that our own flourishing depends in a vital sense to the flourishing of others" (p. 12). This "mutual flourishing" depends in part on what Horton (as cited in Jacobs, 2003) called "the creation of the proper climate" (p.142). For Horton, participation, especially by those who have had little opportunity to participate, depends on creating a climate in the organization that encourages people to engage. Specifically he argued, "The creation of the proper climate for learning is conducive to working with any group of people who feel that they are not fully accepted. The first step is to parallel voice principles with visible practices" (p. 142). In summary, the organizational disposition of mutuality has the potential to create a climate of "mutual flourishing" that extends to all levels of the organizational strata.

Appreciation. Appreciation is more than kind words; here we conceptualize appreciation as valuing others contributions through authentic and active engagement. Appreciative leaders value all points of view, all opinions, while withholding judgments. This active form of appreciation facilitates broad and sustained organizational participation. "Openly expressing our appreciation for one another engenders a kind of joyous collaboration that is characteristic of the most productive and most democratic of communities" (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005, p.15). In the daily life of an organization, appreciation acts as the glue that binds people together in both service to each other and in the ongoing planning efforts of the organization.

Participation and autonomy. It is a commonly understood that participation in organizational life is important. It could be argued that broad participation is the cornerstone of any democratic process. A democratic society "makes provision for participation for the good of all of its members on equal terms" (Dewey, 1916, p.105). In the frame of classroom discussions, Brookfield and Preskill (2005) argue that discussions are more fruitful "when a large number of students participate and when this participation happens in regards to varied topics" (p. 9). In the context of the DDP model, participation means that the organization has the opportunity to fully consider the ideas of all members of the educational community and to fully engage the expertise of the organizational membership. Brookfield and Preskill warn that "the incentive to participate is diminished when what one says or contributes is ignored or leaves no discernable impact" (p. 10). For us, the importance of not ignoring the contributions of others in relation to the planning work of an organization is worthy of careful consideration because the development and practice of this disposition is the responsibility of the entire organization. Finally, as organizational members participate in this model of planning they develop the potential to see democratic interactions as a "cultural way of being" (West, 2005, p.68), not as "something institutional and external … [and they] realize that democracy is a reality only as it is a commonplace of living" (Dewey, 1939, p. 343). The cultivation of broad organizational participation relies the participation, contributions and thinking of the individual. For us, individual participation is an important, if not crucial, component of democracy and the DDP model. A misguided understanding of democracy can limit individual participation in favor of a group orientation. Specifically, this misguidedness results when individual thinking and actions are seen as subordinate to the democratic culture of an educational organization. Brookfield & Preskill (2005) argue, "without people who are willing to take strong stands and argue assertively for them, democracy is diminished" (p. 17). Since the DDP model encourages participation and active engagement by individual organizational members, it is natural to expect strong opinions to emerge. This space of passionate opinions and engaged discourse is foundational to the democratic process.

Hope vs. certainty. Brookfield and Preskill argue for the importance of hope in a democratic space. For them, hope has a sustaining quality and implies a future orientation. "Hope provides us with a sense that all of the effort and time will benefit us in the long run, even if only in a small way" (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005, p.16). In this model, we propose a distinction between hope and an expanded, more robust, conception of faith. If hope can be conceptualized as a belief that positive outcomes *might* result, faith as we conceptualize it is a belief—a sense of certainty— that the outcomes *will* result. Organizations that operate from a position of certainty are not ignorant of the barriers and obstacles. Quite the contrary, a keen awareness and understanding of the challenges and certainty of the collective ability is required to address and overcome them (cf. King's [1963] notion of *creative tension*). Organizational members have a shared vision about the future and see that future as *fact*, not a hope or wish for

a possible future. All members of the organization move forward with certainty in the potential of the organization to face obstacles and to advance as if the goals are a certainty. In other words, one outcome of implementing the DDP is that all members of the organization contribute to the planning of—and thus the creating of—the community that they believe is possible.

Conclusion

As organizations engage in initiatives, a planning process inevitably occurs (whether consciously and deliberately or not) involving both formal and informal actions and activities within the organization. The Developmental Democratic Planning model discussed in this paper purposely engages leadership and organizational dispositions to maximize participation at all levels of the organization and move forward individual and organizational ends that transcend the planning effort itself (specifically, ends that cultivate and support democratic ways of being and doing throughout the organization). Actively practicing the leadership dispositions of Hospitality, Mindfulness, and Humility and cultivating the organizational dispositions of Mutuality, Appreciation, Participation, and Certainty are integral to the development of a democratic organizational culture. Planning that models and is enacted within a democratic culture facilitates outcomes that are both immediate (i.e. goals of the specific initiative) and long term (i.e. participation from all levels of the organization) thus promoting and sustaining ongoing democratic planning. The result of such a process is an organization that embraces planning as an integral part of its ongoing work and institutional mission, and embraces democratic practice as key to its planning processes and to all other work within the organization.

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The Leadership Lens: Perspectives on Leadership from School District Personnel and University Faculty

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This study examined the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary for aspiring school leaders from the perspective of university faculty in educational administration programs and acting school administrators and teacher leaders. Additionally, I sought to understand the congruence and/or dissonance between university faculty in educational administration programs and acting school administrators and teacher leaders in their view of necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes for aspiring school leaders. Using a qualitative research design, I interviewed both university professors in education administration programs and current administrators who serve as principal, assistant principal, curriculum supervisors, superintendents, department chairs, and other school leaders.

The Leadership Lens:

Administrators in K-12 education possess the ability to effectively model and ensure quality teaching for learning for students. In order to achieve this level of student success, educational leaders must be competent and visionary as well as display transformational leadership (DeVita, Colvin, Darling-Hammond, & Haycock, 2007). As high standards and stricter measures of accountability continue, it is critical that educational leadership programs provide experiences and skills that will prepare the leaders of tomorrow and assist in creating a qualified pool of applicants filled with trained professionals who know how to envision and implement the necessary functions of a school (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001). The discrepancy and challenge will come in identifying what the essential skills, courses, and experiences for aspiring administrators should be and in maintaining a curriculum of such that is reflective of the ever-changing needs of school divisions (Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., & Orr, M., 2007).

Leadership in schools should serve as the bridge which connects the various reform efforts through specific plans and measures for assessment (DeVita et al., 2007). Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2006) concur that the main focus of leadership is using influence to direct the organization toward an established and shared vision. Though the vision of what a successful educational leader should be might be clear, the path toward assisting individuals develop this leadership capacity is murkier. Leithwood, et al. go on to state that not all individuals possess the same capacity for leadership potential and that there is an inherent need to identify those with this potential to recruit the highest level of educational leaders rather than settling for mediocrity. Once a program has recruited quality students, there may be an additional layer of dissonance between educational leadership university faculty and the school administrators who they work to shape in regard to what takes priority.

As faculty design leadership preparation programs, they often utilize common curriculum, internship and field-based experiences, and mentoring. The curriculum and projects, however, tend to lack grounding in research, according to a study that examined syllabi from exemplar programs (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2007). Conversely, in a 2007 study examining 200 recent graduates of principal preparation programs, participants identified an overuse of theory without practical application and irrelevant content as two critiques of their program (Edmonds, Waddle, Murphy, Ozturgut, & Caruthers, 2007). These two studies from two different perspectives assess preparation at opposite ends of a spectrum of theory and practice. As those who seek to improve leadership preparation programs strive for innovation, it is important to take the difficult first-step of acknowledging that we may need to improve and align to a new version of K-12 school leadership than what history required. Hess and Kelley (2005) reported that, "The evidence indicates that preparation has not kept pace with changes in the larger world of schooling, leaving graduates of principal preparation programs ill-equipped for the challenges and opportunities posed by an era of accountability" (p. 35). This kind of investigation requires regular review as the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary will evolve over time. Work done since this 2005 study by organizations such as the University Council for Educational Administration Task Force on Evaluating Leadership Preparation Programs has provided a scaffold for programs to use to self-assess their program through short and long-term outcomes. These efforts have shown pockets of improvement that are reaching a larger scale (Orr & Orphanos, 2011; Orr, 2011).

The research questions addressed in this project and study included:

- What are the skills, knowledge, and attitudes seen as necessary for aspiring school leaders from the perspective of university faculty in educational administration programs and acting school administrators and teacher leaders?
- To what extent do congruence and/or dissonance exist between university faculty in educational administration programs and acting school administrators and teacher leaders in their view of necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes for aspiring school leaders?

Related Literature

Leadership and Leadership Preparation for Contemporary Schools

The importance of the school leader for contemporary schools is well understood within the literature and is embodied by the work of Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) who said, "…there are virtually no documented instances of troubled schools being turned around without intervention by a powerful leader. Many other factors may contribute to such turnarounds, but leadership is the catalyst" (p. 17). The nature of leadership in contemporary schools is fluid and is impacted by both internal and external influences within and around organizations.

The very definition of what constitutes an educational leader has changed and expanded over time to include not only building-based administrators, but also central office personnel and teacher leaders, such as department chairs and team leaders. When we think of contemporary leaders and their changing role, it is important that we work to develop leaders in the preparation phase that develop a capacity for contextual leadership. Leithwood, et. al, (2004) reported what today's principal needs to be prepared explained, "We need to be developing leaders with large repertoires of practices and the capacity to choose from that repertoire as needed, not leaders trained in the delivery of one "ideal" set of practices" (p. 10). Additionally, we need to prepare leaders who understand that their work cannot function unaccompanied, but rather has to focus on how to maximize the collective resources and energy of the staff around them. Kati Haycock, President of Education Trust is quoted in a 2008 Wallace Foundation report as saying,

> When you meet the leaders in the places that are really getting the job done, they are not the kind of leaders that just turn things around by the sheer force of their personality. They are regular people. They are totally focused. They are totally relentless. They are not big, outsized personalities and they are not the only leaders in their schools. Especially in the larger schools, the principals know that they can't get it all done themselves. Those are the places that improve. Leadership is not about one person; it's about building a shared commitment and building a leadership team. (p. 2)

The challenge lies in determining what skills, knowledge, and dispositions are necessary to achieve the kind of school leadership that can succeed in improving student achievement, ensuring equity and excellence for all children, and in maintaining learning environments conducive to a system and climate of support. Additionally, we must consider how to best prepare leaders who understand how to be aware of and respond to their context, as well as to ensure the opportunities and manage conditions to support diverse learners (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Leithwood, et. al, 2004). Principals have identified areas where they felt less prepared after their administration preparation programs, such as needing additional assistance with

communicating interpersonally, leading teams and reducing conflict, cultural competency, and utilization of data to lead schools (Petzko, 2004; Portin, Schneider, DeArmond, & Gundlach, 2003).

Standards for Leadership

One mechanism for examining consensus around the necessities of practice needed by school leaders is the through the examination of formalized bodies or sets of standards. International, national, and state organizations, such as departments of education and non-profit groups have convened groups to work toward defining what a school leader needs to know and be able to do. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium developed standards in 1996 and updated them in 2008 to work toward clarifying the dispositions, knowledge, and skills needed for successful school leadership. These standards were meant to inform preparation, licensure, induction, and professional development for school leaders. The standards include:

1. Setting a widely shared vision for learning
2. Developing a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth
3. Ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment
4. Collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources
5. Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner
6. Understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, legal, and cultural contexts (Educational Leadership Policy Standards, 2008).

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education adapted these standards to guide accreditation of administrative preparation programs, through the ELCC standards, used to prepare aspiring administrators for licensure and practice. We also see standards emerge for specific content strands within education administration, such as standards for instructional supervision and the use of technology (NETS).

In addition to these national standards, states have worked to develop their own standards for licensure and evaluation. Several states, such as California, Virginia, and Colorado are undergoing updates to their evaluation of teachers and administrators with intention of implementing student academic achievement into the model. As we look at comparisons between standards of various states, it is useful to determine where parallels and incongruence lie. In better framing this study, I examined the standards from three states, New Jersey, Virginia, and Florida to crosswalk their content, as shown in Figure 1. The underlying ISLLC standards can be found in the terminology and organization of each of the three states included. Each demonstrates an emphasis on visioning, instructional focus, organizational management, community collaboration, integrity and ethical behavior, and understanding the political and social context. Additionally, New Jersey and Florida have standards that address the need for leading the use of technology.

Table 1.

Comparison and crosswalk of standards for administrators.

Theme	New Jersey	Virginia	Florida
Visioning	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.	The school leader collaboratively develops and implements a School Improvement Plan that focuses on improving student performance, communicates a clear vision of excellence and results in increased student learning. The school leader takes responsibility for and participates in a meaningful and continuous process of professional development that results in the enhancement of student learning.	High Performing leaders have a personal vision for their school and the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to develop, articulate and implement a shared vision that is supported by the larger organization and the school community.
Instructional Focus	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.	The school leader effectively employs various processes for gathering, analyzing and using data for decision making. The school leader plans, implements, supports and assesses instructional programs that enhance teaching and improve student achievement in the Standards of Learning.	High performing leaders promote a positive learning culture, provide an effective instructional program, and apply best practices to student learning, especially in the area of reading and other foundational skills. High Performing Leaders monitor the success of all students in the learning environment, align the curriculum,

		The school leader supervises the alignment, coordination and delivery of instructional programs to promote student learning and oversees an accountability system to monitor student success. The school leader selects, inducts, supervises, supports, evaluates and retains quality instructional and support personnel. The school leader provides professional development programs designed to improve instruction and student performance that are consistent with division initiatives and the School Improvement Plan. The school leader identifies, analyzes and resolves instructional problems using effective problem-solving techniques.	instruction, and assessment processes to promote effective student performance, and use a variety of benchmarks, learning expectations, and feedback measures to ensure accountability for all participants engaged in the educational process. High Performing Leaders plan effectively, use critical thinking and problem solving techniques, and collect and analyze data for continuous school improvement. High Performing Leaders recruit, select, nurture and, where appropriate, retain effective personnel, develop mentor and partnership programs, and design and implement comprehensive professional growth plans for all staff – paid and volunteer.
Organizational Management	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization,	The school leader maintains effective discipline and fosters a safe, caring environment that is supportive of teaching and learning.	High Performing Leaders manage the organization, operations, facilities and resources in ways that maximize the use of resources in an

	operations and resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment.	The school leader effectively coordinates and monitors the daily operation of the school to ensure efficiency, protect instructional time and maintain the focus on successful student learning. The school leader effectively manages material and financial resources to ensure student learning and to comply with legal mandates. The school leader demonstrates effective organizational skills to achieve school, community and division goals.	instructional organization and promote a safe, efficient, legal, and effective learning environment.
Community Collaboration	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	The school leader communicates effectively and establishes positive interpersonal relations with students, teachers and other staff.	High Performing Leaders collaborate with families, business, and community members, respond to diverse community interests and needs, work effectively within the larger organization and mobilize community resources.
Integrity and Ethical Behavior	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness	The school leader models professional, moral, and ethical standards as well as personal integrity in all	High Performing Leaders act with integrity, fairness, and honesty in an ethical manner.

	and in an ethical manner.	interactions. The school leader works in a collegial and collaborative manner with other division personnel.	
Understanding the Political and Social Context	School administrators shall be educational leaders who promote the success of all students by understanding, responding to and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context.	The school leader effectively communicates with and works collaboratively with families and community members to secure resources (e.g., cultural, social, intellectual) and support the success of a diverse student population. The school leader acts to influence decisions that affect student learning at the division, state, and/or national level.	High Performing Leaders understand, respond to, and influence the personal, political, social, economic, legal, and cultural relationships in the classroom, the school and the local community.
Technology	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the effective use of technology to maximize student learning and efficiently manage school operations.		High Performing Leaders plan and implement the integration of technological and electronic tools in teaching, learning, management, research, and communication responsibilities.

(Florida Principal Leadership Standards, 2005; New Jersey Professional Standards for Teachers, 2004; Advancing Virginia's Leadership Agenda, 2008).

University-District Collaboration

By understanding what school leaders need to know and be able to do to be successful, rather through research, or research-based standards, the next step is to consider who will work to prepare the school leaders in these leadership dimensions. Increasingly, there are calls for

partnering between K-12 school divisions and institutions of higher education, or non-profit organizations. In some states, this partnership is mandated by state code. This type of partnering allows for the articulation of division needs, current research and theory, quality internship and field placements, and improved collaborative efforts to encourage P-16 educational alignment (Grogan, Bredeson, Sherman, Preis, & Beaty, 2009; Sherman, 2009). While these partnerships can be challenging to forge and sustain, the necessity for a pooling of resources toward this important preparation is key (Borthwick, Stirling, Nauman, & Cook, 2003). This study sought to provide a foundation that can be used to initiate conversations between university faculty and division administrators. The basic task of what competencies leaders need to be successful is wrought with complexity.

Conceptual Model

Leading an educational organization requires a complex set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes where leaders work with diverse groups to set direction and reach goals. Leithwood and Riehl (2005) sought to outline key categories under which competencies of school leadership fall. Namely, they identified setting direction, developing people, and developing the organization. Setting direction encompassed the notion of developing, fostering, and communicating a shared vision among stakeholders, and then monitoring the progress toward that vision. In doing such activities with the larger group, a leader is able to gain buy-in and community commitment. Second, developing people is critical to the ability to reach these goals and was defined to include offering a stimulating and supportive environment that would allow the teachers, students, and staff to evolve individually and as a group. Finally, Leithwood and Riehl (2005) emphasized developing the organization through examination of the school culture and climate, ensuring a quality environment for teaching for learning, and in focusing on reorganization to allow for collaborative efforts to reach the aforementioned goals. As I sought to understand how university faculty and current K-12 administrators understood leadership preparation priorities, this conceptual model of school leadership allowed a structure through which to establish the interview protocol and organize findings.

Methods and Participants

Guided by Leithwood & Riehl's work in successful school leadership (2005), I examined leadership through the three key factors of setting direction, developing people, and developing the organization through interviews with both university professors in education administration programs and current administrators who served as principal, assistant principal, curriculum supervisors, superintendents, department chairs, and other school leaders. Participants were asked to describe their current understanding of school leadership and the skills, attitudes, and knowledge necessary to be successful in varying leadership roles through the lens of the three key factors. This study used a basic qualitative interpretive research design to determine the key elements of a program that seeks to prepare educational leaders who are strong both in practical and theoretical measures (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research was chosen to allow for full examination of the how and why for participants through their own experiences. Additionally, I sought to explore defining leadership beyond the manner a survey instrument would allow. To ensure trustworthiness of the data, I worked with a research partner in the early stages of coding

to ensure that my perspective as a professor of educational leadership did not result in my missing or miscategorizing the words of my participants.

Snowball sampling was used to locate university faculty teaching in education administration programs, while attempting to ensure that different states were represented. Ultimately, eight different faculty, four men and four women participated. By using professional networks through the University Council for Educational Administration and the American Education Research Association, I was able to develop a starting set of participants that was ultimately augmented through snowball sampling. Additionally, I was able to speak with 16 school-based leaders at which point I reached saturation. The sample included 10 women and six men. The sample consisted of four principals, four assistant principals, four central office administrators, and four teacher leaders representing 10 different school divisions.

Each participant was interviewed for 60 minutes using a semi-structured interview protocol during which time the interview was recorded and then later transcribed. In conducting my analysis, I used qualitative data analysis by open coding in AtlasTI to determine key themes and trends from the perspective of varying roles of leadership. Strauss and Corbin (1998) emphasize the need to use open coding to not target one issue too early and then to use constant comparison to continue to update the list of codes and possible eventual theories. In later iterations of coding, the transcripts were examined for any nuances related to the role held by the participant. This allowed findings regarding congruence and dissonance between practitioners and faculty to become evident in a qualitative manner.

Findings

The conversations with leaders in the field and professors who prepare them led to important findings about both common ground and dissonance. Clearly, the snowball sampling and perspective of the researcher serve as limitations that may limit transferability of findings to other groups. There were, however, findings, that might inform the work of leadership preparation, as well as induction and mentoring conducted by school districts.

Skills, Knowledge and Attitudes Needed for School Leaders

The first research question allowed an examination of the necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed for school leaders. Generally, there was consistency among the voice of faculty and school district personnel about key areas for development. Key findings included a need for leaders to be trained in instructional leadership, ethical decision making, cultural competency, and organizational management. Among school district personnel, there was a specific mention of the need to focus on training leaders to manage the organization with attention to federal and state mandates that are, in their view, increasing in complexity and number. A district leader indicated, “We just have to have people who can attend to the data and accountability requirements. It’s no longer a nice addition to a resume; it’s a critical component for success as a school leader.” University faculty reported a need to prepare leaders to be systems thinkers and to provide experiences to help bridge the theory to practice gap. It was clear, however, that exactly what those experiences should entail is still somewhat of an enigma. One faculty member indicated, “We have so many things we know they need to have, and yet our ability to get them all of those experiences in a degree program with limited internship opportunities is a challenge.” Central office personnel responded with more emphasis on instructional and curriculum

leadership, whereas building personnel focused more on the need to not neglect organizational management and personnel for a sole focus on instructional leadership. One faculty member described her view of needed integration among coursework and practical experiences for aspiring leaders saying,

> I would have them do their coursework along with their internship activities. I think having them starting out as observers and then moving into active participants within the schools as they get more comfortable with it, I think that I would not have individual courses. I would find common themes within the courses, and then however you would do it – modules or themes or whatever – but you would have an integrated program. I think part of the problem is is that we teach concepts in isolation, and it makes students – it makes it more difficult for students to transfer the knowledge from one course to the other that it seems like, "Oh, well this is a school law activity, so I'm gonna put on my school law cap. Oh, well this is an instructional activity. I'm going to put on my instructional hat. Oh, this is Special Ed. I'm gonna put on my Special Ed hat." They need to be able to see how all of those blend together and things aren't done in isolation.

The experiences identified by both faculty and administrators focused on the need to have authentic practice in managing in-box style activities in actual scenarios, either through case studies or internship opportunities. A faculty member echoed

> So I think before you can become an effective school wide leader, you need to have the experience of either having led your colleagues at a grade level or across the department. So that you're comfortable having those conversations about looking at data, figuring out what we need to do differently next, figuring out how you're going to share information as to your results, and do research to determine what's the next thing that you need to do to improve outcomes for children. So you need to have some of that experience on a smaller scale first.

A principal agreed, saying, "They think they know from books, but they don't know until they are out there. They have to be in the shoes to get it."

One interesting aspect from participants who were teacher leaders emerged from their struggle to respond to how they reflected on their role as leaders and what prepared them for success. Teacher leaders showed that their ability to conceptualize and reflect upon their role was hampered by the fact that they did not see themselves as school leaders. They saw themselves more as either a volunteer for department tasks or as the one who had to take their turn running things. One teacher leader currently enrolled in an administrative licensure program, however, described the intersection of her work as a teacher leader with her coursework, saying

> When we did the observations, like, I had been doing walk-throughs and doing observations, but I got to do on-the-job training that day and already got to get that experience of what we were learning in a classroom. So I think for me, it's been perfect timing because I'm still new to the leadership team, but I have enough experience on the leadership team where what I'm learning in my classes is like a direct fit.

> While there was much shared regarding knowledge and skills, attitudes tended to be more

challenging for the respondents to discuss. One faculty member indicated that she did not ascribe to the belief that there is a particular set of dispositions or attitudes necessary because the role is so diverse and accomplished well by so many different leaders. Several school leaders, however, indicated that the personality is a critical component. Each of the three who used the term "personality" in their responses indicated that they felt that leaders either have it or they do not. One clarified, "You can just see it in people. You know that one is going to be able to do it and lead this place, whereas that one just doesn't have the personality for it. That communication and people part." Through the discussion of the necessary skills, attitudes, and knowledge, there was some congruence and dissonance that emerged through coding.

Congruence and Dissonance in Leadership Preparation

The second research question allowed exploration, through a qualitative lens, the congruence and dissonance expressed by the participants in their view of school leadership. In many ways, there was congruence between university faculty and school district leadership regarding the necessary knowledge and skills for school leaders, however, in some key areas, such as who is responsible for preparing leaders, there was some important dissonance. University faculty saw organized university systems as most equipped to prepare leaders who would challenge the status quo, whereas school district personnel saw an increasing need to provide induction and professional development for newly hired administrators at the district level. Both, therefore, saw themselves as playing the most important or primary necessary role in developing leaders. They did, however, find agreement that current preparation is leaving some administrators under-prepared for key functions.

One area of congruence was found in the necessary experiences and credentials faculty and school based leaders saw as necessary to prepare to take on building or central office leadership roles. Both groups saw a necessity for extended internships and quasi-administrative roles such as department chairs, grade level leads, and committee leadership, such as one assistant principal who said,

> I think they need to have led committees. I really think being a department chair is important - just having those kinds of roles wherein you start getting a sense of: "This is policy. This is what you have to do." It's a lot easier to be the quarterback the night after - you know the Monday night quarterback, and go, "Oh, I would have done it this way," when they've never walked in those shoes.

Another principal indicated, "I look for the people who have said yes. I look for the people who volunteered and did things long before they were officially licensed because they know what it takes to lead. If you don't have that commitment, then you are not ready to be a school leader."

As indicated previously, the dissonance found was primarily about who was better equipped to prepare school leaders for their role. University faculty all agreed that to allow districts to "grow your own" or prepare school leaders without any external involvement leads to a system of groupthink where norms that should be challenged are not. School leaders had more of a balanced approach. None of the participants who were school leaders indicated they thought a school district should prepare leaders in a vacuum from university influence, however, they all agreed that there is induction and preparation that must happen inside the district as each district

has their own nuanced policies and approaches, as well as vision. There was universal agreement, as well, that even university professors who previously served in K-12 are often too distanced from that experience for it to be relevant. One principal indicated, "Look, I get that some of these folks were in K-12 and now they are professors and so they think that makes them understand our experiences. The reality though is that if you've been out of the field say more than 4-5 years, you don't get it. And I've been doing this a long time so I know how things have changed." The participants highlighted areas through their descriptions that can lead to future conversations in leadership preparation.

Findings Connected to Conceptual Model of School Leadership

The final stage of coding allowed for a reflection on the voices of participants through the conceptual model developed by Leithwood and Riehl (2005) of what works in school leadership.

The first component, setting direction, included a focus on collectively developing and maintaining a course toward a vision. As I reviewed the transcripts examining for various themes, I used a priori coding to examine for statements and codes that fit into the components of Leithwood and Riehl's framework. The research protocol was focused on specific competencies, rather than overall effective school leadership. This may explain why participants did not discuss the need for leaders to be prepared to lead and steward a school vision. This was, however, inherent in some participants' responses, such as one assistant principal who described her model for leadership, saying,

> Well I'll start with my philosophy. My philosophy of leadership is pretty much based on Robert Greenleaf's servant leadership. I believe that leadership regardless of where it is but especially in an educational setting should be approached from the standpoint of how can I help you be the better teacher, assistant principal, custodian, and I feel like it's my job as principal and leader of the school to support everyone who works and serves in the school so that they can be the best, do their job to the fullest, including the students. How can I help my students be eager, willing, ready learners? And I feel like my job entails work and being busy about supporting those and equipping them with the tools that they need, whether it's resources, whether it's time in the day to collaborate, whether it's a workshop or a seminar or bringing in someone.

Another central office administrator identified the lack of vision coming into her division due to both an ineffective superintendent and continuous overturn of the office of superintendent, describing,

> Our superintendent--he's brand new to our district. And before him, two superintendents before him, the superintendent, made a lot of strides in our district, did a lot. We gained a lot. We started doing more data-driven decision-making. He also made a lot of leadership changes in central admin. So we were very strong, we were very proud and we were on the track of just achieving and achieving. But then he retired and he left and we got a new superintendent, who was with us I think four or five years. He was a very nice person, but as far as understanding his vision as a leader where he was trying to take us, that wasn't transparent.

The second concept of developing people from Leithwood and Riehl (2005) was present in responses by both faculty and practicing administrators. Specifically, there was consistent mention among all participants of a notion of needing to keep the teaching for learning at the core. One university faculty member discussed,

> I think that school leaders need to be instructionally focused. They also at the same time have to keep the details of the management aspect of the building at the forefront while balancing that with instructional leadership. I think the majority of their time needs to be spent with teachers during the academic day. It's tricky and it's difficult to do that, but I think at least 40 to 50 percent of their day needs to be in the classroom and needs to be working with teachers and meetings. I think there's a lack of participation by school leaders in content and grade level team meetings. I think that they need to be active participants. I think that school leaders need to also be incredibly active with their school data.

One component of developing people was pinpointed through the discussions about necessary attitudes and dispositions of school leaders. Primarily, participants listed similar qualities of leaders, and usually, they followed with an example of a particular leader who embodied those qualities. This may indicate that our concept of ideal leadership is truly an amalgamation of all the leaders we have deemed effective during our careers. One faculty member stated,

> You can design a program that may expose people to these particular attitudes, to these particular dispositions, but it's really up to the individual person to decide whether or not they want to incorporate that into their own particular schema. I think that you need to expose and help people understand what it means to be a visionary leader – someone who's able to think strategically who understands what it means to create a culture of positive academic learning; what it means – what it really means to believe that all students can learn, and maybe they don't necessarily learn in the same way; to understand that it's crucial to have a school where individuals are not just individuals.

The theme of teamwork within a learning organization was echoed by a central office administrator, who said,

> You have to have the type of personality that - I've said many times if you have to walk around all the time saying and letting everybody know you're the building principal, you're really not in charge. It's that you present yourself in a way that your staff knows I'm here for you and I'm working with you. I'm not here to dictate to you how the job has to be done and I'm on this ivory tower over here and I'm having you do all of my legwork and I'm never the two shall meet. The staff has to be able to view you as someone that is concerned about the operation as a whole, know that you're there to work with them, support them, back them up, and that's - I think that personality trait is something that any good leader has to have. You can't be successful if your staff views you as an outsider. You've got to be in there working with them.

Another central office administrator stated, "They need to know that they can come to you with anything and you're there for them. It's not a 'me and you' mentality. It's 'an us'. We're a team and I'm part of that team just as much as when I was a teacher." I also spoke with leaders who were newer to the administrative role and had some of their beliefs change early on, such as one new assistant principal who said,

> I must say that my philosophy of leadership has certainly changed. I once thought that it needed to be quite direct. I'm now thinking it's very much a collaborative effort of everyone in the school, and I do think it needs to be focused - very focused on what your goals and your outcomes want to be for this school, and like I said, along with collaboration with the rest of your team members and faculty.

Finally, in looking at how participants responded in areas considered developing the organization, such as safety and security and overall management of the building logistics, I did see specific recommendations that aspiring leaders needed this experience during internship or practica. While the rhetoric around instructional leadership is present, several of the practicing principals commented that it is often the other items, such as special education logistics and budgeting that will get you into trouble. One central office administrator, who had previously served as a principal commented,

> Ultimately, your goal as the building principal when you're focusing on academics, you want the bulk of your day to be where you're physically in the classroom monitoring the instruction firsthand, seeing the good instruction that's occurring, and you've really got your finger on the pulse of the instructional program. In reality that doesn't happen every day. In reality the other pieces that we talked about, the budgetary issues, the policy issues, the other things that are required in many days keep and prevent that from happening. That's when you have to be very dependent upon your instructional resource staff, and that's where the delegation comes in. If you can't be there, you need to still make sure that you've got eyes and ears out there that are monitoring that number one goal.

One of the teacher leaders commented on how intricate the system was something she did not realize until she moved into a quasi-administrative position. She said,

> I think I've realized more of what's going on at the central office and some of the things behind the scenes that I didn't realize, and the complexities of all the different jobs and the positions, and how everything needs to be in sync, as where, before, I just really didn't even think much about it at all. But it's kind of eye-opening to see how complex the school system is and what all has to be done and how much knowledge had to be in each department for everything to function and flow correctly and properly.

These findings will be discussed in the final implications section collectively and individually.

Conclusions and Implications

There is much room in the arena of leadership preparation for the voice of all key stakeholders to come to the table. This study's findings, although not generalizable, reflect less dissonance than there may have been in previous years, but rather different areas of emphasis and expertise. As university programs continue to battle the reputation of the "ivory tower" that has been criticized for being out of touch with the realities facing contemporary school leaders (Elmore, 2006; Levine, 2005), it is important for university faculty to continue to demonstrate the practical ways their work and research can be used by those in the field. Methods such as translational research seek to disseminate information to those who would most benefit from the findings. According to Smith and Helfenbein (2009), in education research, the approach of translational research provides an opportunity for connections between research and/or theory and the world of K-12 practitioners, and when enacted with fidelity provides a forum for ongoing dialogue.

Educational leadership program faculty working in concert with local school district leaders to jointly design programs that develop theoretically based and practical skills, knowledge, and attitudes will likely increase the potential for a quality and qualified pool of aspiring administrators prepared to lead schools in today's educational climate. The participants in this study echoed the findings of Grogan, Bredeson, Sherman, Preis, and Beaty (2009) and Sherman (2009) regarding the critical nature of P-16 alignment. It also provides the added benefit of providing opportunities for educational leadership faculty to stay grounded in the daily activities and priorities of school leaders, as well as challenging existing school leaders to remain current in their understanding of contemporary theories and research in school leadership. This study provided an important groundwork for such cooperation and collaboration among stakeholders in leadership preparation.

The participants also seemed to express a set of necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes that were generally consistent with the current state and national standards reported in the review of literature. There was a clear focus on instructional leadership from all participants that is aligned to the standard found in the ISLLC and the three reviewed states. One area that was less covered was political context. While all participants acknowledged the need for a leader to understand the community context, less focus was given to political context for school leaders. It does appear critical that similar voices be included in any revision of standards at the national or state level.

A final area expressed by all participants was the need to emphasize that context matters. Each participant echoed the idea that school leaders need to be prepared more acutely for the challenges faced within their own buildings or divisions. At the very least, there was a need expressed to understand how to "diagnose" the challenges faced by a division or school to best prepare with the proper "treatment." Similar to the work of Leithwood & Riehl (2003) who said, "…it is not only what you do, but how you do it that makes the difference in any given situation and environment" (p. 5). This raises the need for a focus on school climate and culture that in some cases is missing from leadership preparation programs. With our knowledge as a field of the impact that can be exerted by school leaders, both positive and negative, it is clear that ongoing discussion and research about the necessary competencies of school leaders is warranted.

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Management & Leadership Issues for School Building Leaders

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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School principals are confronted with a variety of issues as they provide leadership and organization to their schools. Evidence is growing that successful school leaders influence achievement through the support and development of effective teachers and the implementation of effective organizational practice (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). On occasion it takes specific leadership behaviors from the principal to begin to resolve the issues; at other times it takes organizational and management skills. The classroom activity in this instructional module is designed to provide options for an instructor in developing the background knowledge and information to provide leadership and/or the organizational and management skills necessary for educational administration candidates to begin developing personal approaches to organizational behavior. Discussions and/or reactions after each presentation provide opportunities to focus attention on establishing a systems perspective for guiding administrative behavior as issues are clarified and solutions are identified, including anticipated and unanticipated consequences.

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Background Information

Today's school administrators are confronted, on a daily basis, with a variety of issues from how to implement the new Common Core State Standards (CCSS), to handling irate parents, to supporting overwhelmed teachers. How they react to these issues, to a great extent, determines their success or failure as school administrators. Building principals are charged with being the instructional and visionary leaders that every community wants and with successfully managing the day-to-day happenings that occur in every school. This is nothing new. When do I engage in leadership behavior and when am I supposed to manage the enterprise? These are two of the more significant and perplexing issues confronting today's school administrators – especially building principals.

The literature has a wealth of information about these two concepts and yet the message can be quite confusing. Management is concerned primarily with getting the work of the organization completed in an efficient and effective manner. Its focus is typically on the day to day functioning of the organization giving primary attention to getting the job done (Lalonde, 2010). Leadership, on the other hand focuses attention on the future or what needs to be done. Its focus is on vision and empowerment and reaching goals (Lalonde, 2010)). While the manager will direct the workforce to complete the required tasks the most efficient way, the leader tends to inspire or venture into new ways of doing things. Leadership is viewed as an influence process while management is seen as utilizing control (Catano & Stronge, 2007). The leader seeks to find new solutions to bring about improvement while the manager seeks to assure that all participants remain "on task" and meet their required goals. The leader is concerned with understanding and changing others beliefs and with changing the status quo. The manager, however, advocates stability and carries out his responsibilities by exercising authority to get the goals accomplished (Lunenburg, 2011).

Managers do things right, but leaders do the right things. This phrase has been attributed to both Peter Drucker and to Warren Bennis, both of whom have contributed significantly to the literature on leadership and management (Bennis, 1989; Drucker, 1966). It expresses in simple and direct terms the differences in the two functions that administrative or executive personnel engage in. The manager is required to get things done properly, and the leader focuses attention on what really needs to be done.

One of the first researchers to examine the differences between management and leadership was Abraham Zalenik of Harvard University. In 1977 he published an article in the *Harvard Business Review* in which he shared his belief that both leaders and managers were important to organizations even though their contributions differed. Managers tend to focus their attention on getting tasks completed in an efficient and effective manner whereas leaders were more focused on trying to understand the people in the organization and to gain their trust. Managers tended to rely on authority to accomplish their tasks whereas leaders tended to utilize persuasion and influence (Zalenik, 1977).

In a more recent discussion of leadership and management, leaders were described as being more focused on people where the manager was focused on tasks. The leader tends to look outward, in a more expansive way whereas the manager's focus was inward and on the specific task or tasks that needed to be completed. Leaders focused their attention on articulating a vision while the manager was clearly more focused on executing plans (Lunenburg, 2011). It is important to note, however, that Zalenik and Lunenburg believed that both leaders and managers were needed for optimal effectiveness in organizations.

All of these distinctions serve to contrast the view that the functions of management and the functions of leadership differ from one another. Colin Powell, the former Secretary of State remarked "Leadership is the art of accomplishing more than the science of management says is possible" (McGowan & Miller, 2001). There is little doubt that today's school principal, in fact any school administrator, is confronted with an enormous task of trying to not only do the right thing, but to do it the right way.

The literature on leadership and management in schools also provides varying positions on the roles and duties that building principals must provide (Lunenburg, 2010; Trail, 2000; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Davis, et.al. 2005; Marshall, 2008; Mendels, 2012). One thing is certain, however; being an effective building manager is no longer sufficient. The job expectations for school principals are enormous and compel principals to take on many roles, including the role of teacher, psychologist, social worker, facilities manager, assessment expert, educational visionary, diplomat, mentor, PR director coach, and cheerleader (Trail, 2000; Davis, et.al. 2005). This ever increasing variety of roles makes their daily work inherently complex and the demands on them are increasingly fragmented, rapid fire, and voluminous (Lunenburg, 2010). Additionally, the principal's role has been altered by the advent of school or site-based management which has led to decentralization of control, transferring considerable decision making from district office to individual schools as a way to give principals, teachers and others more authority over what happens in schools (Wohlstetter and Briggs, 1994). All of this makes the roles that building principals face every day more complex than ever.

Today's principals also have a heavy workload and work at a rapid pace that is both hectic and taxing. "On average, elementary school principals work fifty-one hours a week…[and] high school principals average about fifty-three hours a week…" (Lunenburg, 2010). Increasingly, principals are also being pushed (not so gently) into instructional and community leadership roles. Mendels (2012) believes that today's principals need to be focused on instruction and not building management. What's a principal to do?

To manage this cacophony of demands requires building principals to have exceptional oral communication skills. They spend upwards of 70 – 80% of their time in interpersonal communication, most of which is face-to-face and by telephone. Add to this the volume of daily e-mail communication and their tasks become even more complex (Lunenburg, 2010).

> Educational leaders must guide their schools through the challenges posed by an increasingly complex environment. Curriculum standards, achievement benchmarks, programmatic requirements and other policy directives from many sources generate complicated and unpredictable requirements for schools. Principals must respond to increasing diversity in student characteristics, including cultural background and immigration status, income disparities, physical and mental disabilities, and variation in learning capacities. They must manage new collaborations with other social agencies that serve children. Rapid developments in technologies for teaching and communication require adjustments in the internal workings of schools. These are just a few of the conditions that make schooling more challenging and leadership more essential (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003).

It is not surprising that for many principals the task seems a bit overwhelming. Where do I begin? What should I do first? A principal might decide to start by identifying what is most

critical. The ISLLC standards, (see Appendix A), provides a framework for approaching what needs to be done. Standard 1 encourages the establishment of a shared vision for your school. Working with your faculty to set a direction for the future and establishing shared meanings provides for a clear and focused target for everyone in the building (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Kim Marshall, writing in *Principal Leadership* would agree and suggests handling the larger problems or "big rocks" first, two of which are mission and collaboration (Marshall, 2008). By examining the remaining ISLLC standards, a principal can then begin collaborating with both the internal and external community to begin putting in place a structure or system to engage in both leadership and management activities that address the complexity of issues that confront today's school administrators

In many ways today's school principals must constantly juggle the many hats they wear each day. A recent Wallace Foundation study (The School Principal as Leader: Guiding Schools to Better Teaching and Learning) indicated that effective principals perform five key practices well:

- Shaping a vision of academic success for all students.
- Creating a climate hospitable to education.
- Cultivating leadership in others.
- Improving instruction
- Managing people, data and processes to foster school improvement (Wallace, 2013).

There is little doubt that the task of leading and managing schools in today's complex environment is a genuine challenge. The demands of increased accountability, the variety of social issues that confront communities today, the lack of funding to meet the increasing number of mandates imposed on schools, and the expanding demands that society is asking schools to address certainly makes the job of tomorrow's school principals formidable. In spite of these challenges research informs us that "leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (Leithwood, et.al., 2004).

Are you up to the challenges of leading and managing tomorrow's schools?

Issues for School Building Principals

Introduction

The issues identified later in this module confront today's school administrators every day. Having the ability to lead and/or manage these issues and those affected by them is one of the attributes of a highly capable building principal. While teachers should look to their building principal for strong leadership, they also depend upon the principal's ability to manage routine day-to-day organizational tasks. When teachers' expectations are not met, concern about the principal's capabilities begins to surface.

Educational Administration programs need to provide activities and opportunities for building leader candidates to learn about and to address the variety of daily leadership and management tasks that confront today's principals. The identified issues in this module are designed to develop the students' problem solving capabilities and require them to begin interacting with building principals in rural, suburban, and urban settings. Several school

administrators (building principals, district directors, etc.) were interviewed to identify the range of issues confronting today's school building leaders.

While many possible variations can be developed for utilizing the issues posed, the two presented in this module are intended for use in a classroom or on-line environment.

Directions for Variation # 1 – Management Behavior

In this variation, students are asked to approach the issue as a management issue. What are some of the day-to-day tasks that a principal "may" have to become involved with to manage this issue? Students in the class are assigned (as individuals or small groups of 3 or less) an issue to research and then share information with the other students in the class. Students are to prepare a three to five page paper discussing the research they have identified and reviewed on their respective topics and must include a bibliography (APA style) to be submitted with each presentation. Students are required to interview three school principals from three different school districts (not their own district) to gather practitioner information and perspectives regarding the issues assigned. Students are encouraged to ask the principals to share experiences they have had in dealing with the issue. Lastly, students are asked to prepare a Power-Point or other form of presentation not to exceed 40 minutes to share what they have learned about the topic and to reflect on what they learned.

The instructor can also select from among the following to add to the experience:

a. Beginning with the second class session, students (individuals or groups) are assigned to present the information they have identified, including practitioner experience.
b. Each presenter must share a copy of the Power-Point presentation with other members of the class. This permits individual students to take notes (including their personal reactions and reflections) and save the information for future reference.
c. Following each presentation, the students in the class can discuss the issue from their individual perspectives and share any additional information related to the topic.
d. Members of the class can also be asked to complete an "Oral Presentation Rating Sheet" regarding the presentation skills of the student making the presentation. These can then be given to the presenter(s) to assist in refining his or her presentation skills.
e. Each presenter and/or class member will verbally identify which ISLLC standard(s)provided guidance in responding to the issue (See Appendix A). Instructors may wish to substitute state standards if they wish.
f. Each presenter can additionally be asked to identify one or more theoretical relationships in the principal's decision making process as they responded to their specific issue.
g. At the end of each presentation, members of the class can discuss how school system and school building administrators can prepare for dealing with this issue in advance.

Directions for Variation # 2 – Leadership Behavior

In this variation, students are asked to approach the issue as a leadership issue. If the superintendent were to ask you to pull together a committee to develop organizational procedures and processes for dealing with the issue assigned, what would you do first? Next? Who would you involve or invite to work with you? Why would you approach the topic in that manner? Please be specific about "your" behavior (your leadership) and how you anticipate it will be received by your colleagues. Be sure to share some of the anticipated issues and conflicts

that might arise as you establish your procedures for dealing with the identified issue. Students in the class are assigned (as individuals or small groups of 3 or less) an issue to research and then share information with the other students in the class. Students are to prepare a three to five page paper discussing the research they have identified and reviewed on their respective topics and to prepare a bibliography (APA style) to be submitted with each presentation. Students are required to interview three school principals from three different school districts (not their own district) to gather practitioner information and perspectives regarding the issues assigned. Students are encouraged to ask the principals to share experiences they have had in dealing with the issue. Lastly, students are asked to prepare a Power-Point or other form of presentation not to exceed 40 minutes to share what they have learned about the topic and to reflect on what they learned.

The instructor can also select from a – g (as outlined in Variation # 1) to add to the experience.

Management & Leadership Issues

The following management and/or leadership issues have been identified after interviewing several school building and district administrators.

1. **Developing the Master Schedule**: Students are to identify a minimum of 4 issues that exist in developing a master schedule. Potential questions include: Where does the principal begin? Who else is involved in developing and implementing the master schedule? What are some of the problems that occur in developing the schedule? What is the impact of shared staff? How does the lunch period (or special subject courses, or speech services, or instrumental music lessons, etc.) complicate scheduling?

2. **Handling Student Discipline**: Students are to identify a minimum of 5 ways school administrators manage the daily issue of student discipline. Potential questions include: Do all buildings have written procedures or rules? How were they established? Was there faculty, student, parent, community, or Board of Education involvement? What are the most frequent discipline problems that principals have identified? Who handles discipline in the building? Are parents notified when a student gets into difficulty? What kind(s) of reactions do principals experience from parents? Students are asked to review the rules regarding short and long term suspensions, superintendent hearings, etc.

3. **Working with and Managing Employee Contracts**: Students are to identify a minimum of 3 major issues that confront principals when working with various employee contracts (i.e. personal days, required documentation, etc.) Potential questions include: Do different employee groups have provisions that differ, thus causing confusion? What involvement does the central office have in managing contractual issues? Have conflicts arisen between employee groups? How were they managed? What is the principal's role in managing grievances?

4. **Managing Special Education Issues at the Building Level**: Students are to identify a minimum of 4 issues that building principals experience in dealing on a daily and

yearly basis with special education students. Potential questions include: What scheduling concerns exist and how are they handled? What, if any, is the role of the principal in the IEP process? How is student discipline managed for special education students? (differences and limitations) Identify any complications arising as a result of having multiple adults working with a single student? What are the issues in managing IEP requirements for test modifications? What is the process to admit, review, or dismiss a student from special education?

5. **Dealing with 504 Plans:** Students are to identify a minimum of 4 issues that building principals also have in assuring that 504 plans for students are in place and being implemented properly in their schools. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act specifies that students with a "physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities" must be provided with a 504 plan to assist them in participating in elementary, secondary and post-secondary schooling. Potential questions include: How are the principals you interviewed managing 504 plans? What kinds of help or assistance do they have? What are the major difficulties or issues encountered? What has been the faculty response to providing 504 accommodations? Have parents been cooperative…combative? How are 504 plans developed? Who is involved? What is the range of services currently being provided to students?

6. **Managing Effective Communications**: Students are to identify a minimum of 4 groups with whom a building principal regularly communicates. (i.e. faculty, parents, etc.) Potential questions include: What mechanisms do principals use in communicating with these groups? How frequent does the principal communicate with them? What role does the principal have in communicating with a union representative? How does the principal deal with emergency communications? What role does technology play in communications today? How does the principal decide which form of communication to use in dealing with various issues? (i.e. When to use an e-mail? a brief note? a personal conversation? a formal letter? a memo? etc.)

7. **Dealing with Legal Issues**: Students are asked to gather information on the range of legal issues that today's principals deal with at the building level. Potential questions include: What are the major legal issues that a principal deals with during the year? Does the principal communicate with the central office on legal issues? How often does the principal solicit outside advice on legal issues? Where does the principal get advice on legal issues? What are the differences between policy and procedure? What responsibilities do administrators have for on campus behavior v off campus behavior? Do principals generally have direct access to the school's attorney? Do they need permission from central office prior to speaking with the school attorney?

8. **Maintaining Safe School Facilities**: Students are asked to solicit information from building principals regarding how they work to maintain a safe school facility. Potential questions include: What role do principals play in identifying facility safety needs? (i.e. need to replace broken windows, doors, locks, drinking fountains, bathrooms, ceiling or floor tile, etc. or need to replace worn carpets, black/white

boards, chairs, desks, etc.) What role does the principal play in addressing other safety needs like better lighting, preventive maintenance, vehicle traffic issues, etc.? Do they have a building safety committee? Who serves on a building safety committee? What is the principal's role with this committee? How are these issues addressed financially? Who else is involved in maintaining safe school facilities?

9. **Planning and Implementing a Building Budget**: Students are asked to gather information from a variety of building principals regarding their role in planning and implementing their building budget. Potential questions include: What role do principals play in influencing their overall budget allocation or funding level? How much say do they have over the purchase of equipment, supplies and other materials? When are materials ordered? How are purchases managed during the year (process)? What does the principal do to monitor the remaining available funds? How are priorities established? Who is involved in developing the building budget? What role does the faculty have in establishing priorities? What role does the support staff have?

10. **Managing After-School Programs**: Students are asked to identify the range of after-school activities that exist in today's elementary, middle, and high schools. Potential questions include: What kinds of programs exist? Who sets the schedule? How is transportation managed? How are the programs financed? Are there contract issues involved and if so how are they handled? What are the issues involved in supervising school dances? (i.e. students wanting to leave early, students under the influence of alcohol or drugs, etc.) What are the issues involved in dealing with evening sports events? (i.e. spectator behavior, spectator or student under the influence, etc.) What role, if any, does the board of education or board policy play?

11. **Providing Adequate Student Supervision:** Students are asked to research the issue of student supervision and identify times and locations during the school day that create challenges in providing adequate supervision for students. Potential questions include: Where are the challenges in maintaining adequate student supervision throughout the day? Are their contractual issues that limit faculty and staff assignments to non-instructional duties? What are some of the alternatives that schools have developed to assist in maintaining adequate supervision? Are there aspects of the school experience that require increased or focused student supervision? (i.e. arrival and dismissal? after-school programming? field trips? special events? emergency drills? use of facilities by outside groups? etc.)

12. **Working Effectively with Parent Groups, PTA/PTO:** Students are asked to identify the major issues in working effectively with parent groups. Potential questions include: What issues contribute to a positive collaborative relationship? What strategies have been effective in promoting collaboration, open and effective communication and the adoption of common goals? Are there district policies or procedures that define or affect the relationships between school and such organizations? (Building use, access to information, use of school equipment, funding of school projects, events or resources, etc. How do principals manage the "overly involved" parent? What actions can a principal take to increase (or decrease) PTA/PTO involvement in the school's program?

What kinds of involvement do the principal/faculty want regarding PTA/PTO involvement? What role, if any, does the administration have for reviewing booster club/PTO finances?

13. **Managing Issues of Access to Students and Student Records:** Principals often receive requests for access to students and student records from a variety of sources including police officials, the press, parents, step-parents, separated and divorced parents, grandparents, other school districts, etc. The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), also known as the Buckley Amendment, provides principals with guidance on what is acceptable and unacceptable when it comes to making records available to others without appropriate permission. Additionally, FERPA provides guidelines on how a parent can seek to have an inaccurate or misleading record corrected through both a formal or informal hearing. Students are asked to research this topic. Potential questions include: What are some of the difficulties principals have experienced? How have those difficulties been resolved? What advice would an experienced principal provide to a new principal about this topic? What is a school district required to do on an annual basis to inform parents about their FERPA rights? What responsibility does the principal have to ensure staff follows FERPA guidelines? What is directory information? What information can be shared if a student dies (is arrested, etc.) and the press is seeking information? What can a parent do if they don't wish any information about their student released to anyone?

14. **Time Management:** Students are asked to identify the major challenges to managing time effectively. Potential questions include: What are the issues that create inordinate demands on a building principal's time? What are some of the strategies that can be effectively used to manage time effectively? In what ways can communication, office organization, delegation of duties, calendar management and other procedures assist a school administrator in responding effectively to these challenges? What are some of the remedies that principals have developed to balance their competing needs to be available, visible, accessible to parents, students, faculty, central office, etc.?

15. **Scheduling & Implementing Faculty Classroom Observations/Evaluations**: Students are asked to identify the various ways school principals manage the scheduling and implementing their responsibilities for observing and evaluating members of the professional staff. Potential questions include: What are some of the requirements in various school districts for conducting classroom observations? How many observations are required of probationary teachers? Tenured teachers? Long-term substitute teachers? Part time teachers, etc? Do some teachers have options as to the type of observation or evaluation/assessment process? Who is involved in conducting formal classroom evaluations? How many observations do building administrators typically deal with each year? What criteria do principals consider among the most important in their decision-making, etc? What, if any, contract limitations exist in the districts where principals were interviewed?

16. **Planning for and Making Open House and Parent-Teacher Conferences Meaningful:** Every year, school districts throughout the country plan for both open

house and parent-teacher conference activities. The sheer number of these activities is overwhelmingly significant and demonstrates the "importance" focused on them. What actual planning, however, actually goes into preparing the faculty for this "significant and important" activity? Students are asked to research both these topics and prepare a brief handbook of "best practices" activities for new principals on how best to prepare teachers and the building for an Open House. Potential questions include: What are the objectives for Open House and for parent-teacher conferences? Are they clear to both teachers and parents?) What kinds of preparations are required? Are there activities that have proven to be successful, etc? Do principals work in conjunction with their PTA or PTO in planning for open house? Additionally, what kinds of in-service training are offered to faculty (new and experienced) with regard to parent-teacher conference activities? What kind of time is made available for teachers to prepare? Are materials made available to parents ahead of time? Is the conference in addition to or a substitute for a periodic report card? What formats are available for teachers to follow? Are these prescribed? or are options recommended. Are students ever involved?

17. **Managing and Dealing with Transportation Issues, Problems, and Challenges:** Many building principals and assistant principals are confronted with a variety of transportation issues. The challenges range from student misbehavior on the bus or at the bus stop, to after school activity busses arriving late, to unrealistic bus driver expectations, etc. At times it seems that the yellow busses dictate the entire schedule for most school districts making it difficult for the principal to be able to make recommendations for needed program changes requiring transportation flexibility. Students are asked to research this topic to identify the variety of transportation issues and to then present the issues and possible recommendations for managing them. Potential questions include: What role does the principal/assistant principal play in dealing with transportation problems? What role does the principal have in dealing with inappropriate student behavior or unrealistic bus driver expectations? What kind of interaction does the principal have with the Transportation Supervisor? How do the two individuals work together to resolve difficulties? If there is no interaction between the principal and transportation supervisor, how are transportation issues managed?

18. **Response to Intervention (RtI):** Response to intervention is an increasingly mandated method of academic intervention in schools that building principals are required to deal with. RtI seeks to identify general education students who are experiencing difficulty in both academic and behavioral areas and to provide them with focused interventions and instruction to assist them. The goal is to prevent these struggling students from developing gaps in their instructional and behavioral background that become overwhelming. The task in this assignment is to research RtI and prepare a presentation for the class. (It is suggested that you contact potential principals to assure yourself they have some prior awareness of RtI prior to meeting with them.) Potential questions include: What characteristics might help a teacher identify a student eligible for RtI? What are some of the appropriate RtI strategies that schools may utilize? What kinds or types of assessments are recommended or required? What involvement do parents have in this process? Who is required to monitor student success or lack

thereof? What specific requirements (if any) are placed on the school or the teachers? What is the time commitment for the administrator, the RtI committee, and teachers? How is scheduling affected by RtI and the required interventions? How is the master schedule adjusted to accommodate RtI?

19. **Project SAVE (Safe Schools Against Violence in Education):** Every school district in New York State is required by the Regulations of the Commissioner 155.17 to develop a District Wide School Safety Plan. These plans also include a number of responsibilities for building principals to manage the safety of students and adults when a variety of issues arise. Procedures for managing lock downs, early dismissal, bomb threats, etc. are required to be in place, and in some cases, practiced on an annual or bi-annual basis. Potential questions include: What kinds of safety plans are in place in your building? Are there plans for every building in the district? How was your safety plan developed? Were parents involved? Police? Faculty? Support Staff? Others? What types of contingencies have been considered? Do you conduct any drills for certain types of incidents? What kind of staff development was conducted when the plan was completed? Is there an annual review for returning staff? Is the safety plan reviewed with all newly hired employees?

20. **Implementing and Managing the Annual Professional Performance Review Requirement (The APPR):** In accordance with the Regulations of the Commissioner of Education 100.2(o), all school districts "…shall adopt a plan… for the annual professional performance review of its teachers providing instructional services or pupil personnel services…" Criteria for evaluation of teachers shall include instructional delivery, classroom management, student development, student assessment, collaboration, and reflective and responsive practice. Building principals have a major responsibility to implement the APPR. Students are asked to review APPR plans from at least 3 different districts and prepare a presentation of "best practice" for class review. Potential questions include: How is this responsibility managed? Does every teacher have an APPR review every year? Do they all occur at the end of the year? How are school districts adapting to the new APPR requirements currently being implemented in New York State? How many classroom observations are additionally required in the district's surveyed?

Closing

It is clear that school building principals have a significant role to play in managing and leading our schools in the future. Whether these two concepts are completely separate or simply two sides of the same coin, one thing is perfectly clear: school building principals must engage in both management and leadership activities.

Change is inevitable. And given the technology changes occurring in today's world, leaders and managers will need to make decisions to keep moving forward at an ever increasing pace. As Will Rogers said, "It isn't enough to be on the right track. If you aren't moving you can still get hit by a train" (Bennis & Nanus, 2007).

Appendix A

Standard 1: An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.

Functions:

A. Collaboratively develop and implement a shared vision and mission
B. Collect and use data to identify goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and promote organizational learning
C. Create and implement plans to achieve goals
D. Promote continuous and sustainable improvement
E. Monitor and evaluate progress and revise plans

Standard 2: An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

Functions:

A. Nurture and sustain a culture of collaboration, trust, learning and high expectations
B. Create a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular program
C. Create a personalized and motivating learning environment for students
D. Supervise instruction
E. Develop assessment and accountability systems to monitor student progress
F. Develop the instructional and leadership capacity of staff
G. Maximize time spent on quality instruction
H. Promote the use of the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning
I. Monitor and evaluate the impact of the instructional program

Standard 3: An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Functions:

A. Monitor and evaluate the management and operational systems
B. Obtain, allocate, align, and efficiently utilize human, fiscal, and technological resources
C. Promote and protect the welfare and safety of students and staff
D. Develop the capacity for distributed leadership
E. Ensure teacher and organizational time is focused to support quality instruction and student learning

Standard 4: An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

Functions:

A. Collect and analyze data and information pertinent to the educational environment
B. Promote understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources
C. Build and sustain positive relationships with families and caregivers
D. Build and sustain productive relationships with community partners

Standard 5: An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

Functions:

A. Ensure a system of accountability for every student's academic and social success
B. Model principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior
C. Safeguard the values of democracy, equity, and diversity
D. Consider and evaluate the potential moral and legal consequences of decision-making
E. Promote social justice and ensure that individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling

Standard 6: An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Functions:

A. Advocate for children, families, and caregivers
B. Act to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning
C. Assess, analyze, and anticipate emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt leadership strategies

(Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008)

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Hiring At Risk: Time to Ensure Hiring Really Is the Most Important Thing We Do

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This article focuses on the necessity of providing foundational preparatory training for those who are charged with leading teacher hiring efforts at the K-12 level. The essential question proposed within the article is: Why are the very educators tasked with directly leading K-12 staff selection and retention efforts far more likely to be schooled in how to avoid liability and how to dismiss employees, than receive formal and meaningful preparatory, let alone ongoing, training on the most important act of hiring the highest quality employees in the first place? Though there was a paucity of information on the practice of hiring early on, the professional literature has long acknowledged the importance of teacher selection for both instructional and organizational success, and has recently focused more on the act of hiring itself. Increased focus on this topic reveals very little attention directed toward training, though it demonstrates a need for greater consistency that would be fostered by training administrators at the graduate level, and continuing to address this topic by means of ongoing professional development throughout their careers. Increased scholarship on this topic both domestically and internationally supports the need for training, and provides valuable knowledge and resources that would benefit all K-12 administrators who play any role in this most important area.

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Introduction

Hiring new teaching staff is repeatedly said to be the most important thing any K-12 school administrator does. As this statement is widely touted in American educational circles, and even supported by research (Fitzgerald, 2009; Hindman & Strong, 2009; Winter, 1995), few probably question it, let alone contemplate why this might not be accepted as *the truth* based on what is known about actual practice. Realistically, to actually pose such a question would be about as improbable as starting a conversation focused on what educators have been doing lately to improve the consistency and quality of selection efforts in this *most important* area. Fifteen years ago, underlying questions like these prompted a study examining potential barriers to beneficial refinements and establishing new priorities in K-12 hiring practices within Midwest America. That the barriers discovered fifteen years ago continue to exist, and the needs have only grown in scope and magnitude, suggests that this is a topic worthy of the fervent attention of all who are serious about truly doing what it takes to improve schools, regardless of whether the setting being considered is domestic or international.

The Nation at Risk Era

Fifteen years ago, the professional literature in the United States indicated hiring was important because of widely anticipated teacher shortages, and due to a general need to meet established teacher licensing expectations (Hughes, 2000). Multiple sources (DuFour, 1997; Fullan, 1997; Sears, Marshall & Otis-Wilborn, 1994) also pointed to the importance of hiring as they identified the potential impact careful selection could have on improving an educational system resulting from the significant contributions teachers were making in the area of school improvement. Despite some emerging awareness connecting hiring with potential school improvement efforts, Hughes (2000) found little if any evidence to suggest hiring practices were being reviewed or systemically updated at all, let alone starting to focus on identifying *change friendly* teaching candidates. In addition, the most glaring concern that appeared and continues to this very day is the lack of consistent and preparatory training for professionals who will be responsible for critical teacher hiring decisions.

Of eight potential barriers that were examined for their limiting impact on improved hiring efforts (Hughes, 2000), what stood out the most was an over emphasis on traditional selection methods, and what could be termed an *overwhelming* lack of training for hiring teams, particularly for those responsible for leading them. Whereas updating selection practices and providing training is an expectation in many professions, educators were found to be far too comfortable with doing things the way they had always been done. Most practices originated and have not been updated since a time long ago when expectations placed on schools and the professionals within them were very different. A lot has changed even during the past fifteen years. Most all of the challenges facing K-12 education have only intensified exponentially since the days when *A Nation At Risk*, coming from President Reagan's National Commission on Excellence in Education, was the overwhelming concern and was driving efforts to improve American schools from the mid 1980s to the turn of the century. Still, sadly it appears that educators continue to be too comfortable doing things the way they have always been done, though some of these continued practices may result in their spending a considerable amount of time, effort and money rectifying decisions they have put into play.

The Great Recession

Fast-forwarding fifteen years, to today, concerns about replacing baby-boom generation teaching staff continue (Heidenreich, 2008), and The National Center for Education Statistics forecasted an inability to replace roughly half of the anticipated 2 million new teachers needed by the year 2010 (Satin, 2005). O'Donovan (2011) and later Gardener (2012) acknowledged there is a known shortage, but point to the greater needs in the areas of math, science and special education, while also noting that inner-city and rural locations typically have ongoing difficulties recruiting and retaining for the majority of their open positions. To complicate matters and only heighten demand in many areas, and likely broaden this issue beyond America's shores, the recent international financial downturn has resulted in layoffs and additional uncertainties that often see teachers choosing not to return to education because of general dissatisfaction with the profession and diminishing financial support for teaching resources and competitive salaries (O' Donovan, 2011).

With increasing financial and accountability stresses, and decreasing public regard for the profession in America, Gardner (2012) questioned why anyone would seek to enter a career path that is now regularly being vilified where it once was celebrated. For reasons like these, it is reported by Darling-Hammond and Beery (2006) and Gardner (2012) that one in three teachers is likely to leave the profession in the next five years. While higher education has been able to keep up with peaks in demand in the past, universities too, have been impacted by the unstable economy, and according to O'Donovan (2011) may not be able to meet the National Center for Education Statistics continuing projected needs for peak student enrollments at least through 2018. With all of this anticipated and ongoing activity involving bringing in new teaching staff, there is ample discussion about teacher training and recruiting as well as induction and retention efforts. While there is some increased attention in terms of hiring practices, there is little indication of any priority when it comes to providing any meaningful foundational preparatory training to those who are making the *most important* decisions administrators make.

The NCLB Era

In January of 2002, President Bush signed the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 into law. This update of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act from 1965 sought to significantly raise expectations in areas including core academic content, accountability, funding and teacher qualifications for American schools (Ellis, 2007). Many agree No Child Left Behind succeeded in articulating numerous concerns within the United States, including those surrounding perceived deficits in teacher quality. Further, it received acclaim for doing so in a way that helped reduce overreliance on emergency certifications, and put new heat on efforts to raise training standards, along with efforts toward recruiting and retaining highly qualified teachers (Darling-Hammond & Beery, 2006). Enthusiastically noting that such significant needs and resulting positive steps to raise teacher standards will necessitate an intense long-term national effort, these same authors and Kingston (2007) also pointed critically to the ways in which the US Department of Education has given states both the authority and sadly even the encouragement create alternate paths to teacher certification. Disturbingly, these very exceptions could ultimately help eliminate the very training requirements NCLB identified as being in such critical need of strengthening and improvement. When Gardner (2012) observed "It can take schools as many as 11 hires to find just one irreplaceable teacher" (p.1), he was referring to a

process that was looking at highly trained and fully qualified teachers. Ironically, with all the acclaim directed toward NCLB's addressing teacher quality, administrators will likely have to adjust those numbers upward, the more states move toward a system wherein multiple-choice tests with almost no attention to teaching skills are used to *qualify* nontraditional candidates for crucial positions (Darling-Hammond & Beery, 2006).

The National Challenge

Due to widely anticipated long-term funding deficits, increased mandates, a diminishing level of professional respect, changing demographics and working conditions, in addition to a profession facing ongoing changes in instructional technology and delivery around the world, there is little reason to expect an end to the disturbing national flight of both new and veteran teachers any time soon. This exodus and questions over who will attempt to successfully fill these important shoes is particularly concerning to many. As Kingston (2007) commented, the National Association of Secondary School Principals' objected to the minimizing of highly qualified teacher standards, and political moves that ran counter to doing everything possible to ensure all students had truly qualified teachers. Facing this trend, and the daunting prospect of having an increasingly untrained yet somehow 'highly qualified' classified pool of candidates to select from, will undoubtedly present the national educational systems with yet another dire challenge, as schools attempt to keep up with the rest of the world and find the remaining best and brightest to fill their classrooms and help to shape the cultures of our schools.

Though circumstances may seem even direr than they did fifteen years ago, there was sufficient reason even then to initiate efforts aimed at improving the methods and prioritization of qualities used for selecting teachers, and to involve administrators in training on these concepts early in their professional development. Hughes (2000) found there was little interest in addressing this challenge in Mid-America, and likely was just as little interest or capacity within administrator training programs to even invest in preparing school leaders to do a better job in this widely held *most important* area. Fast-forwarding back to today, it seems likely NCLB's broadly celebrated and highly publicized call for increased teacher quality, and the actual sadly ironic resulting abandonment of investment in that very same level of quality, not only stands to set the United States behind international counterparts, but also seems to demand that teacher selection processes and priorities finally receive some long-deserved attention at the initial training level.

Increased Scholarly Attention on Hiring

During the days of A Nation At Risk, there appeared to be a paucity of professional educational literature on the topic of teacher selection practices, as Hughes (2000) observed that much of the information being drawn upon had to come from the professional fields of business management and organizational psychology. In recent years, Hindman and Strong (2009) acknowledged an alarming lack of investigation into hiring practices, and Clement, Kistner and Moran (2005) pointed to the irony of a profession so heavily tied to assessment neglecting to use effective and appropriate assessment practices in teacher selection efforts. Still, there appears to be reason for optimism, at least in comparison to the paucity of the past. Today, there is more attention being devoted to this topic, within the profession; and the focus of the research and the literature appears to be gaining momentum in terms of diversity as well. Clement (2009) has written

widely on hiring practices, ranging from the use of structured interviewing approaches, to the emerging role technology is playing (Clement, 2006). There are growing numbers of dissertations focusing on this topic, and emerging awareness within the literature as a whole that teachers make a vital impact on the success of their educational organization (Alger, 2012; Heidenreich, 2008; Hindman & Strong, 2009). Recognizing the strong connection to school improvement efforts that Hughes (2000) drew attention to, Reeves (2007) has gotten involved with the topic of hiring high quality teachers as part of his overall school improvement practice. In identifying three potentially innovative strategies utilizing classroom observation, questions about data analysis and analysis of student work in an interview, Reeves not only contributes to the research, but speaks more so to the even greater value in continuing the effort to promote improved practice in this highly important process.

Growing Insights Into Hiring

With attention to hiring practices already starting to gain important momentum, despite its continued generally perceived lack of importance, there would be every reason to expect significant continued growth were the topic to finally receive the foundational training emphasis it deserves. Added insight and early training would certainly appear to be important based on what the current research is saying. According to Lyng (2009) principals admitted to being largely self-taught or trained by a mentor, and described hiring practices that were heavily influenced by political and individual preferences. Clement (2009) concurred with these findings, and described individually developed interview styles that can actually be based on how administrators were originally hired years earlier. Sclair (2000) examined the perceptions of personnel administrators and principals, and found no significant difference between them, which would seem to suggest that regardless of whomever is viewed as really being responsible for hiring, there is considerable and unquestionable need for professional growth. Despite an increase in available literature on improved practices, Popwell (2009) observed 9 out of 10 research participants admittedly did not have the type of structured process recommended by research.

While the literature going back even fifteen years, including Hughes (2000), suggests that careful hiring provides a critical opportunity to improve the organization, Lyng (2009) indicated the troubling finding that *such opportunity* is apparently lost on the people making the decisions, as they tend to be satisfied with the status quo, and even look to match hires with, and essentially maintain their current culture when they decide on staff. Based, it would seem, on a lack of preparatory training, and a tendency to work in isolation, Lyng (2009) went on to present a strong argument that these educational leaders don't even seem to realize the shortcomings of their actions. With no one setting a professional standard to work towards, or professional training to draw upon, administrators are often left to their own devices, or at best can infrequently draw on largely for-profit training, assuming they are even so inclined and it is available to them. Based on what the current literature is revealing, it would certainly seem to be time to make sure every school across the nation is prepared to handle this *most important* responsibility of hiring top quality candidates, just as they respond to other critical aspects of their mission and overall operation.

Undeniable Need For Increased Expertise

Acknowledging that little has changed in terms of the perceived importance of hiring, and supporting these efforts with preparatory training, it may help to consider a few *bottom lines* that have been brought forward in the literature. According to Clement (2009) poor hiring practices can affect student learning, school or district success, and can actually damage a school's culture. Heidenreich (2008) cited anticipated turnover when advocating those involved in the function of selecting teachers to develop a more strategic understanding of their craft. In addressing Nebraska's glaring deficits in teacher preparedness, Alger (2012) made it abundantly clear that the staff makes the difference in an excellent system, and was critical of the approach American schools took to bringing high quality teachers, particularly in comparison to approaches taken in other countries. Fitzgerald (2008) found that schools with ample pools of candidates to draw upon may have an advantage and a bit of a cushion, but went on to predict that an overall lack of structure and hiring inconsistencies could be expected to create problems that ultimately will take time away from other vital functions.

This potential drain on school resources was echoed by Hindman and Strong (2009), who offered that positive selection practices, can be expected, instead, to result in added capacity that might otherwise be lacking in a faculty. Fitzgerald (2008) put it well by noting hiring has the potential to positively and relatively quickly impact student achievement, employee satisfaction and overall organizational success. As if the local organizational argument doesn't say it effectively enough, Alger (2012) presented a variety of statistics in a more business-like manner when suggesting a $41 trillion gain in the U.S. Gross Domestic Product could be realized in coming years by improving practices, at least to a point where at least two percent of the ineffective teachers were replaced. Adding to that *economic argument*, she went on to report findings, supported by Schleichner (2011) that the overall costs of hiring and retaining ineffective teachers, and how they perpetuate achievement gaps, creates an economic drain that amounts to being a "permanent national recession" (p.4). As Hindman and Strong (2009) concluded, there is far too much at stake not to make a far greater effort to train administrators in more updated and more effective teacher selection methods.

The Call For Preparatory Training

Increasingly, a glaring argument can be made to support the need for training future administrators to hire top quality staff members. Both reason and research coming from investigators like Fitzgerald (2008) are starting to call directly for course work on teacher selection at the preparatory level for administrators support it. That said, the only question that really remains is: What is it going to take to realize the tremendous opportunity to make a difference in the quality of American schools, or even those elsewhere, by teaching administrators how to hire at the time when they are learning the rest of their craft? NCLB placed a lot of new expectations on schools, and directly upon administrators, including new professional evaluation criteria. The demands and the stakes are only increasing, and would seem to dictate that schools hire and retain only the best candidates. Still, it doesn't appear as though any required coursework on hiring was included in the mix of recent national legislation and resulting reform. Realistically, a change like this probably wouldn't be as effective as desired if it were merely legislated by bodies outside of the profession. Nor would such legislation likely be positively embraced anyhow. Instead, it would appear that much of the

impetus and support for change like this needs to come from and enjoy support from within the profession in order to have a chance at succeeding and contributing as it needs to student learning outcomes.

ISLLC 2008/2011

Recognizing the need to improve general practice from within the profession, the Council of Chief State School Officers, a cohort of Department of Education leaders from individual states, embarked on an effort to collaboratively articulate and promote professional standards and target objectives that could help spur and support improved preparation and professional practice for prospective school leaders. The end result of that effort was the creation of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and a set of national standards in the mid 1990s. This first set of national standards for American educational leaders was almost immediately embraced by professional leadership organizations in 24 states by 1996, and was ratified by and additional 22 states for a total of 46 states by 2005 (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2013). As the council continues to revise and improve their efforts, it researched and updated its Educational Leadership Policy Standards in the publication of ISLLC 2008, and revised them again as recently as 2011.

Moving from general need to establishing the more specific focus of the ISLLC, the Council of Chief State School Officers (2008) addressed increasing domestic challenges, and detailed the very important work of instructional leaders, including the very responsibility of *hiring teachers*. Though it is encouraging to see the acknowledgement of hiring decisions in the body of this statement that describes the critical work of building level administrators, it would certainly have meant much more to actually see the same wording directly embedded in the 2008 Standards as well. As the CCSSO document appropriately identifies, ISLLC standards help set the expectations for licensure and administrator preparation programs at colleges and universities. While the specific *hiring* terminology doesn't seem to appear in the wording of the standards, there are a two standards and functions within the revised document and shown in Figure 1, that appear to be worth examining.

ISLLC 2008 Standard 2
Developing a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth…

F. Develop the instructional and leadership capacity of staff.

ISLLC 2008 Standard 3
Ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment…

B. Obtain, allocate, align, and efficiently utilize human, fiscal, and technological resources.

Figure 1. Relevant Elements to Standards 2 and 3

Though in theory hiring could potentially be contained within either or both of these standards and function statements, and acknowledging that the ISLLC with the support of the

CCSSO went to great lengths not to be too prescriptive in this most recent revision where it might have been more specific (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008), it is difficult to conceptualize how this current wording would directly lead to the improvements education legitimately needs in this area of selecting stellar classroom leaders and educators. Though hiring is mentioned repeatedly in recent literature, even within the very titles of important documents like the Platte Institute Policy Study completed by Alger (2012), an attentive reader tends to realize that the process or act of *hiring* itself is not even a point that is directly addressed in a majority of these documents.

Tempting, as it may be, to poll the architects of ISLLC 2008 to learn of their disposition toward the importance of hiring, it wouldn't change anything at this point, and there is already feedback from Spanneut, Tobin and Ayers (2012) illustrating how the updated ILLSC 2008/2011 priorities are being taken in the field. In their study to support the very important work of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Spanneut, Tobin and Ayers (2012) surveyed administrative professionals at all three elementary, middle and secondary building levels to identify the actual ISLLC 2008 priorities of professionals in the field. Of the three groups, only the secondary level administrators included a priority that might even remotely be considered to be close to addressing hiring practices. They did so by ranking Standard 2, Function number 11, which focuses non-specifically on developing the instructional and leadership capacity of staff, as the number nine and final item in their list of most important priorities in the field. Results like these would agree with the literature to suggest that while there is growing demonstrated need for and literature that supports training to hire teachers, it apparently is not a high enough priority in the field of American education any more than it is within training programs across the nation.

International Ramifications

To this point, it has been difficult to garner necessary and sufficient attention for this area of need and opportunity within the local, state or national arenas as they are already so preoccupied with barriers identified by Hughes (2000) and different priorities intended to help turn around the American Educational system, and restore it to its former level of international acclaim. As Schleicher (2011) points out, the international leadership role the United States played following the conclusion of World War II continues to erode, and the new standard of comparison for highest performing systems and best practices is now considered to be found in the international arena. As Schleicher (2011) went on to relate, educators in the United States and those responsible for the future of the very institution itself need to be cognizant of the achievement gap that is already growing between the United States and some of the genuinely high performing nations of the world. As that gap continues or even increases, it is expected to result in economic losses greater than the overall financial drop-offs experienced during the recent Great Recession. As a result of it's own tendencies, a nation that was once used to leading the way will have to catch up, continue to learn to truly innovate again, and play catch up to have any hope of keeping the high paying jobs that historically formed the core of the nation's middle class.

Learning From The Best Of The Rest

Admittedly, it is an American tendency to look for the quick fix that addresses the immediately

troubling symptoms, instead of looking for and investing in the deeper long-term systemic solution. In building on this point, and making an argument for expanding the focus of best practices to include international efforts, Stewart (2013) shares how consistently preparation efforts for building level leaders have been questioned, scrutinized and deemed as being ineffective in the long standing literature on the topic. As Vice President for the *Asia Society*, an educational organization devoted to building stronger connections and partnerships between the United States and other global leaders, particularly those in Asia, Vivian Stewart and others like her are leading the way in efforts to broaden the focus of school improvement to include contributions from international successes. Noting the critical impact the nation's educational system makes on the economy, Kagan and Stewart (2004) along with Stewart (2013) and Zacharious, Kadji-Beltran and Manoli (2013) establish cause for expanding the search for solutions to the concerns that are troubling American schools. Instead of viewing international efforts as a threat or even as being unimportant, educational leaders need to take a cue from the Council of Chief State State School Officers who's representatives collaborated with representatives from the ASIA Society (Kagan and Stewart, 2011) to call for increased partnership aimed at identifying and utilizing best practices in an effort to improve education around the world.

Summary And Recommendations

There is an abundance of literature as noted in this paper, and very visible daily evidence that documents the ongoing struggle of American schools to meet the expanding expectations placed upon them by the growing needs of their students and the communities they serve. Though mandates like NCLB may be unique to America, many of the concerns that challenge American schools are not so unique to learning institutions around the world. Though some may consider it merely to be a quaint expression, there is support both in the literature and within practice to validate the statement that *hiring teachers truly is the most important thing administrators do*. This is because of the irreplaceable role teachers hold within the very school systems they serve; and the statement is only gaining in validity due to increasing concerns about potential shortages, and trends where teachers across the nation are rapidly leaving the profession.

There is also growing insight within the profession concerning best practices in hiring that is finally coming from within the profession. Along with a focus on selection practices, the literature is clearly showing that American building level school administrators regularly lack the requisite background and training in hiring practices to even be able to appreciate the need for, or the availability of improved teacher selection strategies and approaches. Sadly, as is supported in commentary by Hindman and Strong (2009), the current *in the field* focus for training administrators continues to largely ignore best practices for improved teacher selection, and instead largely focuses on imparting practitioners with increasing apprehension over the possibility of being sued. The *play it safe mentality*, and legal advice that is being presented in the field, does little to encourage administrators to try or do anything differently than was done before, which only strengthens the need for early training and research supporting it. Unfortunately, as a result of this focus, the orientation on *what not to do* continues to take clear precedence over even considering that there could be, and actually already is a better way to do things.

With the demonstrated need to improve the entry-level knowledge of administrators, and the growing availability of resources to help shape the effective preparation of administration

candidates to not only do a better job from the very start, but also contribute to the understanding of future best practices, it is time to go beyond the initial phases of research, to expand the focus, and to include international efforts and successes as well. It is not only clearly time, but it is imperative and it is critically recommended that those who have any opportunity to lead the way in initiating a change in the continued failure to address this need immediately begin to remedy the situation. Specifically, it is recommended that:

- Future updates of ISLLC 2008/2011 and leading work done both domestically and internationally continue to promote the idea, understanding and adoption of distributed leadership practices as these so clearly link with the critical school improvement concepts and opportunities detailed in this paper.
- More specifically, all above mentioned parties need to move beyond celebrating the singular image of a leader, and encourage increased awareness and practice where *leadership is* transformational and engages teachers and other team members in sustainable collaborative and shared leadership of the organization.
- Anyone invested in sustainable school improvement, particularly in American schools, needs to focus beyond *reactionary quick fixes* that are aimed at appeasing legislative mandate manufacturers. They need instead to focus at least as much on and promote a continuous improvement mentality that best capitalizes on distributed leadership efforts and is more consistent with recommendations from international sources such as Bush (2012) who identify and support the need for initial preparation and ongoing leadership development throughout the career of an administrator.
- Researchers, associations like CCSSO, and training institutions alike must make greater note of the efforts now starting to take place in larger urban school districts that are taking responsibility for training their administrators on the very topic discussed here, because training to this point has widely been found to be entirely lacking.
- Training programs that specialize in preparing educational leaders, and provide courses in personnel and staff supervision, have every reason and the clear responsibility to lead the way in developing initial and ongoing professional development in this critical area. If they do not step up and do so, with today's changing marketplace, they need to realize someone else will.
- Specifically it is recommended that these institutions first review their instructional rubrics in personnel, supervision and in capstone courses. If their programs do not offer any instruction beyond common topics like payroll responsibilities, or the increased emphasis on mandated supervisory practices that are being dictated by accountability efforts, they need to update their offerings to begin to include specific instruction on the topic of hiring practices. Further, they would do well to encourage scholarship and research in this area as well, so that they might increase their own capacity and chances for success, and further contribute to the overall success of the profession.
- Finally, future updates of ISLLC 2008/2011, and leading work done both domestically and internationally need, to directly call into question why schools do not have the capacity to do a better job in the area of hiring, and either establish or help to establish standards that ultimately and directly address this shortcoming at preparatory levels and continuing development areas.

Conclusion

Education in the United States, and for that matter around the world, is facing challenges that have never been faced before. These challenges are not going to go away, but can only be expected to increase in significance and complexity, and present themselves even more rapidly than has ever previously been experienced or likely even imagined. It is time to accept that *ready or not*, the very field of education is changing by leaps and bounds, and calls for more modern and adaptive leadership models like distributed leadership. In addition to demanding practices that are better able to capitalize on the critical contributions of the teachers and others who really make schools successful, much more needs to be done to support the success of these efforts.

If educational leaders are truly going to have the best teams to work with, then improvements in teacher training and genuine efforts to provide incentives, induction and ongoing support to attract and retain the best teachers are of absolute necessity. These efforts are necessary, but not enough. For too long, hiring has been carried out in isolation, through outdated practices, with the potential improvement of practice perhaps even being written off with a catch phrase that gives lip service to supporting the very importance of hiring the best, but doesn't appear to relate in any way to actual efforts to bring this tremendous *most important* responsibility about. Talking about the importance of hiring the best needs to give way to investment in developing the skills and attitudes and training it takes to making this statement a reality in more than a few places that have stepped out on their own after realizing the necessity of these very changes.

Many of the answers on how to improve our schools, beginning with the very first step of teacher selection practices are already out there, and many more are already on the way. It is more than time to make a priority out of training educational leaders to do as good of a job with hiring as we expect them to do with anything else. It is more than time to expect and support this by establishing preparatory expectations in this area, and providing both initial and ongoing training that supports best practice and helps to spur further innovation as well. In starting this paper with one commonly heard phrase, about the importance of hiring the best, it is perhaps only fitting to conclude with the line of thought from another commonly heard expression. To continue as we have, to conduct business the way it has always been done, and to yet somehow expect different results is… beneath the dignity, the importance, the ability and international responsibility of this vital and very *sane* profession.

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Sustainable School Leadership: The Teachers' Perspective

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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Sustainable school leadership is essential to the academic growth of students and professional growth of faculty and staff. Shedding light on what constitutes sustainable leadership from the perspective of teachers will increase our understanding of how specific leadership practices and processes impact those in the learning community who are directly responsible for the academic growth of students. This study examines the importance and need for sustainable school leadership, how sustainable school leadership is perceived by teachers and what elements, according to teachers, are essential to the development of sustainable school leadership.

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Introduction

Teachers and their professional performance are directly impacted by the leadership in their respective schools. At this time of increased accountability a teacher may serve under the leadership of a number of different principals during his/her tenure. In many instances principals remain at the helm for a short time and are soon removed and replaced by school boards impatient for more rapid improvements in school outcomes.

Legislative federal mandates such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) and current literature on school quality consistently focus on the school principal as the individual who is responsible and accountable for the continuous academic growth of students. The accountability reform efforts of NCLB according to Tirozzi (2001) place the brunt of school improvement and the need to meet accreditation standards on the shoulders of the building leader – the school principal. Additionally, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory published a summary in June, 2005 that stated "principals live in challenging times and are faced with leadership preparation and professional development that may not be tuned to NCLB requirements" (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory [NREL], 2005, p.2).

High-stakes testing and the political and public pressure to improve schools across the nation has generated considerable impatience with schools and school principals who are perceived as unsatisfactory and not meeting the academic needs of students. However, sustainable school leadership can be misinterpreted or perceived as the continuation of a principal in a leadership position, rather than the continuation over time of a strong, positive school culture and the consistent implementation of rigorous, high quality instructional practices.

The responsibilities of the school principal are complex, challenging, disjointed and often incoherent. The lack of effective principal mentoring, appropriate professional development, and adequate use of human resources contributes to the challenges of leadership. Schools depend on leadership in order to shape productive futures through self-renewal (Marks and Printy, 2003). However, Shen (2001) makes the following point: "To make teachers and principals' perceptions congruent is a daunting task facing us in this new era of school leadership."

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this research study is to examine how teachers perceive the need for sustainable school leadership and what elements teachers perceive are essential to the development of sustainable school leadership. Teachers are also asked to provide information regarding their perceived role in the development of sustainable school leadership.

The research questions are:

1. What is the importance and need for sustainable school leadership?
2. How is sustainable school leadership perceived by teachers?
3. What manner can teachers contribute to the development of sustainable school leadership?

The protocol questions used in this survey were developed in part based on the standards developed by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and input from 3 school principals and several former students of the university's principal preparatory program.

Literature Review

The establishment of high-quality sustainable educational leadership is essential to the continual growth of schools beyond the leader's tenure at the school. To seek sustainable educational leadership the school principal, faculty, school board and stakeholders must be committed to the development of a school culture that develops strength and refinement with the passage of time according to Owens and Valesky (2011, p. 55). According to Glickman (2002); Stoll, Fink and Earl (2002), sustainable leadership goes beyond temporary gains in achievement scores to create lasting improvements in learning. This is consistent with Fullan (2005) who views sustainability as the capacity of a system to engage in the complexities of continuous improvement that is consistent with deep values of human purpose.

Sustainable leadership, as described by Hargreaves and Fink (2003), is a shared responsibility, which does not unduly deplete human or financial resources, and cares for and avoids exerting negative damage on the surrounding educational and community environment. Sustainable leadership has an activist engagement with the forces that affect it, and builds an educational environment of organizational diversity that promotes cross-fertilization of good ideas and successful practices in communities of shared learning and development. This statement supports the importance of developing a school culture of collaboration through shared beliefs, values and vision within the school community. It is on this culture that the foundation of sustainable leadership is developed, communicated and nurtured.

Hargreaves and Fink (2003) developed The Seven Principles of Sustainable Leadership based on the previously mentioned description of sustainable leadership: 1) sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustaining learning; 2) sustainable leadership secures success over time; 3) sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others; 4) sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice; 5) sustainable leadership develops rather than deplete human and material resources; 6) sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity; and 7) sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment.

Danielson (2002) maintains that school leadership requires the capability to develop, communicate and put in place a vision for school improvement that marshals the energies of disparate members of a staff around common goals. This statement suggests the exercise of leadership should include teachers, ancillary personnel and even the school secretary. Mendez-Morse (1991) point out that "principals have a vision – a picture of what they want students to achieve. They engage teachers, parents, students and others to share in creating the vision. They encourage them to join in the efforts to make the vision a reality. They keep the vision in the forefront" (p.2).

Leadership sustainability is not a function of whether some person or some program can last or be maintained. Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001), explain that leadership succession is more than grooming the principal's successor. It means distributing leadership throughout the school's professional community so others can carry the torch after the principal has gone. This perspective suggests the need to identify and make use of formal and informal leaders within the school organization. It invites teachers and other staff members, either individually or collectively to assume leadership roles and responsibilities. The teachers are the ones who carry the brunt of the responsibility of implementing the vision, but are often overlooked as contributing to the role of leadership.

Davies (2007b, p.2) point out that sustainable leadership builds a leadership culture based on moral purpose which provides success that is accessible to all. Maxwell (2007) provides

further credence to the legacy of succession. He indicates that leaders who leave a legacy of succession lead the organization with a long view, create a leadership culture, pay the price today to assure success tomorrow, value team leadership above individual leadership, and walk away from the organization with integrity.

Planning for succession can best be initiated by distributing leadership responsibilities and roles throughout the school community to assess specific skills and dispositions. Hall (2008) describes a succession plan as a process that identifies leadership positions and communicates how the school district prepares and develops individuals to become eligible for these positions when they are left vacant through retirements, resignations, promotions or dismissals.

Christiana, Aravella and Yiannis (2012) contend that key elements for sustainable school leaders involve placing sustainability within the heart of their school's mission, as an ethos that permeates all aspects of the school (curriculum, policies and culture) and its external partners; continuing opportunities for all staff members to develop an understanding of the principles of education for sustainable development; and reorganizing internal structures and cultivating cultural norms to develop the collective power of the whole school staff and community for learning and action on education for sustainable development.

The aforementioned statement regarding culture is echoed by Collins (2001) in his book *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap and Others Don't.* Collins makes 2 key points; 1) a culture of discipline involves a duality. On one hand, it requires people who adhere to a consistent system; yet, on the other hand, it gives people the freedom and responsibility within the framework of that system and 2) all personnel and stakeholders in the organization adhere to and strive for sustainable results consistent with the goal of the organization.

The practice of helping others to reach their full potential is at the heart of school leadership that is sustainable over time. In a school system this would indicate all school personnel share a common vision to work individually and collectively to not only accomplish the goals but contribute to the sustainability of the results. The leader who communicates and advances a widely understood school vision, fosters and facilitates a positive school culture, encourages collaboration and shared-decision-making, and promotes and encourages faculty leadership capacity is promoting leadership sustainability within the learning community.

The whole school staff as a learning community creates an environment of learning for everyone within the school with the dual intent of positively impacting the stakeholders outside of the school. Support for this statement is provided by Hargreaves and Fink (2003): "School leadership is a system, a culture. Schools are places in which principals, teachers, students and parents should all lead. To sustain high-quality leadership, school systems must apply systems thinking to all their initiatives. They must come to see leadership as a culture of integrated qualities rather than as merely as aggregate of common characteristics. This is the essence of the holistic approach to sustainable leadership."

For purposes of this study, sustainable leadership focuses on the integration of stakeholders and structure into the school culture in order to ensure continuous school improvement beyond an individual principal's tenure.

Methodology

The participants for this descriptive research study are graduates of Governors State University's Educational Administration Program. An email from this researcher was sent to 220 proposed participants. The email consisted of an Informational Letter describing the research study and a

Letter of Informed Consent for the proposed participants. Proposed participants were requested via email to access https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Z959PZP to provide demographics regarding their gender, age, grade level of school and number of years teaching. A total of 83 participants consented to participate in this study.

The participants were requested to respond anonymously to questions 1 through 10 (on a Likert Scale). Questions 11 and 12 were open-ended and constituted the remaining questions for this research study. (See all questions below)

1. The principal communicates and advances a widely understood school vision.
2. The principal provides faculty with continuous job-embedded professional development.
3. The principal leads by positive example.
4. The principal promotes and encourages leadership capacity in faculty.
5. The principal fosters and facilitates a positive school culture.
6. The principal invites and encourages collaboration and shared decision-making processes.
7. The principal promotes 2-way communication with faculty.
8. The principal practices consensus building.
9. The principal models and encourages skills and habits of self reflection.
10. The principal encourages strategic problem solving among faculty.
11. Please explain how you might improve or add to any of the leadership characteristics identified here.
12. Please describe any role(s) or activities teachers can engage in to promote sustainable school leadership.

Data Analysis

Females constituted 74.68 % of the participants for this study and males represented 25.32 %. There were 4 participants who skipped this question. (see Table 1.)

Table 1
Gender

Answer Choices	Responses	
Male	25.32%	20
Female	74.68%	59
Total Participants		79

The age distribution indicated that 1.22 % of the participants were between 21 to 25 years of age; 10.98 % were between 26 to 30 years of age; 34.15 % were between 31 to 35 years of age; 19.51 % were between 36 to 40 years of age; and 34.15 % of the participants were over the age of 40. One participant skipped this question. (see Table 2.)

Table 2
Age Distribution

Answer Choices	Responses	
21 - 25	1.22%	1
26 - 30	10.98%	9
31 - 35	34.15%	28
36 - 40	19.51%	16
Over 40	34.15%	28
Total Participants		82

The number of years participants served as teachers indicated 9.64 % had served as teachers between 2 and 5 years; 50.60 % served as teachers between 6 and 10 years; 20.48 % served as teachers between 11 and 15 years; and 19.28 % had served as teachers over 15 years. (see Table 3.)

Table 3
Number of Years as Teacher

Answer Choices	Responses	
2 - 5	9.64%	8
6 - 10	50.60%	42
11 - 15	20.48%	17
Over 15	19.28%	16
Total Participants		83

The grade level of the schools where the participants were teaching indicated 32.93 % of the participants taught at elementary schools; 26.83 % of the participants taught at middle schools; 12.20 % of the participants taught at junior high; and 39.02 % of the participants taught at the high school. One participant skipped this question. (see Table 4.)

Table 4
Grade Level of School

Answer Choices	Responses	
Elementary School	32.93%	27
Middle School	26.83%	22
Junior High	12.20%	10
High School	39.02%	32
Total Participants		82

Table 5
Survey Questions and Responses

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The principal communicates a widely understood school vision	36.49% 27	33.78% 25	12.16% 9	0%	0%
2. The principal provides faculty with continuous job-embedded professional development	31.08% 23	35.14% 26	12.16% 9	17.57% 13	4.05% 3
3. The principal leads by positive example	33.78% 25	33.78% 25	13.51% 10	16.22% 12	2.70% 2
4. The principal promotes and encourages leadership capacity in faculty	43.24% 32	29.73% 22	6.76% 5	14.86% 11	5.41% 4
5. The principal fosters and facilitates a positive school culture	40.54% 30	31.08% 23	9.46% 7	16.22% 12	2.70% 2
6. The principal invites and encourages collaboration and shared decision-making	43.84% 32	30.14% 22	9.59% 7	10.96% 8	5.48% 4
7. The principal promotes 2-way communication with faculty	39.73% 29	34.25% 25	8.22% 6	12.33% 9	5.48% 4
8. The principal practices consensus building	27.03% 20	33.78% 25	14.86% 11	21.62% 16	2.70% 2
9. The principal models and encourages skills and habits of self-reflection	26.03% 19	31.51% 23	19.18% 14	20.55% 15	2.74% 2
10. The principal encourages strategic problem solving among faculty	31.08% 23	33.78% 25	16.22% 12	16.22% 12	2.70% 2

Question # 1 – The principal communicates a widely understood school vision.

A total of 36.49 % of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 33.78 % reported a response of agree; 12.16 % reported a response of neutral; and no participant reported a response of disagree or strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 70.27 % indicating the majority of participants believe their principal communicates a widely understood school vision.

Question # 2 – The principal provides faculty with continuous job-embedded professional development.

A total of 31.08 % of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 35.14 % reported a response of agree; 12.16 % reported a response of neutral; 17.57 % reported a response of disagree; and 4.5 % reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 66 % indicating that the majority of participants believe that their principal provides faculty with continuous job-embedded professional development. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 21.62 %

of the participants do not believe their principal provides faculty with continuous job-embedded professional development.

Question # 3 – The principal leads by positive example.

A total of 33.78 % of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 33.78 % reported a response of agree; 13.51 % reported a response of neutral; 16.22 % reported a response of disagree; and 2.70 % reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 67.56 % indicating the majority of participants believe their principal leads by positive example. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 18.90 % of the participants do not believe their principal leads by positive example.

Question # 4 – The principal promotes and encourages leadership capacity in faculty.

A total of 43.24 % of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 29.73 % reported a response of agree; 6.76 % reported a response of neutral; 14.86 % reported a response of disagree; and 5.41 % reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 72.97 % indicating the majority of participants believe their principal promotes and encourages leadership capacity in faculty. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 20.27 % of the participants do not believe their principal promotes and encourages leadership capacity in faculty.

Question # 5 – The principal fosters and facilitates a positive school culture.

A total of 40.54% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 31.08% reported a response of agree; 9.46% reported a response of neutral; 16.22% reported a response of disagree; and 2.70% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 71.62% indicating the majority of participants believe their principal fosters and facilitates a positive school culture. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 18.92 % of the participants do not believe their principal fosters and facilitates a positive school culture.

Question # 6 – The principal invites and encourages collaboration and shared decision-making.

A total of 43.84% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 30.14% reported a response of agree; 9.59 % reported a response of neutral; 10.96% reported a response of disagree; and 5.48% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 73.98 % indicating the majority of participants believe their principal invites and encourages collaboration and shared decision-making. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 16.41 % of the participants do not believe their principal invites and encourages collaboration and shared decision-making.

Question # 7 – The principal promotes 2-way communication with faculty.

A total of 39.73% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 34.25% reported a response of agree; 8.22% reported a response of neutral; 12.33% reported a response of disagree; and 5.48% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 73.98 % indicating that the majority of participants believe their principal promotes 2-way communication with faculty. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 17.81 % of the participants do not believe their principal promotes 2-way communication with faculty.

Question # 8 – The principal practices consensus building.

A total of 27.03% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 33.78% reported a response of agree; 14.86 % reported a response of neutral; 21.62% reported a response of disagree; and 2.70% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 60.81 % indicating that the majority of participants believe that their principal practices consensus building. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 24.32 % of the participants do not believe that their principal practices consensus building.

Question # 9 – The principal models and encourages skills and habits of self-reflection.

A total of 26.03% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 31.51% reported a response of agree; 19.18 % reported a response of neutral; 20.55% reported a response of disagree; and 2.74% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 57.54 % indicating the majority of participants believe their principal models and encourages skills and habits of self-reflection. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 23.39 % of the participants do not believe their principal models and encourages skills and habits of self reflection.

Question # 10 – The principal encourages strategic problem solving among faculty.

A total of 31.08% of the participants reported a response of strongly agree; 33.78% reported a response of agree; 16.22 % reported a response of neutral; 16.22% reported a response of disagree; and 2.70% reported a response of strongly disagree. The aggregate responses for strongly agree and agree totaled 64.86 % indicating the majority of participants believe that their principal encourages strategic problem solving among faculty. The aggregate responses for disagree and strongly disagree indicate that 18.92 % of the participants do not believe their principal encourages strategic problem solving among faculty.

The majority of the participants believed that their respective principals engaged in the practices listed in the 10 survey questions. Less than 25 % of the participants did not believe their respective principals engaged in the practices listed in the 10 survey questions.

Questions that were skipped by the participants are as follows: 22 participants skipped Question 1; 9 participants skipped Questions 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10; and 2 participants skipped Questions 6 and 7.

Question # 11
Please explain how you might improve or add to any of the leadership characteristics identified here.

All of the participants responded to this question and many indicated the leadership characteristics of their respective school principal could be improved. The participants reported similar perceptions regarding the need for the leadership to improve the school culture, cultivate professionalism and encourage collaboration through modeling and example.

A consistent perception among the participants included the need for principals to include faculty and staff in the decision-making process and include the community by holding parent advisory meetings at the school building level. Perceptions among participants included the need for the school leadership to reflect on strengths as well as weaknesses to present a balanced logical approach to tasks, challenges and future goals.

It was echoed throughout the responses that the school principal would be well-served to put forth great efforts in establishing a shared sense of community and partnership among all stakeholders in order to remove traditional barriers and move forward as a solidified team.

Participants placed high value on the leadership quality of principals who encourage professional development and growth that result in improved student achievement.

A few selected quotes provide verbatim responses from the participants:

> I think more collaborative decision making among faculty that benefits the students is a good leadership characteristic. Although the final decision is made by administration, input from faculty and the best interest of students are discussed and should be considered. Also, I believe in developing the growth and professionalism of each faculty member. Allow faculty to attend professional development meetings and provide in-services that would benefit other teachers in the building. Furthermore, encourage a positive climate that is conducive to student learning and collaboration among faculty members. You should remain neutral and un-biased in handling conflict.

> I do believe that a great deal of a principal's leadership and their ability to convince teacher buy-in comes from the core of who they are as a person. To possess empathy, a sense of humor, a safe environment, encourage an extended "family" feeling in the building...these are qualities that are equally as important and parallel the leadership aspect. Something I think few principals have figured it out and it's the easiest concept...teachers are fairly easy to please and, in turn, can be your biggest advocate. Once your teachers are on board, there are many to carry the torch and your leadership vision is multiplied. As a result, a happy building is more successful. Hence, the answer to sustainable school leadership!

> Consistency and leadership by example is key for any organization to be successful. That leadership has to start at the very top with the school board members and central office administration leading by example. Vendettas, personal agendas, and power trips have no place in schools. Schools have to focus on what's best for the kids and hold them accountable for their actions. Training, open communication without fear of retribution and holding the top accountable is what is needed.

Additional leadership characteristics that were reported by the participants included the need for the school principal to be transparent, create an environment conducive for students and teachers, build better rapport with all of those involved within the educational process, facilitate two-way communication, discuss a shared vision of what the goals and measures of what constitutes success, and promote consensus more on issues that directly impact teachers.

Question # 12
Please describe any role(s) or activities teachers can engage in to promote sustainable school leadership.

Many of the participants reported the significance of collaborating across disciplines and departments to develop and enhance leadership skills that would be beneficial to the school community. The need to willingly participate on committees requested by the school principal was viewed as being supportive of the principal's ideas. It was also reported that teachers who speak on behalf of the school principal and the positive school climate help to promote sustainable school leadership.

A number of the participants indicated the promotion of sustainable leadership occurred when teachers created an environment in which the school represented a village, and the goal of the village was to produce citizens for our society. Consistent with this concept of the school as a village, teachers reported that being team leaders for grade levels was a small way to begin the promotion of school leadership. Participants suggested that the collaboration of all staff members (custodians, lunchroom staff, aides, etc) allowed for the sharing of ideas, discussion of issues and learning from each other. Obviously, this would help to promote the learning community.

The participants also valued the practice of providing teachers opportunities to shadow the principal to better understand the role and responsibilities of leadership and learn how teachers might play a more vital role in sustaining leadership.

It was a consistent theme among the participants that two-way communication between faculty and the principal was important to establishing transparency and a culture of mutual respect within the school community. The participants pointed out that two-way communication has an impact on promoting shared decision-making and a more cohesive environment. It was also stated by the participants that teachers who took more initiatives and thought of themselves as one with the administrators would allow the administrators to feel less overwhelmed and more reliant to depend on teachers to take the lead and make decisions.

A few selected quotes provide verbatim responses from the participants:

> Teachers have to take some initiative in order to make the administrative team successful. Too many times teachers wait in the weeds for a principal to make a mistake instead of working with him or her to improve the school. A teacher's realm is not just his or her own classroom. They are part of the bigger picture and need to have a vested interest in the entire school. In today's accountability-driven society, it is vital for principals to give their teachers the keys to car sometimes. In my experience there are always those teachers who want to take on leadership roles, so the more of those teachers a principal can give more responsibility to, the more kids will benefit and the more the culture of the school will shift to one where the principal guides the school instead of "runs" the school.

A Professional Learning Community in which shared professional development and encouragement take place in an integrated population of teachers and administrators within the district is a proven method of building partnerships and establishing sustainable leadership. Further, sustainable leadership is nurtured through community outreach, involvement, and partnership; all with the sole focus of promoting excellence in student growth and achievement.

Teachers can be team leaders for their grade level and this is a small way to start promoting school leadership. Teachers can also run and coordinate after-school programs such as student council that will not only show the leadership of the students but that of the coordinator as well.

Committee work help promotes sustainable and transparent school leadership. It helps promote accountability since more than one person gives and receives the communication. However, the committee work is only good and useful if the recommendations or actions made by the committee are backed up and followed by administration. If the committee has "no power", the entire system fails.

Teachers can promote sustainable school leadership by: 1) heading leadership tasks; 2) supporting peers; 3) sharing expertise; 4) providing feedback to administration; 5) challenging leadership in a positive manner; 6) making suggestions; 7) promoting institution's vision to all stakeholders; and 8) being at the forefront of profession in terms of knowledge, skills, and understanding issues.

One participant opined that teachers cannot promote sustainable leadership due to leadership becoming more and more politically manipulated with no regards for the consequences to the overall goal of education. Unfortunately, this particular perspective does little to advance the credibility of the teachers having an impact on contributing to sustainable leadership.

Research Questions and Analysis

What is the importance and need for sustainable school leadership?

According to Hargreaves and Fink (2003), sustainable leadership builds an educational environment based on shared responsibilities with the stakeholders both in and out of the school. The importance of having a school culture committed to the collaboration of shared beliefs, values and vision is part of the foundation of developing and maintaining sustainable school leadership. This is also supported by Danielson (2002) who views all members of the school community as vital in contributing to the creation and stewardship of the school's vision.

Throughout the responses of the participants there were indications that sustainable leadership is a factor in determining the academic growth of students and the professional growth of faculty and staff. The participants viewed sustainable leadership as necessary, particularly in a time of increased accountability and political pressure to maintain the academic growth of students. The ability of the school principal to get everyone on-board was perceived as an important element in achieving short and long-term goals. Getting everyone on-board according

to Maxwell (2010) requires leaders to connect with people at three different levels: one-on-one, in a group, and with an audience.

The participants also indicated that sustainable leadership is necessary for maintaining a positive school culture and high morale among faculty and staff. Sustainable leadership, according to the participants, involves everyone in the school community having a voice and a role which contributes to the culture and learning community.

Young (2013) points out that principals should cultivate a culture of trust that embraces the job-embedded learning of collaborative work among school teams, effectively monitor best instructional practices, and meet and achieve the goals and expectations of the communities they serve. People will work hard in a school where they are able collaborate with colleagues who support them and where there is an expectation that they can improve their school.

The succession of leadership that is built into the culture of the school through collaboration, job-embedded professional development and shared decision-making facilitates the continuation of leadership over time and improves the academic growth of students and the professional growth of teachers. The long-term view according to Maxwell (2007) creates a legacy of succession within the organization that is consistent with maintaining leadership over time.

How is sustainable school leadership perceived by teachers?

The participants perceived sustainable leadership in various ways. Their responses included a focus on the need for faculty to be included in the decision-making process which would provide the teachers with a sense of community and shared responsibilities. This sense of community and shared responsibilities would facilitate leadership capacity among teachers who would no longer be solely relegated to classroom duties.

The encouragement from the principal for professional development to inform practice and promote personal and professional growth was viewed as essential to enhancing skills among teachers that contributed to the success of the school. The continual success of the school is reflected by the type of leadership that is at the helm.

Participants indicated the importance of committee work was necessary for the promotion of accountability, two-way communication and leadership skills. Committee work was viewed as a small way for teachers to engage in positions of leadership that would be helpful to the school principal by promoting his/her vision and ideas.

The need for the principal to be transparent and create an environment conducive for students and teachers were also viewed as promoting sustainable leadership. Participants reported the importance of having a school culture that recognized the school as a village where everyone's input was vital, everyone had creditability and the torch of leadership was carried by everyone. A sustainable culture according to Acker-Hocevar, Cruz-Janzen and Wilson (2012), includes shared leadership and accountability, resourcefulness, additive schooling and humanistic philosophy as variables that sustain organizational efforts for achieving results.

These perceptions of the participants are consistent with the findings of Cherkowski (2012) who indicated that principals need to create conditions that evoke a desire for leadership and commitment from others in the community to contribute to developing and sustaining shared visions, goals and purposes. This is further advanced by Hargreaves and Fink (2006) who state that the ultimate goal for sustainable leadership in a complex, knowledge-sharing society is for schools to become professional learning communities.

In what manner can teachers contribute to the development of sustainable school leadership?

The participants provided responses which indicated that teachers can contribute to sustainable leadership by taking more of an initiative by heading tasks and being supportive of peers. Being a steward for the school's vision and advancing the ideas of the school principal was also seen as a contributing factor for sustainable leadership.

It was also reported by the participants that active participation on school committees promotes accountability and two-way communication between the principal and the faculty. The building of partnerships can facilitate involvement and relationships among all stakeholders in the learning community. The ability of everyone to feel involved in the process contributes to everyone's sense of responsibility regarding the direction and long-term growth of the school. This is further advanced by Maxwell (2010) who point out that team members must genuinely believe that the value of the team's success is greater than the value of their own individual interest and personal sacrifice must be encouraged and then rewarded – by the team leader and other members of the team.

Participants indicated that leadership roles of informal leaders can be nurtured by the experiences and tasks associated with new roles. These roles can facilitate new knowledge and understanding of the leadership position from a whole school perspective. Having a whole school perspective is essential to developing and maintaining sustainable leadership. To restate the idea of a previously mentioned participant:

> Teachers can promote sustainable school leadership by 1) heading leadership tasks; 2) supporting peers; 3) sharing expertise; 4) providing feedback to administration; 5) challenging leadership in a positive manner; 6) making suggestions; 7) promoting institution's vision to all stakeholders; and 8) being at the forefront of profession in terms of knowledge, skills and understanding issues.

Conclusions

All of the participants in this study expressed the importance and need for sustainable leadership in order to maintain the academic growth of students and professional growth of teachers. Sustainable leadership was not viewed as maintaining current leadership over time. Sustainable leadership was viewed as leadership that shared in the decision-making among teachers and other stakeholders in the learning community. Although the views of the participants are directly related to their current school principal, their suggestions for sustainable school leadership and how they view proposed individual teacher contributions reflects their own knowledge and perception of what successful sustainable school leadership should look like.

It seemed evident from the participants and the literature that the involvement of teachers and stakeholders in decision-making facilitates leadership skills and develops the capacity for understanding the complexities and challenges of sustaining leadership over time.

The idea of the school principal promoting a professional learning community for all stakeholders was recognized as vital to sustaining leadership due to its impact on the leadership culture. Having a professional learning community that grows and improves over time contributes to sustainable leadership because stakeholders have an understanding of the vision

and an investment in the long-term growth of the individuals that constitute the entire school community.

DuFour (2004) indicates that educators who are building professional learning communities have to work together to achieve a collective purpose of learning for all and by doing so they are creating structures to promote a collaborative culture. The concept requires school staff to work collaboratively on matters related to learning, and hold itself accountable for the kind of results that fuel continual improvement over time. In addition, the practices in a professional learning community according to Green (2013), facilitates two-way communication and accessibility for all members and promotes high morale.

Beyond the "how" and "what" of this study, teachers provided insight regarding their prospective roles as dynamic subordinates. Crockett (2010) describes the dynamic subordinate as being a steward who assumes the responsibility for the well-being of something that belongs to another. The ability of schools to be continuously successfully over time is impacted by the school culture and the vision that is universally shared. Having everyone on-board to advance the vision and work collaboratively towards a goal gives credence to the adage that it takes a village.

It is hoped that information gathered from this study will assist school boards and principals in evaluating the components of sustainable leadership relative to the development and maintenance of administrative effectiveness. In addition, the results of this study may also be of significance to administration and faculty involved in principal preparation programs and teacher leader programs.

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Interns Perceptions of Administrative Internships: Do Principals Provide Internship Activities in Areas They Deem Important?

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The research reported in this article follows-up on a study conducted by Anast-May, Buckner, and Geer (2010). The 47 interviewed principals identified three types of experiences school leadership interns needed in order to prepare them to lead school improvement efforts. This study explores interns' perspectives on the efficacy of their internship and whether the mentor principals helped them design internship activities that address the earlier study's three themes. The findings indicated that collaboratively designed internship activities provided useful experiences for the interns and ample, yet varied opportunities to address the three areas principals had identified in the previous study.

Introduction

Effective schools research of the 1980s identified principal leadership as critical to school improvement (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Restine, Milstein & Broboff, 1989). With an increased focus on student achievement during the 1990s, new accountability systems and demands for changes in the preparation of future educational leaders emerged (National Commission for the Principalship, 1990). According to Cunningham (2007), a key component of the reform movement was "greater emphasis on making the knowledge-to-practice connections and providing students opportunities to work on real-world problems in the most authentic settings possible under the guidance of university faculty and experienced practitioners" (p.3). As a result, reformers during the 1990s sought ways to strengthen internship programs in educational leadership (Bass, 1990; Foster & Ward, 1998; Milstein, Broboff & Restine, 1991). Cunningham's call for a more authentic internship experience for pre-service school leaders guided and informed the current study.

Purposeful engagement in authentic school leadership activities as a positive influence on the ability of principal candidates to perform administrative roles has been widely researched and accepted (Jean & Evans, 1995; Milstein & Krueger, 1997, Restine, Milstein & Broboff, 1989). In the vast majority of educational leadership programs the opportunity to practice leadership skills among pre-service candidates occurs during the internship. Some educational researchers have challenged the quality of school leadership internship programs and have proposed changes to strengthen professional preparation processes (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen, 2007; Levine, 2005). Numerous researchers (LaPlant, 1988; Milstein, et al. 1991; Wilmore, 2002) concluded that the internship should allow the candidate to translate theoretical concepts into practice and learn from the consequences. In so doing, the internship can change candidates' perceptions about the principalship (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; White & Crow, 1993) and assist in developing important skills and professional behaviors essential for success as an educational leader (Cordeiro & Smith-Sloan, 1995).

Clearly the internship is integral to effective administrator preparation (The National Policy Board, 2002). With school administrative practices deeply rooted in the theory and practice of management throughout the twentieth century, internships within educational administration programs emphasized managerial skills. Many educational leadership programs have been slow to adjust programming, including the internship, to emphasize the instructional leadership role of contemporary school leaders. As a result, many internship programs still do not offer the experiences that successfully prepare future leaders. Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen (2007) concluded, "Efforts to provide field-based practicum experiences do not consistently provide candidates with a sustained, hands-on internship in which they grapple with the real demands of school leadership under the supervision of a well-qualified mentor" (p. 6). Cunningham and Sherman (2008) recommended that, "In the age of accountability, an emphasis must be placed on tasks that facilitate instructional leadership, school improvement, and student achievement – historically overlooked or nonexistent aspects of the internship" (p. 310). Engagement through the internship is indispensable to the socialization process that must occur for administrative leadership capacity building and transformation to follow (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004).

The Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) further emphasized the importance of real-world experiences for future educational leaders. The SREB concluded that field-based placements must be a high priority and a central focus of principal preparation programs. SREB

described its vision of the internship by saying that future principals need experiences working in teams to address the achievement gap. This would include practice in planning and implementing various changes in curricula, teaching, and other facets of school organization (2007).

Despite an increase in the number programs in educational administration and their attending internship components, there is little empirical data in the literature to provide direction as to the types of experiences and activities that future educational leaders should have during their internship. Research by Brown-Ferrigno (2003) however indicated that a key socialization activity for learners in educational leadership programs was working directly with practicing school administrators.

The researchers address the perceptions of aspiring leaders as to the types of experiences and activities in the areas of planning change, school culture and data informed school improvement that were prevalent during their internship. More specifically, the authors examine linkages between the types of activities principals recommended in previous research and what the interns perceived they experienced during the internship. The researchers explored what happened when intern site supervisors and students were empowered to construct internship experiences they identified as most important in the context of their specific setting. Using the 2002 Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Building Level Standards as a framework, the principals serving as interns' site supervisors worked within an internship structure that allowed them latitude in constructing the internships' activities. The research questions guiding the study were: 1) Did interns perceive their internship activities as effective and useful? 2) From the interns' perspective, did the supervising principals address the three themes they had previously identified as essential when designing internship activities with interns?

Background to the Study

The educational leadership program examined in this study was established in 2009. With about a year to accomplish the task, the design of a two-semester, administrative internship experience was assigned to the article's first author. The design process began by reviewing the literature on educational leadership programs with a special focus on the sparse research base on the internship (Fry, Bottoms & O'Neill, 2005). Meanwhile, research that comprised the Anast-May (2010) study was being conducted. Using the interviews with practicing principals from this study and the 2002 ELCC Standards, the internship design evolved and was implemented, evaluated, and revised through a pilot program during the spring semester of 2011.

The Anast-May (2010) Study

Anast-May, et al. (2010) conducted a descriptive, case study through structured interviews with 47 practicing principals exploring the activities that these principals perceived to be important to include in the internship experience of school leadership students. The researchers found that three themes were prevalent in the principals' recommendations: (a) leading change initiatives, especially in the areas of curriculum and teaching; (b) building school cultures centered on and conducive to student learning and professional growth; and (c) using data to support school improvement, especially in the areas of curriculum development, teaching practices, and professional development. Principals reported a disconnect between the theory students were learning in their course work and the actual practice of school leadership. Principals also

identified a need for collaboration between university and school personnel to design hands-on, real world internship activities that provide opportunities for future educational leaders to lead reform efforts. These findings provided guidelines regarding the types of experiences pre-service, school leadership interns should have in order to be adequately prepared to lead school improvement initiatives.

Theoretical Frameworks

To better understand these findings the researchers used several theoretical frameworks based on well-known theories that addressed the three themes. The researchers consulted theoretical works addressing organizational change, organizational culture, and addressing the school improvement process with a focus on data driven decision making. These frameworks, in turn, served as a foundation for the survey questions of this study.

Organizational Change Theory: A Key for Leading Change Initiatives

Understanding the change process in organizations is critical for school leaders. Recognizing that change is often a slow process, organizational leaders must determine how to best navigate the context of the desired change effort in order to insure long term effectiveness. Leaders' participation in planning for change is instrumental in order for leaders and other stakeholder groups to identify with and feel ownership in the change process and to buy into the proposed change.

Because change is such an integral part of school life, Lewin's (1951) three-step theory on organizational change was foundational to the authors' thinking about the change process. Lewin conceptualized organizational change as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposing directions. Some of these driving forces facilitate change because they push employees in a direction different from the status quo. To analyze these forces Lewin used a three-step model to understand the shift in balance in the direction of planned changed. These steps include: (a) *unfreezing*, or overcoming the strains of individual resistance and group conformity when change is introduced into the organization; (b) *movement (or confusion)*, persuading organizational members that the status quo is no longer adequate and encouraging openness to new information; and (c) *freezing*, or reestablishing a new status quo, incorporating the planned change.

Lippitt, Watson, and Westley (1958) extended Lewin's three-step theory of organizational change, emphasizing the role and responsibility of the change agent in the evolution of the change itself. According to Lippitt et al. information is continuously exchanged throughout the process and leaders must engage in seven crucial steps in order to ensure that changes are firmly rooted within the organization. These theorists implied that organizational leaders must understand these roles and responsibilities in order to effectively plan and implement organizational change.

Components of change theory were applied to contextual aspects of this study. For example, the internships took place in schools, notoriously conservative and change resistant organizations. As Lippett et al. (1958) pointed out, in order to be a successful educational leader, one must skillfully navigate this politicized environment. It is important that school leaders understanding the dynamics of the Lewin model and of Lippett et al.'s thinking on change agency in order to deal with the dissonance that change can foist upon schools as they adapt to external and internal pressures.

Organizational Culture: Building School Focus on Student Learning and Professional Growth

Organizational culture has been defined as "the way we do things around here" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 98). To effectively lead change, an understanding of the school culture is essential to the change agent. To address this reality, researchers considered elements of organizational culture provided by Schein (1988) to inform the research. Schein's work gives a framework for working with, leading, and shaping school culture.

Schein explained that organizational culture exists on three levels: (a) *artifacts*, which may be observed by individual entering the culture; (b) *espoused values,* or the ideals, norms, standards, and moral principles written down or spoken by organizational members; and (c) *underlying assumptions,* which are beliefs about the organization, deeply held by members, but that typically remain unexamined and unexplained when insiders are asked about the values of the organization. Schein asserted that individuals attempting to promote change in organizations must be aware of and carefully analyze all three levels of organizational culture to understand the cultural elements that need to be addressed. Schools, like other organizations, have cultures that are an important factor in its success or shortcomings. Principals understand and live with this fact every day. Leaders must focus school culture improving student achievement and fostering efforts to develop professional skills and dispositions essential for learning.

Continuous School Improvement: Using Data to Fuel Initiatives

The use of data to support and inform continuous school improvement aimed at enhancing student achievement in its many forms has permeated the culture of contemporary educational institutions. Data driven decision making is a tool introduced through the standards movement to address expectations for more accountability for student achievement. Contemporary educational leaders must be adroit in understanding and using many forms of data. Now essential to the work of educational leaders is the ability to access and analyze data and use data in the development and implementation of school improvement plans. Implementation of these plans then generates new data that is analyzed to evaluate the effort's success or failure. If efforts improve conditions new areas for improvement are identified and subjected to this process. If unsatisfactory results emerge, the data informs revisions of the plan.

Schools are inarguably complicated organizations that exist in complex social contexts (Orton & Weick, 1990). To gain a better understanding of the process of continuous school improvement within such a complicated context, researchers examined the Complex Adaptive Systems (CAS) theory developed by Axelrod and Cohen (1999). These theorists claimed that the objective of a human CAS is to improve performance, which they viewed as the equivalent to self-adaptation or self-organization as a response to changing context. When a CAS resists change, it is often forces from the external context that impose change on the system. In many ways, this is exactly what has happened to schools. Pressures from outside agents, ranging from the federal government to local business leaders, sparked change resulting in the establishment of adaptive structures and practices coalescing into what educators now call continuous school improvement. In essence, school leaders can establish and facilitate the school improvement process but, as Axelrod and Cohen imply, they are not the direct source of large scale policy changes.

Halverston, Grigg, Prichett, & Thomas (2007) developed a framework to describe a data-driven, instructional improvement system. These authors asserted that schools must possess cultures that support the continuous improvement of student learning. This improvement is fueled by measuring and analyzing student achievement metrics. These data in turn informs efforts to improve educational programming. School principals play a key role in this process by focusing school staff on the disaggregation and interpretation of this student achievement data and using it to inform various instructional and curricular practices. All these efforts are aimed at continually improving the components comprising a school. Whether the information is instructional in scope or fosters an improvement in other areas that support student learning, their shared goal is contributing to support the primary mission of the school, educating its students. Indeed, these data can serve as a foundation for rational discourse and provide direction for the change agent and other school stakeholders in order to decrease resistance to change.

The Study

Research Questions

The two research questions that guided this study were:

- Did interns perceive their internship projects and experiences as effective and useful in preparing them for educational leadership roles?
- From the interns' perspective, did the supervising principals address the three themes they had previously identified as essential when designing internship activities with interns?

Participants and Setting

The participants of this study were members of the inaugural cohort of a newly established Master of Education degree program in educational leadership at a medium sized, public institution of higher education in the southeastern United States. The internship was implemented for the first time during the summer and fall of 2011.Students completed two semester-long internship placements in one of four area school districts serving several diverse communities ranging from schools serving small, rural communities to schools serving a small city. The PK-12 students in these four school districts were ethnically and economically diverse.

Thirty-seven of the 44 interns completed the survey yielding a return rate of 84%. Ninety-two percent of respondents were classroom teachers, 6% were curriculum coaches, and 3% were school counselors. Table 1 presents demographic characteristics of survey respondents.

Table 1
Respondent Demographics as a Percentage of the Sample

Gender		School Level			Years Teaching		Highest Degree Obtained	
Male	Female	Elem.	Middle	High	1-5	>5	Bachelors	Masters
33	67	39	17	44	32	68	51	47

Method

The Survey

Using the three themes from the previous study, and the theoretical framework as a foundation, the research team for the current study designed a survey consisting of 34 questions. The survey included 20 question Likert-type questions and 14 open-ended response questions. In order to gain insight into the interns' perspectives on the internship, initial survey questions gathered demographic information and perceptions about the structure of the internship (i.e., internship duration and settings), interns' career aspirations in educational leadership, and interns' perceptions of the efficacy of the internship in preparing them for school leadership.

In the second section of the survey, separate questions focused on interns' perceptions of each of the three themes. For example, one question read, "To what extent were you involved in planning and leading change in curriculum and instruction?" Participants responded to a four-point, Likert-type scale providing options as follows: 4 = *Frequent Involvement*, 3 = *Some Involvement*, 2 = *Limited Involvement* and, 1 = *No Involvement*.

Interspersed between the Likert-type scale questions was a third section of the survey consisting of open-ended response questions allowing participants to enter text describing the specific activities and experiences they gained regarding the three themes and the perceived impact the experiences had in preparing them as future school leaders.

Procedures

After review and approval by the University's Internal Review Board (IRB) the survey was loaded into a commercial software product designed for anonymous administration and convenient data collection and disaggregation. A web site link to the questionnaire was disseminated electronically to all educational leadership students who were completing their second semester of internship placement. Students were given approximately two weeks to complete the questionnaire.

Responses to this administration were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. A split-half test for reliability of the instrument was conducted. The resulting Guttman Split-Half Coefficient for instrument reliability for the teacher assessment survey was .892, well above the accepted coefficient level of .700 (Mason and Bramble, 1997, p. 276).

Survey results were compiled using the software tools which summarized the questionnaire's Likert-type scaled responses into bar graphs and compiled narrative responses to

each question. Responses to the Likert-type scaled questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics to report on the magnitude of agreement among respondents on the scale category. Answers to the open-ended type questions provided additional anecdotal evidence relative to each of the research questions. Answers to the survey's Likert scale categories were often combined to better understand the interns' perspectives. This is an accepted manipulation of this scale as long as the items combined are related by a single common factor (Lester & Bishop, 2000).

Results

Efficacy of Internship Activities

The survey indicated that 70.3% of respondents perceived that internship activities left them well prepared to assume leadership experiences, with another 24.3% feeling somewhat prepared. In general terms the interns saw the internship experiences as effective and useful.

Planning Change in Curriculum and Teaching

Overall, the respondents reported that the internship activities provided them with experiences that addressed planning and leading change in curriculum and teaching, with 85% reporting frequent or some involvement in this area. Most likely participating in such activities contributes to 97% of respondents reported that they felt somewhat prepared or very well prepared in planning change.

When given the opportunity to elaborate upon their experiences in leading and planning change, respondents described internship experiences that were meaningful to them. Repeatedly the respondents said that projects they designed with their site supervisors emulated the type of work that leaders do in schools every day in leading change initiatives to improve teaching and learning. For instance, some students reported gaining experience in gathering and disseminating data relative to their school moving from a traditional schedule to a block schedule. One student reported leading instructional changes utilizing technology.

Another student commented on how the internship helped her gain exposure to operationalized planning and leading change by serving as a member of the administrative team. She wrote, "I had an instrumental role in the school's leadership team and was engaged in curriculum-focused meetings as a member of the school's administrative team."

One respondent student described an experience reported by many of the interns that practice in leading change often took several different forms during the internship. The student stated:

> [Helping to implement] data teams is one way that I am trying to make change within my building for better instructional practices. For students, I am leading the way in trying to implement our PBIS [Positive Behavior Intervention System] program on buses. By doing this we are encouraging positive behavior on the buses.

Supporting Cultures of Learning

Ninety-one percent of the study's respondents reported that their internship provided them with frequent or some involvement in experiences designed to nurture a positive culture for learning. Ninety-seven percent of the respondents reported that these activities made them feel very well prepared–or somewhat prepared to assume educational leadership in leading or supporting a positive culture for learning.

The experiences that respondents categorized as supporting a positive culture of learning varied greatly, however, in both complexity and degree of responsibility. For instance, one student described her experience in serving as co-chair of the School Improvement Council. She stated, "We are meeting with parents, community members, and stakeholders to improve student's learning. (sic) [I] serve on the students and faculty morale team to maintain a positive school climate." Another intern served as the Sexual Harassment Liaison for the school and another worked as a mentor with a first-year teacher on classroom management. One intern researched the PBIS model, evaluated the process of implementation in their school and then prepared and submitted to school leaders recommendations as to how to improve the student behavioral management system.

An important component of building a positive school culture is the involvement of the business community and other stakeholders. Eighty-four percent of the respondents reported that they had some or frequent contact with stakeholders groups. Respondents described many activities that involved businesses and other community stakeholder groups in building a positive school culture. For example, several students reported spending time soliciting financial support from the community. One respondent explained, "I coordinate with our business partners for donations of gifts to our students for academic achievement. They also donate school supplies for our students' learning needs."

Another intern served as a school representative in attending social functions in the community. Another student worked with local ministers and business owners to promote funding and developed programs and seminars designed to educate parents about various types of parenting resources available within their community.

Developing relationships with students' parents is a key aspect of building school culture. Parents comprise one of the most important stakeholder groups external to the day-to-day operations of any school, and encouraging parent involvement is crucial to nurturing a positive school culture. Fifty percent of respondents reported frequent involvement and another 38% reported some involvement in activities promoting parent involvement. Students reported assuming leadership roles in activities that were, for the most part, already established routines or structures within the school, such as parent-teacher organizations, school improvement councils, open houses, and parent educational meetings on topics like college finances or school bullying.

Using Data to Support Continuous School Improvement

Ninety-seven percent of respondents reported having frequent or some involvement in using data to support continuous school improvement during their internship experience. Ninety-one percent reported frequent or some involvement in activities that required the use of data to lead initiatives designed to improve teaching practice. Only nineteen percent reported limited or no involvement in this area.

In response to an open-ended question regarding the type of activities they engaged in using data to support continuous school improvement, 76% of respondents described activities that involved working with data either individually or in teams. Interns used various forms of data to improve different aspects of the school such as school-wide discipline, curriculum, and understanding student achievement on standardized assessments.

Thirty-three percent of respondents described leading colleagues as members of school level data teams. Two respondents described experiences analyzing and illustrating student achievement through the use of building data walls. One of these respondents summarized her experience that could serve as a model for using data to support continuous school improvement when she shared the following description of her work:

> [I] Analyzed and compiled data to determine an assessment schedule, a professional development PDSA [Plan Do Study Act] plan, a structure for using data to complete "data dialogues" during data teams, and I processed the notes from leadership [team] collaboration focused on data.

Another intern reported a similar comprehensive experience using data to inform school improvement efforts. The respondent described analyzing student achievement data to determine strengths and weaknesses in student learning and trends in student discipline. She also gained experience using data that led to the creation of two professional development sessions for faculty members and a separate program for school bus drivers. Finally, the intern described using data to create and administer a faculty survey about the use of e-readers for the teachers' professional library which culminated in her development of a cost-benefit analysis for the proposed purchase of two types of electronic readers.

Discussion

Implications for Practice

The findings from this study provide a contribution to the literature on school administrative internships due primarily to the strong match between the recommended internship experiences previously provided by practicing principals and the actual internship activities in which the school leadership students participated. It is not unexpected, however, that the experiences the interns described in this study paralleled the recommendations given earlier from the practicing principals. Many of the principals providing the recommendations served as internships site supervisors in the current study. It is reassuring that practicing principals, when given the opportunity through flexible internship designs, did indeed collaborate with their interns and university supervisors in order to build meaningful, real life experience for interns. Evidence from this study suggests that principals serving in the role of site supervisors will assist interns in

areas they deem essential for success in school leadership given the internship structures to do so.

Rather than prescriptive measures written by university faculty, site supervisors and interns framed the internship projects within the context of the six ELCC Standards. Coupling this framework with the flexible internship design; activities managing and leading change, building a culture committed to improving student learning and teacher efficacy, and the use of data to fuel a drive for continuous improvement, all identified as important by the practicing principals were built and executed by the majority of the interns. This suggests that programs using more prescriptive educational leadership internships should consider redesigning their internships to give interns and site supervisors more latitude in creating the actual internship activities. This has important implications for the university faculty serving as internship supervisors. This process decentralizes their role and allows for the principal serving as a site supervisor to play a more active role in the internship design process. And as reported by the respondents to this study, they believe a more realistic and authentic internship experience is built.

The importance of addressing the types of experiences and activities that an intern receives to insure that the experiences are authentic and reflect the actual daily practice of school principals is a contemporary theme (Pounder & Crow, 2005; Wallace Foundation, 2012; Wilmore, 2002). Respondents in this study described numerous internship activities that they felt were authentic and that emulated the work of educational leaders. An analysis of the survey data suggest that interns do in fact believe that programs for aspiring school leaders can provide real-world learning opportunities for students desiring to become effective school leaders who are focused on changing school practices and structures and who are capable of nurturing continuous school improvement. Pounder and Crow (2005) asserted that designing school internship activities that are authentic will contribute "to a stronger pipeline of effective school administrators" (p.57).

Another outcome of the internship experiences' flexible structure allowed practicing principals to work collaboratively with interns to design and implement specific internship projects that were often a function of the needs of the school where the intern was assigned. This is unique in as much as the internship experience became an organic and collaborative experience specific to the site where the interns worked coupled with the interns' learning needs.

If principals are to share the responsibility of meeting the educational needs of students and their communities, interns aspiring to this position must be provided with the types of experiences and activities that facilitate instructional leadership, school improvement and consequently, student achievement. It appears from the interns' perspectives that the principals serving as their site supervisors provided those types of experiences as they worked with the interns in this study. It is interesting to note that many of the principals interviewed during the Anast-May, et al. (2010) study served as the site supervisors whose role was integral to the design of the various internship activities as they supervised the interns. Evidence from the study suggests that, even without specific prompting from external sources (i.e., university supervisors) that coupling of the role of principal as site supervisor with the opportunity to have significant input into the design of internship activities resulted in interns thinking they had practical and useful and meaningful activities.

Recommendations for Future Research

The internship was designed to address contemporary criticisms of administrative internships as checklists of activities that do not capture the essence of educational leadership and administration (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Elmore, 2002, 2006). In order to provide coherence and reliability to the structure of the internship, university faculty members used the research based ELCC standards as guidelines in the design of the internship described here. These standards were coupled with design elements of flexibility in order to meet the needs of the intern and of the school site where interns were placed. Further research is indicated in order to understand the perceptions of the site supervisors, administrative interns, and university supervisors regarding the efficacy of this flexible model for internships. The initial findings of this research should also be reexamined with data from future administrations of the survey to subsequent program graduates, which the researchers plan on implementing. Further mining a more expansive and longitudinal database obtained from subsequent administrations of this data for correlations between variables in the survey may provide insight into a number of areas, e.g., influence of grade levels of intern experiences, gender differences or similarities, discipline backgrounds of candidates.

Additional research into the relationship of the flexible structure of the internship and its effects on the intern perceptions of how well the internship addresses the themes of the Anast-May et al. (2010) study is indicated. Studies comparing and contrasting the perceptions of site supervisors, administrative interns, and university supervisors regarding interns in more traditional internships to those involved in a more flexible model would provide additional information to support or refute various criticisms of many of the so called, "checklist" administrative internships. Longitudinal studies of the effects on leadership practices and student achievement of graduates comparing various internship models would also inform the practices of institutions providing credentialing of future educational leaders.

Conclusion

Based on the survey results, interns perceived that in the majority of cases the activities resulting from their collaborative process of planning internship activities with site supervisors provided realistic experiences that benefited their development as educational leaders. School leadership interns participating in this study perceived that, given the opportunity, the principals, serving in the role of site supervisor helped interns design and participate in internship activities that addressed the three themes of managing and leading change, building a culture committed to improving student learning and teacher efficacy, and using data to fuel a drive for continuous improvement. By exploring and understanding the connection between the experiences principals say interns need and what interns perceived they experienced during their internship, this study informs the process of designing meaningful internships at the university level. It gives insight into the question of when principals are given the latitude to design activities with interns together they address skills principals deem important for educational leaders. Additionally, the research bridges the divide between theory and practice in areas articulated by principals as essential to effective educational leadership.

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The Missing Link: Teaching the Dispositions to Lead

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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In this article the authors contend that the element that is typically missing or underdeveloped in the education and development of most leaders is the intentional integration of the research and practices for assessing and developing the deeply held core beliefs, attitudes, and values (what we will call leadership dispositions) that play a primary role in leadership effectiveness. To develop the best educational leaders, preparation programs must intentionally include the enhancement of leadership dispositions among its top priorities. For great leaders, their dispositions are the foundation upon which their leadership skills, characteristics, and abilities are expressed and magnified. In this article, the authors discuss how the Perceptual Dispositions Model (Wasicsko, 2007) has been used as a framework for developing educational leaders in an Ed.D. program. Specifically, the focus is on a 360° process and tool--Individual Leadership Self-Assessment Instrument (ILSA)—through which leaders receive authentic feedback about perceived dispositions and from which leadership growth plans are developed. Additionally, they provide insights about how the process has helped transform leaders in their program and they illustrate an example of how one doctoral student used the feedback to develop and implement a dispositional growth plan. The information presented in this article has tremendous implications for educational leadership programs as well as school and district level leaders.

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Introduction

Effective educational leaders are in high demand these days. As baby-boomers continue to step out, and with accelerated turnover that happens in the increasingly stressful and demanding educational environment, there is ample opportunity for energetic and talented people to fill the breach. With all this potential for new blood coming into play, there is great opportunity for instigating significant positive transformational change IF we find the right future leaders, help develop them, and then assist them in growing their leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

In general, educational leadership programs have done an admirable job teaching the knowledge and skills needed to be a leader. We have good research on the strategies and techniques that seem to be associated with effective leadership and yet leaders who are able to foster transformative change still remain the outliers rather than the rule (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005).

In this article the authors contend that the element that is typically missing or underdeveloped in the education and development of most leaders is the intentional integration of the research and practices for assessing and developing the deeply held core beliefs, attitudes, and values (what we will call *leadership dispositions*) that play a primary role in leadership effectiveness. Too often leadership programs shy away from dealing with issues such as attitudes and beliefs because of their potential social, political, and/or religious connotations, due to the nebulas nature of their definition and measurement. They are assumed to be too personal and individual and therefore inappropriate for inclusion or, the biggest reason, that attitudes and beliefs change slowly if at all anyway (Combs, 1988). As we shall contend, the intentional inclusion of leadership dispositions are necessary conditions for preparing leaders to foster transformational change through their efforts.

Essentially, the authors argue that effective leaders are first and foremost effective people or, said another way, the person you are determines the leader you become. To develop the best educational leaders, preparation programs must intentionally include the enhancement of leadership dispositions among its top priorities (King, Altman, & Lee, 2011).

This article provides the theoretical framework and definitions of leadership dispositions, the tools by which one assesses dispositions, and examples of how they can be applied in leadership education programs.

Dispositions Framework

Necessary leadership dispositions include: believing in oneself and one's ability to positively impact others, valuing the people you lead—knowing that reasonable colleagues provided with reasonable information and flexibility will make reasonable decisions; a keen predilection for listening to diverse viewpoints, finding common ground on most issues, and seeing the big picture; and the understanding that relationships, effective teams, and sharing responsibilities and rewards are the pathways to important accomplishments. Some leaders can fake such dispositions over the short haul, however, when much of what leaders confront requires immediate reactions, the masks quickly fall away and the dispositions of the leaders are exposed. In our opinion, core dispositions are at the heart of good leadership and are *a priori* conditions for transformational leadership.

For more than a decade the authors have asked leaders and aspiring leaders, "What is the first thing you remember about the most effective leader with whom you worked?" The overwhelming number of responses spoke about the human elements (dispositions) of the leader and the kinds of working and personal relationships that these dispositions fostered. Among the most common responses were:

- "She really enjoyed her work and cared about people."
- "He looked for the good in each of us."
- "He could get things done and make it fun."
- "She motivated us with her lively, humorous manner and her thorough knowledge of the work."
- "He believed in me."
- "She challenged us."
- "She saw us as unique and treated us with respect**."**

If peoples' primary memories about their best leaders are accurate, enhancing dispositions may in fact be the most important thing leaders can do to be more effective. What differentiated the most effective leaders from the rest was that they were successful not only because of what they *knew and did* but because of *who they were* that shined through their skills and leadership abilities. We call these human qualities *dispositions*—a person's core attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and non-verbal behaviors as one interacts with oneself, others, one's purpose, and frames of reference.

The framework used for dispositions relies on the theory and research pioneered by Arthur W. Combs (Combs, 1974), psychologist/educator (1935-1999). Combs spent his professional career investigating the dispositions (he used the term "perceptions") of effective helping professionals--people who were able to significantly and positively affect others' lives (Richards, 2010). The Perceptual Dispositions Model

> drills down into the essence of the person to the attitudes, values, beliefs, or perceptions level of the personality. This allows for a more manageable number of variables to define and measure [four in all], and more predictive value, but with the trade-off of requiring the use of more qualitative assessment measures (Wasicsko, Wirtz, & Resor, 2009, p. 20).

The Perceptual Dispositions Model was chosen because it is straightforward and intuitive, easily understood, built upon a strong theoretical and research base, and has proven qualitative measurement tools by which to gauge effects.

As a result of the research by Combs and colleagues (Combs & Snygg, 1949; Combs, Soper, Gooding, Benton, Dickman, & Usher, 1969), Wasicsko (2007) classified dispositions into four general areas that differentiate effective from ineffective leaders: (1) perception about self; (2) perceptions about other people; (3) perceptions of purpose; and (4) perceptions of one's frame of reference.

Perception of Self, as the name implies, focuses on the personhood of the leader. Leaders who have positive perceptions of self are confident without being overbearing, identify more readily with others, they can see diverse points of view, and they display a positive attitude toward life and work. Because of a positive sense of self, they tend to be more self-trusting and,

thus, less threatened by others, they have less difficulty accepting constructive criticism, and can provide others with feedback that is more likely to be non-threatening and thus heard.

Leaders who have high *Perception of Others* see people with whom they work as having the capacity to face up to challenges and be successful when given the opportunity and resources. They demonstrate a belief in others' ability to find adequate solutions to events in their own lives; display a general belief that all people are valuable, able, and worthy of respect; share responsibility with others; and share or give away credit for accomplishments.

Leaders who have high *Perception of Purpose* have goals that extend beyond the immediate to broad implications and contexts. They tend to see the big picture and are committed to life-long learning and mentoring. They treat everyone equitably and fairly; they avoid being sidetracked by trivia or petty issues; and see work in the larger context of life. They realize that what they do as leaders is more than a mere job but less than a life.

Leaders who are people oriented have a *Frame of Reference* that recognizes that people, with all their human strengths and frailties, are the valuable human resources through which goals get met rather than cogs in a complex mechanical machine. They understand that, while order, management, mechanics, and details of things and events are necessary, long-term success must be concerned with the human aspects of affairs--the attitudes, feelings, beliefs, and welfare of persons. They understand the importance of maintaining positive relationships with colleagues and they focus on the human dimensions rather than, or at least in addition to, the "things" associated with the work.

These dispositions, the authors contend, are essential elements in effective leadership that, when present in a leader, provide an opportunity for greater transformational change as well as personal growth in individuals and organizations. For great leaders their dispositions are the foundation upon which their leadership skills, characteristics, and abilities are expressed and magnified. Yet, as important as dispositions are, they are frequently included in leadership programs and assessments only as an afterthought, if at all.

Using Dispositions in the Ed.D. Program

Six years ago, when presented with the opportunity to build a practitioner's educational leadership doctoral program from the ground up, it was decided to make dispositions a cornerstone element of the new program. Dispositions theory, research, and tools are embedded into all aspects of the Ed.D. program beginning with the selection of candidates [and faculty], moving through integration into courses, assessing candidate leadership and growth, and developing Individual Leadership Dispositional Growth Plans (ILDGP). The focus of this article is on a 360° process and tool--Individual Leadership Self-Assessment Instrument (ILSA)—through which leaders can receive authentic feedback about perceived dispositions and from which leadership growth plans can be developed.

The 360° Process: From Theory to Practice

The 360° process has been used for some time in a variety of leadership settings. The essential premise of the process is that increasing self-knowledge can lead to greater personal development and maturity as leader (Blum, 2009). Belief in a 360° process is based on four assumptions: (a) feedback is important for personal and professional growth; (b) most organizations provide poor environments for authentic feedback; (c) there is frequently a gap

between a leader's self-perception and how others see her/him; and (d) empirical research and anecdotal evidence has shown that 360° feedback can lead to improved performance in the areas that are being evaluated (Lepsinger & Lucia, 2009). If many people participate in the 360° process within an organization or team, it can also be used to strengthen the collective leadership capacity of the organization and facilitate the development of a culture that values leadership more as a *process* than a *position* (Chirichello, 2003, 2010). Leadership then becomes a collective and collaborative activity to set direction, build commitment, and create alignment in a process called *collective leadership* (Martin, 2007). A 360° process was designed as an assessment and growth protocol for candidates (we call them *learning associates*) enrolled in the practitioner Ed.D. program.

The Individual Leadership Self-Assessment© (ILSA)—the major tool used in the process--was designed after an extensive review of the research on the traits/characteristics, skills, and dispositions associated with effective leaders. It was designed to serve three major functions: (1) to collect authentic, usable data from a variety of sources regarding a person's leadership effectiveness; (2) to serve as a self-assessment baseline from which leadership growth plans can be designed; and (3) to measure leadership growth over time. Because these functions are or should be critical to all leadership situations, the instrument can and has been used by aspiring and practicing leaders across professions.

The ILSA includes two major sections with seven subsections. Section one, *Capacity to Lead,* consists of traits/characteristics and skills. Traits/Characteristics are distinguishing attributes or qualities of an individual such as creativity and self-confidence. Skills are the ability to do some things well, usually gained through training or experience such as problem solving.

Section two, *Dispositions* (Table 1), includes questions related to the attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and non-verbal behaviors as one interacts with self, others, one's purpose, and frames of reference. Since dispositions are the focus of this article, only these elements are presented here.

Table 1
Dispositions Section of the ILSA

Perceptions of Self	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I identify positively with others even those who are different than I am.							
I always try to see the other person's point of view.							
I display a generally positive attitude toward life and work.							
I am accepting of others whose ideas and opinions differ from mine.							
I accept constructive criticism.							
Perceptions of Others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I display a general belief that all people are valuable, able, and worthy.							
I collaborate positively with others.							
I share responsibility with others.							
I find positive things about almost everyone I meet.							
I share credit for accomplishments with others.							
Perceptions of Purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I see the *big picture* in most situations.							
I treat everyone equitably and fairly.							
I see work in the larger context of a person's life.							
I avoid being sidetracked by trivia or petty issues.							
I am committed to life-long learning for myself and others.							
Frame of Reference	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My primary focus is on the success of the people with whom I interact.							
I balance work and life.							
I build and maintain positive relationships with colleagues.							
I build and maintain positive relationships with clients.							
I focus on the human aspects (rather than things) in most situations.							

Learning associates in the Ed.D. program complete a self-assessment using the ILSA during the first semester of the 3-year program. Each learning associate selects a minimum of ten *critical friends* to assess their leadership using the same instrument. (Critical friends are personal acquaintances or professional colleagues who have regular contact with, are trusted by, and have working knowledge of the leadership style of the person using the instrument.) During the second year of the program, when the cohort members have become familiar with each other, learning associates complete the ILSA for each member of her/his cohort.

The ratings provided by the critical friends and cohort members are aggregated into composite scores for each element so as to increase validity and protect the anonymity of individual respondents. Subsequently, individual learning associates receive their aggregated information to compare her/his own ratings with that of critical friends and colleagues in the program. Here is where the learning about self really begins.

As seen in Table 1, the ILSA uses a 7-point Likert scale upon which each element is rated by the leader, critical friends and cohort members using the descriptors in Table 2. The scales for critical friends and cohort members are identical with the exception of changing the "I" to "y colleague/friend."

Table 2
Rating Scale Instructions for the ILSA

Instructions: On the scale below, choose the number that best matches your current perception of the trait/characteristic or skill indicated on this survey.
1 - I do not exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
2 - I infrequently exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
3 - I occasionally exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
4 - I usually exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
5 - I frequently exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
6 - I frequently exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill and many other people have told me that I exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition
7 - I frequently exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill and most other people have told me that I exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition told me that I exhibit this trait/characteristic/skill/disposition

Note that, unlike many such opinion scales, selecting a score of six (6) or seven (7) requires a higher test of evidence by deciding if "many" or "most" people would agree with the opinion. This criterion is supported by the research of Hoy and Miskel (2013) who stated that the perception of the majority is more apt to be accurate. Using this criterion can also inhibit *self-perception anomalies* or the tendency to rate people or oneself artificially high.

Learning Associates' Perspectives

Closing the loop on a 360° assessment process entails participants reflecting on the areas in which there is agreement and differences among critical friends, and cohort members, analyzing the information, and then developing a growth plan to enhance leadership effectiveness using insights from the analysis. Learning associates are encouraged, but not required, to share their findings and solicit input for their growth plans to increase its effectiveness and impact. Through this process, learning associates develop a clearer sense of how they can improve their leadership capacity.

Reflective questions and conversations in formal and informal settings about the skills, characteristics, and dispositions assessed on the ILSA are intentionally embedded throughout our Ed.D. program. This provides learning associates with opportunities to reflect on their strengths and areas that need development. Special attention is focused on those ILSA elements that were rated highest and lowest or in which there was the greatest disparity between one's self-assessment and the assessment of others.

One of the most interesting and impactful events in the Ed.D. program occurs when the results of the ISLAs are returned to the individual learning associates and they get their first glimpse into areas in which they see themselves differently from the inside than others do from the outside.

In a typical session, a palpable hush fills the room as people begin to digest the information. After a few minutes, a participation-by-choice sharing takes place. Common themes emerge such as "Gosh, I didn't know I seem so serious." "I always thought I was a good storyteller" or "I always saw myself as a big picture kind of leader." It is clear that something significant has taken place.

To gain deeper insight into what transpired, the authors asked the learning associates to share their impressions about the ILSA after receiving their feedback on the instrument. Here is a representative sampling from their replies:

> The 360° assessment was a crucial element in developing my leadership capacity. I am not sure I would be able to recognize some of the areas without the critical feedback from the assessment process. I am grateful for this experience, and the friends involved in the process. I am beginning to understand the value of close friends and the wisdom of others. At this point, I can sum up this self-reflection in one sentence; "I learned things I never knew; I never knew!
>
> I remember reviewing the material and was surprised by how intense my feelings were. I appreciated all the feedback and realized I have demonstrated leadership skills for years, but did not always get the credit or pay that I deserved. It made me realize how unhealthy my work situation had become and that I was tired of being taken advantage of. I had allowed it to occur and it was up to me to make a change. That moment I realized I needed to take charge of using my leadership

> skills in a more purposeful way so that my work setting and I benefited. The process of the 360° assessment gave me the momentum to move ahead with confidence in my skills as a leader.

During informal and formal discussions, the learning associates have shared how the 360° process has given them insights into their traits/characteristics, skills, and dispositions that they were not able to uncover on their own. The process provided the learning associates with new insights for growing their leadership capacity.

Use of ILSA Results – A Case Study

After receiving and reflecting upon the ILSA results each learning associate builds a growth plan. In this section, we highlight the ILSA data from one learning associate along with an overview of the growth plan she developed after receiving her scores. This case typifies the kind of feedback our learning associates receive (data from the self-assessment, feedback from critical friends, and feedback from cohort members) and the resulting professional growth plans that are generated.

In preparing the learning associates for receiving and reviewing their scores, they are asked to engage in critical self-reflection as they note patterns or trends in their data. For example, are their self-assessment scores higher or lower than their critical friends or cohort members? On which questions are their self-assessment scores most closely in agreement with their critical friends or cohort members? Is there a large spread or difference between their self-assessment scores and the ratings they received from their critical friends and cohort members? On which questions? Why is this the case? Are they prepared to receive potential negative feedback on any questions or in any areas? Critical self-reflection helps learning associates better interpret the data. In cases where scores of critical friends or cohort members are significantly lower than their self-assessment, we ask them to suspend judgment and, for at least the time being, "assume the data are true" so that they are less likely to be dismissive of negative feedback and can see how it might inform them personally and in their leadership.

In order to better understand the ILSA data, learning associates receive feedback disaggregated by each question on each of the four scales (Perceptions of Self, Perceptions of Others, Perceptions of Purpose, and Frame of Reference). For example, on the Perceptions of Others scale (see Figure 1), this learning associate's largest spread can be seen on "I collaborate positively with others" and "I share credit for accomplishments with others." On both questions, the Learning Associate rated herself as 7.0 and her cohort members rated her a 5.9. This kind of gap or difference is one that should rise to the level of concern as they try to interpret and make meaning of the data.

Her critical friends and cohort members closely agree with "I find positive things about almost everyone I meet" rating her a 6.18 and 6.10 respectively. The closest agreement was on "I share responsibility with others," even though her critical friends rated her higher than she did on the item.

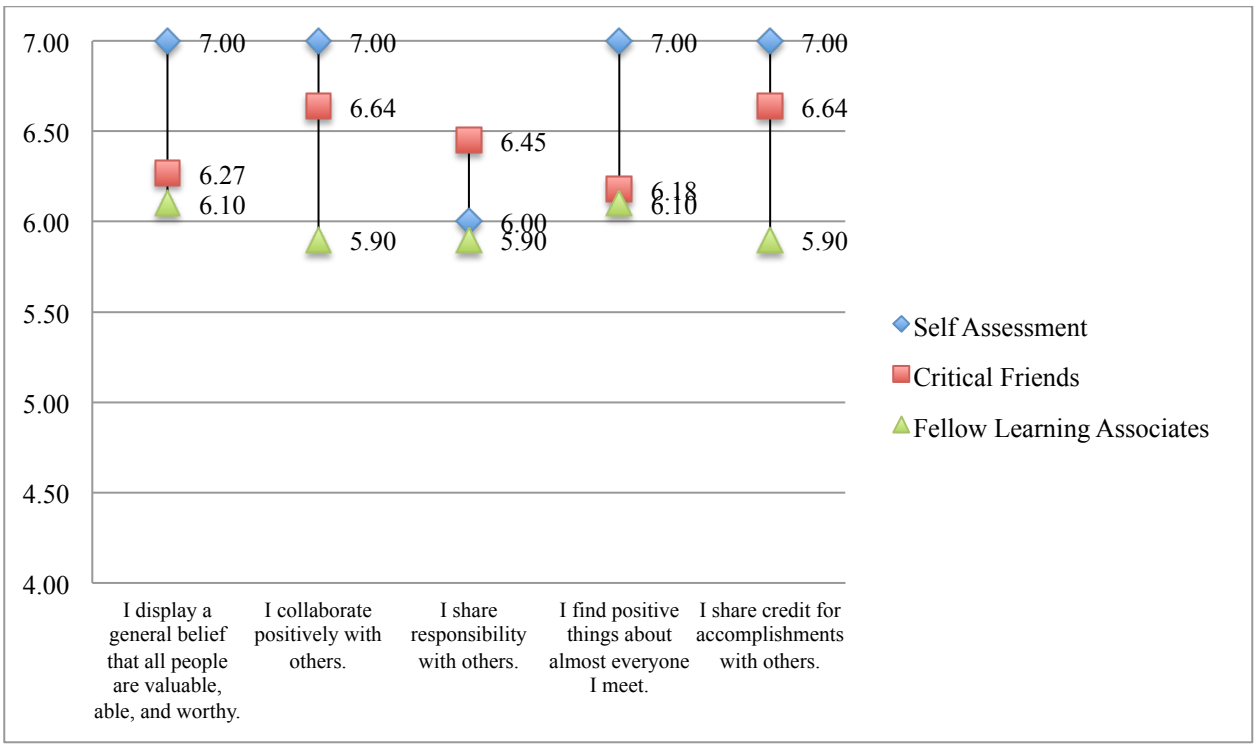

Figure 1. Perceptions of Others

In the Frame of Reference scale, this Learning Associate rated herself a 6.0 on "I balance work and life." Her cohort members closely agreed and rated her a 5.6, her lowest score on the assessment (see Figure 2). The learning associate rated herself a 7.0 on the other four items. Her critical friends agreed on "I build and maintain positive relationships with clients" but rated her lower on the other items.

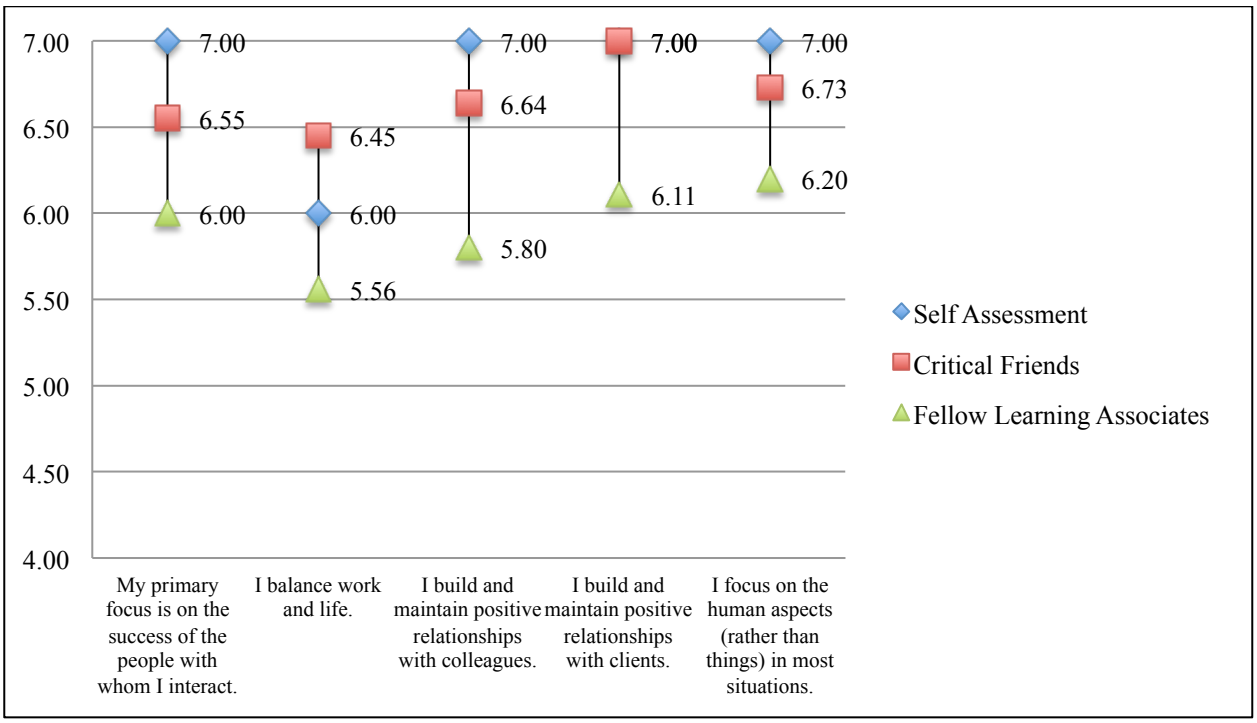

Figure 2. Frame of Reference

Once this learning associate had a chance to review her data, she was asked to write an Individual Leadership/Dispositional Growth Plan (ILDGP). The plan requires each Learning Associate to set a "strength area goal" and a "growth opportunity goal." They are first asked to describe why each goal is important to them. In this section, many note how the ILSA data helped them strategize and prioritize their strength areas and opportunities for growth. Next, they are asked to detail the strategies they will use to meet their goals. In this section, they typically lay out plans for working on the goals for the following semester. Finally, they are asked to describe how they will know if they are successful in meeting their goals and how they will measure their progress over time (see Figure 3).

	Strength Area Goal	Growth Opportunity Goal
What are your goals and why are they important to you?		
What strategies will you use to meet your goals? What is your plan?		
How will you know if you are successful meeting your goals?		
How will you track your progress and determine if you are meeting your goals?		

Figure 3. Individual Leadership/Dispositional Growth Plan Template

In her Individual Leadership/Dispositional Growth Plan, this learning associate set out on goals to "share responsibility with others" and to "balance work and life." She noted that as an assistant principal, she regularly gives teachers advice and/or answers to problems about school issues without engaging them in a problem solving process. She noted the following about her new goal:

> When teachers approach me with problems, I will not always give them the quick easy answer as I have done in the past. I will in turn ask them questions that make them reflect and come to conclusions based on their own reflections. I will also ask tough questions in certain instances in order to facilitate and guide teachers in the direction that will have the best outcome for the student first and then for the teacher in the classroom. This goal fits within the Perceptions of Others scale, and is closely aligned with the item.

"I share responsibilities with others," an area that she rated herself as a 6.0 and her critical friends and cohort members rated her a 6.45 and 5.90 respectively. Her measurement plan included the development of a simple survey in order to determine if she was making progress on this goal after one semester.

A year after her plan was written and enacted, this learning associate was asked to reflect on how this process helped her improve personally and professionally. She noted that over the course of a year, her conscious attention to giving teachers control in certain situations (instead

of solving the problems for them) has fostered better teacher problem-solving and in turn improved relationships with their students and parents.

Her other goal, balancing family, job, and doctoral work, is aligned closely with the Frame of Reference scale. In fact, the item "I balance work and life" was her lowest item according to her self-assessment (6.0), critical friends (6.45), and cohort members (5.56). The rating from her cohort members was actually her lowest score on the assessment. She noted that "in order to maintain happiness and direction I must continually evaluate my life in order to find a balance between all of the things that matter to me."

In reflecting on this area, she stated that her goal was to be finished with course work and the dissertation in three years. In order to make this happen, she deliberately set out to "let go" of work at the end of each school day, take care of her young family, and keep a regimented calendar for the doctoral work. Being self-aware that "work and family would need to be a focus in order to be successful" (Learning Associate #60, personal communication, January 16, 2014) has given her the drive to make this goal a reality as she is on course to finish the dissertation at the end of the third year. When asked if she has changed as a result, she believes the process helped her prioritize growth areas and hone leadership dispositions that are needed to be successful personally and professionally.

Lessons Learned

The 360° process using the ILSA has now been completed with six Ed.D. cohorts and has proven beneficial to learning associates. In addition to use in the program, it has also been used to provide feedback to new school superintendents and other school administrators, college deans and department chairs and, in a modified, dispositions-only version, to other helping professionals.

The authors are beginning to assess the impact of the growth plans developed through this process on perceived and actual leadership abilities. Another potentially fruitful line of research is to investigate the "spread or differences" among the users and respondents. Do the transformational leaders have the most accurate perceptions of how others see them? Is there a relationship (direct or inverse) between self and others' perceptions and leadership effectiveness?

Applying dispositions theory and research to leadership development may be one of the most significant areas for further investigation. The ISLA or derivatives of it can be applied to a variety of organizations including school districts, non-profits, and business environments in a non-evaluative, self-appraisal process. Currently, several school districts and universities are using the ILSA with their leadership teams to develop individual leadership capacity and increase collective leadership in their organizations. A discerning insight into one northern Kentucky school district's focus on dispositions is accessible on the Kentucky Association of School Administrators website (http://connect.kasa.org/personnelessentials2/welcomevideo). Superintendents have requested that their leadership teams for both the schools and the school site councils receive professional development in the use of dispositional protocols.

For additional information on dispositions go to the webpage for the National Network for the Study of Educator Dispositions located at Northern Kentucky University (http://coehs.nku.edu/content/coehs/centers/educatordispositions.html).

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Melding Leadership Lessons with Data Collection and Analysis Lessons: Two Classroom Examples

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The purpose of this module is to illustrate examples of how courses in educational leadership programs can effectively and efficiently meld lessons on leadership with lessons on data collection and analysis. The rationale behind emphasizing this combination is very straightforward: America's schools need leaders who are adept with data-based decision making. Especially since the standardized testing mandates of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, educational leaders at all levels have been challenged and mandated to collect, disaggregate, analyze, and interpret data (Creighton, 2006; Holcomb, 2012; Kowalski, Lasley, & Mahoney, 2008). The ISLLC Educational Leadership Standards (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008) call for educational leaders to "develop assessment and accountability systems to monitor student progress" (Standard 2F), "monitor and evaluate the impact of the instructional programs" (Standard 2I), "monitor and evaluate the management and operational systems" (Standard 3A), and "collect and analyze data and information pertinent to the educational environment" (Standard 4A). All of these require data collection, analysis, and interpretation skills and mindsets. Educational leaders must be prepared to: (a) ask the proper questions, (b) determine what data are necessary and available to answer these questions, (c) develop valid and reliable instruments to obtain the necessary data, (d) assess the data obtained, (e) analyze the data appropriate to answer the questions posed, (f) interpret the analyses, and (g) determine the proper actions to take based on this interpretation. However, prior to their preparation programs, few aspiring educational leaders have built these skills and a comfort level in using them.

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The Setting

The setting for these examples is a Historically Black University in the South; specifically, it is in that institution's Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership, Policy, and Law. The course in which these educational activities took place is the *Leadership Studies* course.

A Very Simple Example

Because the *Leadership Studies* course is typically offered as the initial course in the program, only rudimentary data collection, analysis, and interpretation concepts are introduced. This is done more for the goal of establishing a data-based decision making mindset than for building substantial skills; these can be built along the course of the full program. To build this mindset, the professor has used various editions of Peter Northouse's widely acclaimed text, *Leadership: Theory and Practice,* now in its fifth edition (2010). The text design is that Northouse presents a chapter on each of the major leadership theories, as well as chapters on such topics as gender and leadership and culture and leadership. The chapter's text is followed by several brief case studies, generally focused on private sector business organizations, and then by a self-scored instrument designed to assess the student's self-perceived compatibility with that theoretical model. It is these instruments that facilitate the integration of the leadership content with the data collection, analysis, and interpretation content of the course.

In the opening class of this course, the professor explained that the course will attempt to achieve a balance among theory, research (data collection, analysis, and interpretation), and practice. The discussion then focused on why theory and data-driven decision making are important to school leaders. Students were then asked about the types of data that are currently being collected and analyzed in their schools, to what uses they are put, and what types of data would ideally be collected and analyzed.

After concluding the discussion of each chapter's theoretical model, the professor directs the students to take and self-score the related survey instrument. Following a discussion of what various students "learned" about themselves vis-à-vis that theory, the class breaks into groups of three to critique the instrument, including format, validity of its content in relation to the theoretical model, use of double-barreled questions, etc. Group findings are then shared with the full class for discussion. The professor then distributes a different survey instrument on that theoretical model, downloaded from the many available on the Internet. Again, the small groups critique this instrument and compare and contrast it with the Northouse (2010) instrument. When students have sufficient insight and understanding of survey instrument design during the semester, they move from critiquing the instruments to designing instruments of their own based on the theoretical model being studied.

In addition, the professor asks students to design some Purpose of the Study statements and Research Questions that could be used in conjunction with the instrument to gain valuable insight into the study of leadership. To do this, they must identify independent or dependent variables of potential significance. This helps to prepare the prospective leaders to ask the right questions and determine what data are needed to answer those questions. Because they have not yet had any statistics classes, no attempt is made in this course to discuss data analysis schemas for the studies they are designing. The only data analysis is their self-scoring of the Northouse instruments and their interpretation of their results.

Each week, following the class discussion and activities, students are given the assignment to write a two- to three-page reflection on the theory, instruments, and their self-scored survey results. The culmination of this at the end of the course is using these reflections to help the student to determine his or her personal, theory-based philosophy of leadership. These activities have typically been evaluated very positively by students over the past decade.

A More Complex Example

This year, the course moved from its usually scheduled position at the entrance to the program to being offered after students had completed the research and statistics courses. The professor did require that students continue to complete Northouse's (2010) instruments, as he determined that the students needed to build further skills in this area. However, less time was spent developing Purposes of the Study and Research Questions, as these had been well covered in the research courses.

Recognizing that this cohort of students had a stronger background in research and statistics than previous cohorts, the professor sought a more complex research and leadership exercise. He found a recent article on leadership styles and gender (Singh, Nadim, & Ezzedeen, 2012) that complemented Northouse's (2010) chapter on that topic. This topic was deemed important because of the growing number of female educational leaders and of the growing number of females in educational leadership preparation programs. The article was assessed as being an appropriate basis for a replication exercise not only for its topic but because the statistics used for analysis were within the capability, even if not totally within the current knowledge base, of the students. Although they had not previously become familiar with Cronbach's alpha, Cohen's *d,* or factor analysis, they had previous experience with SPSS and with the other statistics used in the article.

After reading the article, working in groups of three the students were asked to develop a survey instrument (none was provided in the article) to research the topic. This helped them to learn to select the most important questions to ask to gain the insight needed and to word them appropriately to ensure reliable responses. Using a Nominal Group Technique, the class then selected what they considered to be the most essential, non-duplicated questions. The professor subsequently crafted these into a survey instrument and duplicated hundreds of copies for distribution to the students at the next class session. The students were then directed to gather responses from at least ten of their colleagues and to return to the completed survey forms to the professor at the next class session. The professor then compiled an SPSS database and loaded it onto the computers in the program's computer lab for use in the next class session. He also ran hard copy analyses of the responses using both Cronbach's alpha and factor analyses in order to teach them about these two statistical analyses.

In that class session, the professor instructed the students on the use of both analyses for determining validity and internal consistency. Using the printouts, the students learned how to interpret the results of the analyses. The professor then instructed them how to duplicate the printouts using SPSS.

Then, using a guided practice approach, the professor guided the students through the remaining analyses used in the article, descriptive statistics (mean, median, and standard deviation) and Chi-square analysis, and the interpretation of the results. He then introduced students to a web-based calculator of Cohen's *d* (using the pooled variances approach) and how to interpret the results. The professor then questioned the students how their data analysis

schema would have differed had this been a population study instead of a sample, how a more valid sample than this convenience sample could have been selected, and why this would be essential if the results were to be generalizable.

The students were then challenged to interpret their results and to compare them to the results of the original study. They were asked to speculate on why some results differed between the original study and the one conducted by their cohort. Then they were tasked with using their results to develop recommendations for practice in both educational leadership preparation programs and school districts. They were then asked what further studies they might conduct to gain even more insight into the topic and what additional variables they might investigate. Finally, they were asked to reflect verbally on what they had learned from this extended exercise. This exercise allowed the prospective educational leaders to build further on the full set of data collection and analysis skills. In order to build their survey instrument, they had to investigate and prioritize among the key issues related to leadership and gender. Then they had to craft a valid and reliable survey instrument. They had to convince their colleagues to complete the survey instrument. They saw how an analyzable database could be built in a brief period of time. They had to extend beyond their existing knowledge base and comfort zone in order to conduct the correct and necessary analyses of the data. Finally, they had to interpret their findings and develop recommendations for practice based on those findings.

The students generally reported that this was a valuable learning activity, although they expressed concern that they felt inadequate in calculating and interpreting statistics, exacerbated by the time lapse since their coursework in this area. However, they agreed that this experience was good preparation both for their upcoming dissertation and for their work as educational leaders.

Conclusions

Although there is considerable merit in courses specifically designed to teach data collection and analysis, melding these skills with the content areas of educational leadership preparation, as in this case, also is crucial. Doing so brings emphasis to the fact that data collection and analysis are *integral* parts of an educational leader's role, not discrete tasks. Also, doing so facilitates continued review and reinforcement of these skills, which can diminish over time if not maintained. The learning activities described are merely illustrations of how this can be done. With instructor creativity, they can be enhanced greatly.

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Teachers' Perceptions based on Tenure Status and Gender about Principals' Supervision

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This descriptive study assessed teachers' attitudes about their formative supervision and the observational ability of principals through the constructs of teacher tenure status and gender. In sum, 255 teachers responded to an online survey indicating teachers' desired feedback focused on classroom climate, student engagement, and instructional strategies. Results indicated no discernible patterns in frequency and length to principals' formal and informal classroom observations based on teachers' tenure status or gender. However, non-tenured teachers were more willing to be observed and more positive about principals' feedback than tenured teachers. Non-tenured teachers were also significantly more positive about principals' feedback about student engagement which led to these teachers feeling encouraged about principals' observations. Female teachers were also more positive about principals' observations and feedback than male teachers; however, there were no significant differences between male and female teachers on the constructs measured.

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Introduction

Effective teaching is critical to student achievement and research has concluded the quality of teaching is the most significant variable related to student achievement (Leithwoood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Rutledge, Harris, & Ingle, 2010; Stronge, 2003; Stronge & Hindman, 2006; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). As a result, there is national and international interest in identifying school principals' roles in impacting teachers' instructional effectiveness (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; May & Supovitz, 2011; Murphy, Hallinger, & Heck, 2013; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). The primary way in which principals directly impact teaching is through instructional leadership (Green, 2010; Hinchey, 2010; Robinson, 2010) which encompasses roles including recruiting and hiring effective teachers, providing resources to teachers, and formally and informally observing (Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Nettles & Herrington, 2007; Stronge & Hindman, 2006; Zepeda, 2013). Routine observation, called formative supervision, creates a picture of teacher performance, signals teaching is valued by principals, and ensures teachers receive feedback to improve their instruction (Gentilucci & Muto, 2007; Robinson et al., 2008). This feedback generated by formative supervision meets the inherent needs of teachers and promotes their innate need to reflect and collaborate with colleagues (Henson, 2010; Zepeda, 2013).

However, researchers have illuminated problems with school district teacher supervision procedures, with common problems being lack of differentiation based on the developmental level of teachers and limited time for principals to adequately provide supervision to all teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2013; Hill & Grossman, 2013). For example, in their study of 12 school districts, Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, and Keeling (2009) found novice teachers' supervision was the same as experienced teachers' supervision, despite the fact both groups of teachers have vastly different needs. Additionally, Horng, Klasik, and Loeb (2009) reported principals engaged least in day-to-day instruction tasks (i.e. conducting classroom visits, informally coaching teachers) with management duties consuming much of their time. As a result, the researchers in this study sought to understand similar supervision issues, and the purpose of this study was to explore teachers' perceptions about principals' supervision through the frameworks of time and differentiation.

Conceptual Framework

The underpinning theories explored in this inquiry are supported within the literature surrounding two assumptions. First, the researchers assume principals' formative supervision improves teachers' instruction, and second, effective principals differentiate supervision for teachers based on various personal variables. The first assumption guiding this study is that teacher supervision is applied by principals to develop the skill set of teachers and typically follows three separate processes: (a) observation, (b) analysis, and (c) action planning for future growth (McCarthy & Quinn, 2010). Through these processes, it is inferred principals are the lynchpin to effective supervisory efforts as they monitor instruction, build trust with those they supervise, and provide instructional focus for schools (Leithwood & Day, 2007; Paredes Scribner, Crow, Lopez, & Murtadha, 2011). The primary method by which principals engage in instructional improvement is through classroom observations (Hill & Grossman, 2013) and these observations have "the potential to take on an instructional role if there is some sort of feedback

or follow-up discussion between principals and teachers about what happened in the classroom" (Ing, 2009, pp. 341-342).

The second assumption guiding this study is that effective principals differentiate supervision for teachers based on a host of variables. Successful principals understand a one-size-fits-all approach to supervision does not consider individual learning styles and "teachers are unique in terms of their pedagogy, experience, and content knowledge" (Haag, Kissel, Shoniker, & Stover, 2011, p. 499). To frame this study, teacher variables identified include tenure status and gender as the researchers assume effective principals might consider these variables when applying supervisory tasks. Both tenure status and gender might influence how teachers approach the context of their classrooms and react to feedback disseminated by principals after classroom observations (Guramatunhu-Mudiwa & Bolt, 2012; Walker & Slear, 2011).

Supervision

Formative supervision requires principals collect data on teacher effectiveness throughout the school year while teachers are performing their duties (Matthews & Crow, 2010) and hinges on the notion principals develop "a trusting relationship with [teachers] and provide intellectual service designed to improve [teachers'] practice and student learning" (Nolan & Hoover, 2008, p. 4). The primary goal for providing formative supervision is to assess how teachers are growing instructionally as opposed to assigning merit to their performance. When performed consistently, formative supervision reduces teachers' tension about performance, encourages teachers to de-isolate and work with peers, and provides a clear focus on how teachers can improve their practice (Namaghi, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, the authors use Zepeda's (2013) description of formative supervision and its two general methods: formal and informal observations. Formal observations occur when teachers have prior knowledge principals will observe their lesson, and formal observations might last 30 minutes to one hour, depending on whether the observation takes place in elementary or secondary schools (Zepeda, 2013). Formal observations usually follow the clinical supervision model, which is defined as a model or approach to supervision, one that is interactive rather than directive between principals and teachers (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2009). Clinical supervision contains three primary components: (a) a pre-observation conference in which principals and teachers meet to discuss the format and outcomes of the upcoming formal observation; (b) the formal classroom observation by principals in which they collect data on a variety of classroom variables; and (c) the post-observation conference in which principals provide feedback to teachers based on data collected during the observation, discuss plans for professional growth, and set the focus for the next formal observation (Kalule & Bouchamma, 2014).

Informal observations are similar to formal observations in that principals provide feedback to teachers after lessons (Ing, 2009). However, informal observations typically are shorter than formal observations, usually 10 to 30 minutes, and are not precluded with a pre-observation conference so teachers do not have prior knowledge they will be observed (Zepeda, 2013). An informal observation strategy recommended for principals, called *classroom walkthroughs*, allows principals to collect considerable data about instruction in a short period of time through a wide lens, meaning principals collect information on many classroom indicators (Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Zepeda, 2013). For example, Downey, Steffy, Poston, and English

(2010) and the Center for Educational Leadership at the University of Washington (Fink & Markholt, 2011) require principals to collect data about similar classroom variables which include student engagement, curriculum and pedagogy, classroom environment and climate, and purpose of instruction.

After formal or informal observations, it is important for principals to provide constructive feedback to teachers if principals expect instructional growth. "The assumption that feedback is a necessary component of instructional improvement draws from research on formative assessment" (Ing, 2009, p. 342). Specifically, teachers require ongoing feedback that helps identify areas for future growth (Ovando, 2005; Robinson et al., 2008; Stronge & Hindman, 2003), affirms their efforts (Roberson & Roberson, 2008), and identifies areas in which they can improve (Ovando, 2005; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Zepeda (2013) characterized formative feedback as a conversation between principals and teachers that identifies strengths and weaknesses of the lesson, facilitates self-reflection, and promotes a professional growth plan to remediate areas that need improvement. Nolan and Hoover (2008) believed effective feedback is generated based on observed data, encourages teachers to reflect about their practice and brainstorm alternative instructional strategies, and emphasizes teacher strengths to reinforce teaching behaviors that positively impact student learning. Feedback that causes teachers to reflect is critical, and Nolan and Hoover categorized teacher self-reflection, instigated by feedback, into four types: (a) analysis of one's own actions, (b) analysis of one's own development as a teacher, (c) analysis of one's own beliefs about instructional practices, and (d) analysis of oneself and his/her place in the school community.

Supervision Differences in Tenure Status and Gender

This study includes two unique supervisory issues principals face in schools, namely the supervision of non-tenured versus tenured teachers and the supervision of male and female teachers (Guramatunhu-Mudiwa & Bolt, 2012; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Roberson & Roberson, 2008; Scherff, 2008; Shakeshaft, 2006). Principals benefit from adopting a developmental supervisory stance when working with non-tenured teachers and tenured teachers (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordan, 2005; Zepeda, 2013). Non-tenured teachers present a set of unique needs for principals focused on providing effective supervision (Fry, 2009; Le Maistre & Pare, 2010; Scherer, 2012). As a result, researchers have argued non-tenured teachers' supervision should be different than tenured teachers (Elliott, Isaacs, & Chugani, 2010; Glickman et al., 2009). In this style, principals recognize novice teachers as individuals with unique needs and tailor their formative supervision to maximize novice teachers' potential (Glickman et al., 2005). Additionally, tenured teachers require specialized supervisory support from principals, as many tenured teachers have advanced skill sets. Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) argued high-performing tenured teachers who lack supervision that challenges them and causes them to reflect deeply about their teaching might begin to disengage from the profession. Providing supervisory feedback to tenured teachers that is focused and deep enough to elicit instructional change is a challenge for principals, especially novice principals or principals who do not have specific content areas expertise.

Secondly, the gender of teachers has important effects on teachers' perceptions of leadership and supervision in schools, and gender interaction and leadership characteristics are critical to understanding group and individual dynamics (Eckman, 2004; Ion & Folch, 2009). Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, and Keiser (2012) found "research demonstrates that men and

women have different leadership styles and suggests that subordinates of both genders identify with and prefer one of these" (p. 2). Shakeshaft (2006) posited female teachers working under the leadership of a female principal feel empowered in their classroom; male teachers feel their classroom power is curtailed under the leadership of a female principal. Grissom et al. (2012) concluded:

> Female teachers' outcomes are quite similar under both male and female principals. They are also similar to male teachers who work for men, implying that gender congruence does not matter much in male-led schools. In schools with female principals, however, congruence matters. Male teachers' satisfaction is lower in those schools…if the principal is female; men tend to have lower satisfaction and higher turnover than their female colleagues. (p. 19)

Summary of Literature

The literature review is designed to frame this study, inform the items included on the survey, and highlight two supervisory issues principals face, namely the time commitment associated with supervision and differentiating the process for novice and experienced teachers. First, as explained in the literature review and used in this study, formal classroom observations occur when teachers have prior knowledge they will be observed and typically follow the clinical supervision model. Conversely, informal classroom observations and classroom walkthroughs occur when teachers do not have prior knowledge they will be observed and are generally shorter than formal observations. Finally, feedback dispensed to teachers about classroom observations is important for teachers' instructional growth and should be different for teachers based on their developmental level. Thus, these issues of time and differentiation within supervisory processes set the stage for this study.

Context

Five school districts in a Midwest state agreed to participate in the study and were selected because district level leaders agreed to disseminate the survey to teachers. Table 1 displays general demographic information about the school districts.

Table 1

Demographic Information for Five School Districts

District	Total Enrollment	Free/ Reduced Lunch %	Average Daily Attendance %	Graduation %	Total Teachers	Teachers' Average Years of Experience
1	2671	51.3	92.2	88	245	15.1
2	4236	49.9	95.5	95	302	12.4
3	2561	69.3	94.1	92	240	14.8
4	1711	62.7	94.6	82	230	13.1
5	2336	65.8	93.7	83	246	11.4

Note: School districts have been assigned a number to protect confidentiality; all school districts had a teacher probationary period of three years

According to district level leaders in each of the five school districts, formal observations followed the clinical supervision cycle (pre-observation conference, formal observation, and post-observation) and lasted approximately 30 minutes to one hour in elementary schools. Because secondary schools (middle schools and high schools) followed a block schedule, formal observations lasted one hour to 90 minutes. Additionally, according to district level leaders, the length of informal observations varied based on school sites, and none of the five school districts mandated principals use classroom walkthroughs as a tool in providing formative supervision. Per state statute in this Midwest state, non-tenured teachers received one formal and one informal observation each year until they reached their tenure year. Tenured teachers received one informal observation each year and one formal observation every five years.

Method

The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore teachers' perceptions about their formative supervision and observational ability of the principals with whom they work using an online survey. The following questions guided the inquiry: (1) how often and for how long are teachers formally and informally observed by principals; (2) how willing are teachers to be observed by principals; and (3) what feedback do teachers receive from principals after observations? An email that explained the purpose of the study and included the survey link was sent to all principals in the five school districts, and they were asked to forward the survey to their teachers. Two reminder emails were sent to non-respondents encouraging them to participate in the survey. In the end, the survey was sent to 1,263 teachers and 255 completed the survey, a response rate of 20%.

Instrument

The instrument used in the data collection was a survey adapted from a previous supervision inquiry (Brown & Coley, 2011) and was designed to measure three constructs concerning principals' formative supervision: (a) how often and for how long principals conducted formally and informal observations, (b) how teachers perceived these observations, and (c) how teachers perceived principals' feedback concerning various indicators of instruction. Five items used a forced choice scale to measure how often and for how long principals conducted formal and informal observations. Four items on the survey used a Likert-scale (1=do not agree, 2=slightly agree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree) to measure teachers' willingness to be observed. Seven items on the survey used a Likert scale (1=do not agree, 2=slightly agree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree) to measure the perceptions of teachers concerning constructive feedback on seven classroom indicators: (a) curriculum issues, (b) instructional strategies, (c) student engagement, (d) classroom climate, (e) level of thinking, (f) lesson objectives, and (g) reflection. The survey collected demographic information about the respondents and concluded with one open-ended question in which teachers could identify areas of their classroom performance they deemed warranted feedback in improving their instructional practice. In order to determine internal consistency for the instrument, Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated on two sections of the survey. Reliability coefficients included the willingness to be observed items (0.84) and principals' feedback on the seven indicators (0.95). Additionally, to establish content validity, the survey was reviewed by two university faculty with 37 years combined experience supervising teachers and one assistant superintendent for supervision and curriculum in one of the school districts that agreed to participate in the study.

Participants

Of those teachers who responded to the survey, 77.6% (n=190) were female while 19.6% (n=48) were male. Respondents' average years of teaching experience were 15.7 years, with a range of 1 to 43 years. Respondents' average number of years of total teaching experience was 13.81 years, and average number of years teaching in their current school was 7.68. The majority of teachers were tenured (67%; n=164), while 30% (n=73) were non-tenured teachers. Respondents' level of teaching was categorized as follows: (a) 46% (n=111) taught elementary school, (b) 18% (n=43) taught middle school, and (c) 29% (n=69) taught high school.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed descriptively and inferentially. Descriptive statistics included frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations and were disaggregated by tenure status and gender. Inferential statistics included independent sample t-tests and effect sizes. Finally, researchers coded respondents' answers to the open-ended question (Namey, Guest, Thairu, & Johnson, 2008). To do this, the researchers first read through respondents' answers to get a general feel for potential themes and then coded themes openly and axially (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

Findings

To establish how often principals observed teachers based on tenure status and gender, five forced choice items on the survey asked teachers to select the number and length of formal and informal observations by principals. Table 2 displays this information.

Table 2

Number and Percentages of Formal and Informal Observations by Principals

	Teacher Type			
	Tenure Status N (%)		Gender N (%)	
	Non	Tenured	Male	Female
Formal Observations:				
None	2 (3%)	33 (20%)	6(13%)	28 (15%)
Once	18 (25%)	66 (40%)	18 (38%)	66 (35%)
2-4 times	49 (67%)	62 (38%)	23 (48%)	90 (47%)
5-7 times	3 (4%)	2 (1%)	1 (2%)	4 (2%)
8 or more times	1 (1%)	1 (0.6%)	0	2 (1%)
Informal Observations:				
None	6 (8%)	18 (11%)	4 (8%)	21 (11%)
Once	8 (11%)	16 (10%)	5 (10%)	20 (11%)
2-4 times	43 (59%)	77 (47%)	24 (50%)	95 (50%)
5-7 times	10 (14%)	23 (14%)	8 (17%)	25 (13%)
8 or more times	6 (8%)	30 (18%)	7 (15%)	29 (15%)

Note: 17 teachers did not indicate gender; 18 teachers did not indicate tenure status

A majority of non-tenured teachers (n=49; 67%) reported principals formally observed their classrooms two to four times the previous year while tenured teachers (n=66; 40%) reported principals observed their classrooms one time the previous year. Non-tenured teachers (n=43; 59%) and tenured teachers (n=77; 47%) reported similar numbers of informal observations by

principals. When data are viewed through the lens of gender, both male teachers and female teachers reported similar views in regards to formal and informal observations by principals. Both male (n=23; 48%) and female teachers (n=90; 47%) reported principals formally observed them two to four times the previous year, as well as, male teachers (n=24; 50%) and female teachers (n=95; 50%) reported principals informally observed their classroom two to four times the previous year.

Table 3 displays the number and percentages regarding length of time principals spent observing teachers during formal and informal observations.

Table 3

Length of Formal and Informal Classroom Observations by Principals

	Teacher Type			
	Tenure Status N (%)		Gender N (%)	
	Non	Tenured	Male	Female
Formal Observations:				
Not observed	2 (3%)	28 (17%)	6 (13%)	23 (12%)
Less than 10 minutes	9 (12%)	12 (8%)	7 (15%)	14 (8%)
10-30 minutes	33 (45%)	72 (45%)	20 (42%)	86 (47%)
31-60 minutes	28 (38%)	47 (30%)	15 (31%)	61 (33%)
More than 60 minutes	1 (1%)	0	0	0
Informal Observations:				
Not observed	5 (7%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)
Less than 10 minutes	44 (60%)	16 (10%)	16 (10%)	19 (10%)
10-30 minutes	20 (27%)	110 (68%)	110 (68%)	124 (66%)
31-60 minutes	4 (6%)	36 (22%)	36 (22%)	41 (22%)
More than 60 minutes	0	0	0	4 (2%)

Note: 17 teachers did not indicate gender; 18 teachers did not indicate tenure status

In regards to tenure status, both non-tenured teachers (n=33; 45%) and tenured teachers (n=72; 45%) reported principals' formal observations lasted 10 to 30 minutes. Non-tenured teachers (n=44; 60%) reported principals' informal observations lasted less than 10 minutes

while tenured teachers (n=110; 68%) stated informal observations lasted 10 to 30 minutes. Similarly, both male teachers (n=20; 42%) and female teachers (n=86; 47%) reported principals' formal observations lasted 10 to 30 minutes. Male teachers (n=30; 63%) reported principals' informal classroom visits lasted less than 10 minutes, while female teachers (n=124; 66%) reported principals' informal classroom visits lasted 10 to 30 minutes.

Teachers were asked to rate four statements (1=do not agree to 4=agree) designed to measure their willingness to be observed by principals. Table 4 displays the means, standard deviations, t-test results, and effect sizes for these items. In order to control for an inflated Type I error rate, a Bonferroni adjustment (.05/4) was applied to each of the four t-tests. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's D (Cohen, 1988).

Table 4
Teachers' Willingness to be Observed based on Tenure and Gender

	Tenure Status				Gender			
	Non	Tenured			Male	Female		
Statement	M (SD)	M (SD)	t (*p*)	ES	M (SD)	M (SD)	t (*p*)	ES
I welcome visits to my classroom.	3.74 (0.62)	3.63 (0.84)	0.98 (*p*=0.33)	0.07	3.60 (0.89)	3.68 (0.75)	0.62 (*p*=0.53)	0.04
I am encouraged after my principal provides feedback	3.51 (0.84)	3.21 (1.08)	2.07 (*p*=0.04)	0.15	3.31 (1.01)	3.31 (1.02)	0.04 (*p*=0.97)	0
I believe principal visits to my classroom make me a better teacher	3.37 (0.96)	2.96 (1.21)	**2.52 (*p*=0.01)**	0.18	2.94 (1.14)	3.14 (1.15)	1.09 (*p*=0.28)	0.08
I am encouraged after my principal observes my classroom	3.32 (0.88)	2.90 (1.16)	**2.71 (*p*<0.001)**	0.20	2.96 (1.09)	3.05 (1.10)	0.53 (*p*=0.60)	0.04

Note: Scale ranged from 1=do not agree, 2=slightly agree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree; bold type denotes a significant difference at the 0.01 (.05/4) level.

Both non-tenured teachers (M=3.74) and tenured teachers (M=3.63) agreed the most with the statement *I welcome visits to my classroom by my principal*. When comparing non-tenured and tenured teachers' responses, non-tenured teachers agreed with all statements more than tenured teachers, indicating non-tenured teachers agreed more with willingness to be observed by principals. Finally, results of the independent *t*-tests indicated non-tenured teachers agreed significantly more than tenured teachers that *principal visits to their classrooms made them better teachers* (t=2.52, p=0.01) and were *encouraged after principal observations* (t=2.71, p<0.001). Effect sizes for both these items were in the small range indicating tenure has a small effect on teachers' beliefs about the impact of principals' visits to classrooms.

Disaggregating data by gender, both male (M=3.60) and female (M=3.68) teachers also agreed the most with the same statement *I welcome visits to my classroom by my principal*. When comparing their attitudes, female teachers agreed more than male teachers on three of the four statements: *I welcome visits* (M=3.68); *I believe visits make me a better teacher* (M=3.14); and *I am encouraged after observations* (M=3.05). However, none of these differences were significant.

Teachers were asked to rate seven statements (1=do not agree to 4=agree) designed to measure feedback they received from principals after observations. These seven statements included classroom indicators principals might collect data about during classroom observations and included: (a) student engagement, (b) classroom climate, (c) instructional strategies, (d) reflection, (e) lesson objectives, (f) curriculum issues, and (g) students' level of thinking. Table 5 displays the means, standard deviations, t-test results, and effect sizes for these items. In order to control for an inflated Type I error rate, a Bonferroni adjustment (.05/7) was applied to each of the seven t-tests. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's D (Cohen, 1988).

Table 5

Teachers' Perceptions about Principals' Feedback based on Tenure and Gender

	Tenure Status				Gender			
	Non	Tenured			Male	Female		
Feedback:	M (SD)	M (SD)	t (*p*)	ES	M (SD)	M (SD)	t (*p*)	ES
On climate of classroom	3.32 (0.96)	2.98 (1.11)	2.20 (*p*=0.03)	0.16	2.77 (1.11)	3.17 (1.05)	2.31 (*p*=0.02)	0.18
On student engagement	3.32 (0.95)	2.93 (1.12)	**2.73 (*p*<0.001)**	0.18	2.77 (1.13)	3.12 (1.07)	2.01 (*p*=0.05)	0.16
On instructional strategies	3.07 (1.05)	2.88 (1.11)	1.20 (*p*=0.23)	0.09	2.60 (1.16)	3.03 (1.07)	2.41 (*p*=0.02)	0.19
Causes me to reflect	3.10 (0.95)	2.81 (1.15)	2.00 (*p*=0.05)	0.14	2.67 (1.17)	2.96 (1.07)	1.65 (*p*=0.10)	0.13
On curriculum issues	3.07 (1.11)	2.80 (1.22)	1.64 (*p*=0.10)	0.11	2.54 (1.11)	2.98 (1.20)	2.31 (*p*=0.02)	0.19
On students' level of thinking	2.99 (1.02)	2.73 (1.12)	1.64 (*p*=0.10)	0.12	2.55 (1.10)	2.87 (1.08)	1.81 (*p*=0.72)	0.15
On lesson objectives	2.92 (1.11)	2.75 (1.13)	1.02 (*p*=0.31)	0.08	2.46 (1.07)	2.89 (1.13)	2.39 (*p*=0.02)	0.19

Note: Scale ranged from 1=do not agree, 2=slightly agree, 3=somewhat agree, 4=agree; bold type denotes a significant difference at the 0.00 (.05/7) level.

Non-tenured teachers agreed the most principals provided *feedback about their classroom climate* (M=3.32) and about *student engagement* (M=3.32). Tenured teachers agreed most principals provided *feedback concerning classroom climate* (M=2.98). Non-tenured teachers agreed more with all seven statements than tenured teachers indicating a more positive attitude about principals' feedback after classroom observations. Results of the independent *t*-tests indicated non-tenured teachers agreed significantly more than tenured teachers that principals provided them *feedback on student engagement* (t=2.73, p<0.001), and the effect size for this item was in the small range indicating tenure has a small effect on teachers' perceptions about principals' feedback on student engagement.

When looking at data through the lens of gender, male teachers agreed with all but one of the seven statements, with their lowest rated statement being principals' feedback on lesson objectives (M=2.46). Female teachers agreed more strongly with all seven statements when

compared to male teachers. Female teachers agreed most principals provided *feedback about their classroom climates* (M=3.17), while male teachers agreed most principals provided *feedback on the climate of their classrooms* and on *student engagement*. There were no significant differences on any of the statements in regards to gender.

To further understand teachers' desires about feedback they expected from principals after classroom visits, respondents' answers to the open-ended item that asked teachers to describe constructive feedback they expected from principals were coded by the researchers. Initial coding resulted in 15 general themes that were collapsed into three specific themes and included principals' feedback on *student engagement*, *classroom management*, and *instructional strategies*. Several respondents' answers identified at least two of these themes in the same response. For example, one respondent stated, "I expect feedback on how well students were engaged, how well I meet curriculum objectives, and how well I manage my classroom."

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to ascertain teachers' perceptions concerning principals' formative supervision and can be summarized as follows: (a) there was no discernible patterns that emerged in regards to the number and length of formal and informal observations by principals based on teachers' tenure status or gender; (b) non-tenured teachers were more willing to be observed by principals than tenured teachers, and non-tenured teachers agreed significantly more than tenured teachers that principals' visits to their classrooms improved their instruction. Additionally, non-tenured teachers were more positive about receiving feedback from principals concerning seven classroom behaviors (curriculum issues, instructional strategies, student engagement, classroom climate, level of thinking, lesson objectives, and reflection) than tenured teachers, and non-tenured teachers agreed significantly more than tenured teachers that principals provided them constructive feedback about student engagement in the classrooms; (c) although none of the comparisons were significant, female teachers rated a majority of the willingness to be observed items higher than male teachers, and female teachers were more positive about feedback received from principals on all seven classroom behaviors than male teachers. Both findings indicate female teachers were more positive than male teachers about formative supervision processes dispensed by principals; and (d) results from both the quantitative data and open-ended item analysis indicated teachers expected principals to provide constructive feedback about student engagement in their classrooms.

Regarding the views of non-tenured and tenured teachers in this study, Zepeda (2013) posited principals face a predicament in providing formative supervision to non-tenured teachers and tenured teachers because their needs are very different. Study findings support Zepeda's description of the career stages and developmental needs of teachers because non-tenured teachers' attitudes about willingness to be observed seem to align with career stage 4, labeled *enthusiasm*, in which teachers have high job satisfaction. That is, non-tenured teachers' attitudes about principals' observations indicate they perceive feedback on many classroom tasks as important, a trait that might be perceived as a flaw because it causes non-tenured teachers to be unfocused on those instructional behaviors that have the highest impact on student performance (Hattie, 2012). Additionally, results concur with Range, Young, and Hvidston (2013) who argued non-tenured teachers typically struggle with low level teaching behaviors like lesson planning, classroom management, and time management. Because such behaviors can be easily remediated when principals provide immediate feedback, this might cause non-tenured teachers

to view supervision provided by principals as more effective than tenured teachers. Tenured teachers may not receive as much direct contact with principals and might not receive similar feedback on basic classroom structures.

Additionally, results highlight differences in how male teachers perceive feedback and willingness to be observed by principals when compared to female teachers. Male teachers were less positive about principals' feedback and classroom observations than female teachers, and results support studies that highlight the differences in how male and female teachers view principals' leadership (Guramatunhu-Mudiwa & Bolt, 2012; Shakeshaft, 2006). The researchers speculate that because most respondents were female elementary teachers, they were likely supervised by female principals and results would support literature that reports female teachers are more positive about the leadership of female principals, while male teachers are less positive about their leadership.

Implications

Results from this study provide implications for practice surrounding the demographic variables explored in this study. Principals should acknowledge the varied needs of non-tenured and tenured teachers and apply differentiated support to both groups. For non-tenured teacher supervision, the challenge for principals is to start small regarding supervisory feedback. That is, non-tenured teachers typically struggle with low level teaching behaviors including student management, and most struggle to gain confidence in their own abilities as they attempt to find their place in school cultures. As a result, supervisory feedback provided by principals to non-tenured teachers should be highly focused and principal directed. For example, principals might select to provide feedback on only two classroom indicators (i.e. student engagement and lesson objectives) throughout the school year, as well as, provide support regarding classroom management. The end goal of this strategy is to provide support to non-tenured teachers based on management problems literature has routinely illuminated they encounter and not overwhelm them with feedback on classroom variables they do not yet have the confidence to address.

Additionally, principals' supervision of tenured teachers has to be equally well-planned and focused, as the results indicate tenured teachers were less positive about principals' formative supervisory classroom observations and feedback. The researchers assume the skill sets of tenured teachers are well developed, resulting in confidence concerning many of the classroom traits measured in this study. As a result, the challenge for principals is to keep tenured teachers' enthusiasm for instructional growth at high levels. A primary way in which principals might foster the importance of formative supervision with tenured teachers is through teacher leadership initiatives. To do this, principals might actively engage high-performing tenured teachers to share instructional leadership responsibilities like aligning curriculum, setting school-wide instructional foci, analyzing student data, and leading peers in meaningful ways.

Furthermore, results provide insight into the views of male teachers concerning their willingness to be observed and the feedback received from principals after classroom observations. It is important for female principals to consider the needs of male teachers and their potential responses to supervisory feedback as past literature has suggested male teachers are less receptive to feedback dispensed by female principals. As a result, educational administration programs that train aspiring principals should present literature that highlights gender's nexus with leadership, which illuminates the leadership styles of male and female principals and how the gender of teachers might impact receptivity of supervisory feedback.

Finally, a further implication centers on the supervisory ability of novice versus experienced principals. Experienced principals should be able to devote more time to supervision and should be better able to differentiate the process for teachers than novice principals. Experienced principals should have a better grasp on managerial issues that typically divert time away from supervision, and as a result, are better at providing instructional leadership than novice principals. Districts that hire novice principals should acknowledge this shortcoming and provide support to novice principals as they attempt to become instructional leaders. Additionally, educational administration programs that train aspiring principals need to be forthright in their instruction about the challenges novice principals face and provide their students with concrete ways in which they can oversee managerial leadership tasks.

Limitations

This small teacher supervision study is limited in that data were collected from principals in five school districts in a Midwest state. As a result, generalizing the results of this study to other states is debatable. Additionally, the study had the following limitations: (a) the response rate to the survey was 20%; (b) data were collected from teachers and not from principals; (c) data were not collected on the gender of principals, as such data would be important to correlate the views of male teachers to either supervising male or female principals; and (d) data were not collected on the experience of principals, as more experienced principals might devote more time to formative supervision and might be better at differentiating the process for teachers. To further support the findings of this study by applying these limitations, the researchers recommend a similar study be conducted which collects information from principals including their perceptions about supervision, their years of experience, and their gender. Additionally, the researchers argue a qualitative study in which principals and teachers were interviewed about time devoted to supervision and how supervision processes might be differentiated would provide more in-depth information for practitioners and researchers.

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Principal Candidates Create Decision-making Simulations to Prepare for the JOB

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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Online simulations offer opportunities for trial and error decision-making. What better tool for a principal than to make decisions when the consequences will not have real-world ramifications. In this study, two groups of graduate students in a principal preparation program taking the same course in the same semester use online simulations differently. The control group accessed online decision-making simulations and practiced making decisions for the represented scenario. Using a peer apprenticeship model, the experimental group of students created simulations and decision trees leading to solutions of the same problem in an online tool called SimWriterSimplicity. While both groups of students indicate that online simulations helped them solve problems, students who actually developed their own simulations walked away with more leadership skills. This process offers principal preparation programs a tool for internship experiences that also accommodate the graduate student working full time.

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Introduction

Learning to become a principal is vastly different from the training it takes to become a teacher. A principal must posses the knowledge and skills to teach and manage students and adults as well as the knowledge and skills required of leadership and supervision. Principal candidates come to the leadership preparation program with different teaching backgrounds and varied years of experience. Some candidates have led school committees or participated in union leadership positions while other graduate students are coming to the program to renew a teaching license. In either case, the candidates have most likely not been responsible for making decisions that affect adults, evaluate the skills of a teacher, handle difficult parent conversations, or forge partnerships with community members in support of the school. Instead, principals have had to learn on the job through trial and error. Performance as a school principal requires the management and operation of the building. The position is also expanding its expectations and skill competencies to manage and lead instructional improvement within a technology rich environment (Berry & Bravender, 2012). In a study conducted by Benjamin H. Dotger (2011) on the use of simulations to practice social interactions, a school leader explained, "When I started as an assistant principal, everything I learned was on the job, and there are times where, reflecting on them, there are things I would have done differently."

Principal preparation programs have been criticized for not providing candidates with the skills necessary to begin their work as school leaders. There appears to be a gap between the preparation of school leaders and the actual readiness to become a principal. The Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) in 2011 published a revised set of standards for the development of school leaders in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) preparation programs. It is clear from ELCC that the job of preparation programs is to develop in candidates a set of knowledge and skills that are demonstrated, practiced, and assessed during the graduate student's college experience. Leadership preparation programs should include three dimensions:

- Awareness – acquiring concepts, information, definitions and procedures
- Understanding – interpreting, integrating and using knowledge and skills
- Application – applying knowledge and skills to new or specific opportunities or problems (ELCC, 2011)

A review of the research on the effectiveness of university-based leadership preparation programs by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) identifies specific program features that have a high impact on principal preparation. In this list, supervised field experiences are recommended as a significant component to leadership development. Field experiences provide the context to observe first-hand and participate in events specific to the job of the principal. While principal preparation programs are searching for internship models that provide candidates with optimal experiences, the reality is that the candidates work full time as teachers and their leadership "practice" is often piecemeal or episodic. In most cases, candidates take on the leadership tasks that can accommodate after school availability. Opportunities to practice the day-to-day activities of a principal are compromised.

Simulations have been used by the military for over 200 years in order to prepare soldiers for the problem solving strategy needed on the battlefield. Past battles provide the backdrop for issues or conflicts that must be solved quickly when in combat. Decision-making without the knowledge of the environment and potential consequences for alternatives is a shot in the dark.

"Seeing and understanding these relationships prepares the mind for decisions in a complex environment" (Rubel, 2006, p.110). While the simulation environment may not precisely resemble real life given the nuances of human interactions, the candidate has the benefit of trial and error practice to become a more informed decision-maker in similar experience in the future**.** The use of online simulations in principal preparation programs can become the field practice for such decision-making.

The purpose of this study was to compare the development and use of simulations as a pedagogical tool between two groups of graduate students taking the same leadership course, the same semester in a principal preparation program.

Theoretical Framework

"The preparation of school leaders requires overt connections and bridging experiences between research and practice" (NCATE, 2011, p. 6). It is not enough to provide students with leadership theory, the steps to school improvement, or decision-making models. Leadership programs must implement pedagogical strategies that assist the learner to move from acquiring knowledge to the application of that knowledge. Benjamin Bloom (1956) theorized that learning takes place within the cognitive domain. He explains the cognitive domain as six categories of acquiring, comprehending and applying knowledge to deepening the learner's understanding by analyzing the knowledge. Deep knowledge occurs when the leaner is then able to synthesize and evaluate what is learned. This is the level at which the knowledge can be applied to different situations to solve problems in new ways. The pedagogical processes examined in this study are primarily represented in the cognitive domain. The six categories of the cognitive domain can be thought of as outcomes for learning.

The influence of Bloom is evident in a model developed by Edgar Dale (1969) to illustrate theories of learning. See figure 1. The cone-shaped model starting at the top of the pyramid illustrates a small percentage of what people actually remember when they read. A greater percentage of recall occurs when someone hears information, increasing when a person sees and hears information. As the pyramid expands to include what a person says and writes, so does the amount of the memory. Toward the bottom of the pyramid, Dale theorizes that experience in the forms of role-play, simulations, and direct purposeful experiences have the greatest impact on retention, with direct purposeful experiences being the most beneficial.

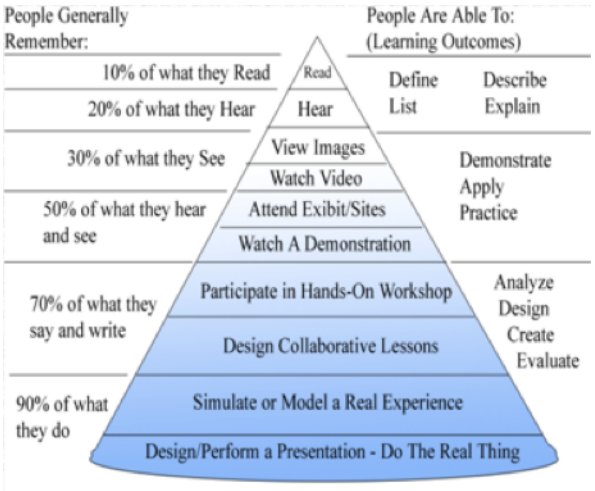

Figure 1. Dale's Cone of Experience
Source: Adapted from E. Dale, *Audiovisual Methods in Teaching*, 1969, NY: Dryden Press

Learning is an active process. Learners construct knowledge or new ideas by making meaning from information and experiences (Bruner, 1960). The selection and transformation of information, making decisions and then generating hypotheses during experiences frame the direct and purposeful experiences described by Dale. The closer an experience is to the actual on-the-job activities of a principal, the more likely the learner will use the concepts learned from the experience in a future setting. Designing realistic problems for principal candidates to practice decision-making constructs will reinforce and refine their skills.

The value of field experiences is derived from theorists expounding tenets of apprenticeship. Learning takes place by immersing students in a community of practice similar to the role for which they are being prepared. Students must participate in authentic activities in a situational context that reflects the cultural norms of the environment thus permitting students to "assimilate the covert aspects of that practice" (Brown et al. in Hung & Nichani, 2002, p. 7). The process of cognitive apprenticeship allows the learner to acquire, develop, and use the cognitive tools unique to the particular field through collaborative social interaction and the social construction of knowledge (Brown et al, 1989). Hung (1999) extended the theory of cognitive apprenticeship by examining the influence of peers and masters in the field. Dynamics of peer interactions provide a basis for stimulating and thought-provoking discussions that deepen the learning experience. Guidance from a professor or expert in the field creates further opportunities for the development of understandings and skills in the learner. Thus, the concept of Peer Apprenticeship is the working together of peers and masters "in the learning situation through the process of modeling-mirroring, scaffolding-submitting, and coaching and constructing" (Hung, p.6).

Simulation

A meta-analysis of the simulation research indicates strong support for computer simulations in the learning process (Gokhale, 1996). Simulations can enhance students' ability to solve problems by offering stimulating environmental problems. Ebner and Druckman (2012) set the

stage for a comparative study on the design and authorship of simulations versus role-play and text-based simulations. They found that when students created their own simulations, students experienced enhanced short-term concept learning, deeper understanding of the concepts presented, long-term retention of the concepts, and higher degrees of motivation and engagement among participants.

Technology has moved to the forefront in today's college classes. Students come to the university with technology skills and experiences in online game playing. They use computers and technology in everyday actions. The work done by Ebner and Druckman (2012) does not use technology and the differences technology can offer in design and use of simulations versus paper-based resources. Technology provides the means to develop, shape, and facilitate learning (Berry & Staub, 2011). Internet-applications allow for greater access to simulations by participants, including the ability to test and track student performance. Participants can be allowed multiple attempts to solve a given problem (Driscoll, 2002). Resources are more easily manipulated in online simulations, providing opportunities for analysis and synthesis by the players (McLaughlan & Kirkpatrick, 2005). There is also a level of social interaction that enhances the online experience. Each group member of an online activity will search for similar patterns to determine if they may have something in common with other group members to ultimately learn content (Bravender, 2009). The interaction provides support, offers ideas from other participants, and probes the thinking of the participants.

Research Questions

This study explored the development and use of simulations as a pedagogical tool for practicing decision making in a school context. Two groups of graduate students taking the same course during the same semester in a leadership preparation program using simulations in two different formats were compared.

Q1: What are graduate students' perceptions of their learning and development of skills when they *design* online decision-making simulations?

Q2: What are graduate students' perceptions of their learning and development of skills when they *participate* in online decision-making simulations?

Method

This educational research study explored the experiences of graduate students in two graduate level courses that utilized SimWriter Simplicity simulation software as part of the course requirements. The control group worked through previously designed simulations. The experimental group not only worked through one previously designed simulation, but those students were tasked with simulation creation. Experimental student teams used district and community information to provide a context for the school scenarios they created. Along with selected concepts from the course, the experimental students determined the outcomes of the simulation (how the decision would occur), branching, realism of the scenarios, constraints, and the nature of decisions and consequences.

Participants

All participants were pursuing a graduate degree in educational administration and supervision from a large public mid-western university. The majority of participants plan to use their degree

to obtain a leadership position in education. The control and experimental students were registered in two separate Individual and Organizations courses offered in the spring semester held in a hybrid format. Both classes met every other week from 5:00pm-8:00pm with a minimum of two hours of work to be completed online each week. The control group consisted of 24 students where the experimental group had 12 students.

Procedures

Prior to any simulation exposure each participant was given a pre-course survey that asked questions related to simulation use in a teacher preparation program as well as perceptions of value and practice. A Likert Scale from one to five was provided for each survey item, with one as strongly disagree to five as strongly agree.

Case Study Assignment

Next, both classes of students were asked to read the case study. The assignment contained a scenario that required the identification of actions and steps a principal would take while leading staff in an educational organization. Students submitted a written response to the case scenario. The assignment was graded based on the number of individual leadership actions and the number of actions that were collaborative.

After the case study assignments were submitted the control group of 24 students worked through three previously designed simulations, covering educational issues relevant to school leader decision-making. This was done in teams of three or four students. They explored a dress code dilemma, decision-making issues for a superintendent in the first month of employment, as well as job coaching with a hesitant teacher. In small teams the experimental group worked through the previously designed superintendent simulation just like the control group. After walking through one similar simulation, the experimental group was tasked with creating two fully designed simulations.

Software

SimWriter Simplicity is a windows-based software system that allows users to create decision-based learning simulations. Users can import Power Point slides or select from a variety of templates to facilitate the design process. A library of pre-made graphics, buttons, characters, and environments are provided enhance different parts of the simulation. A branching ability is provided in the design templates to allow for decision options linked to specific outcomes. Decision options can be assigned point values that lead to a final score at the end of the simulation. This allows for quick performance ranking from the designer set of learning objectives. Simulations can be exported as flash or html files.

Experimental Group

The experimental group of 12 students walked through the previously designed simulations as a demonstration of how a completed simulation may look and the design options available within the simulation software program. Once complete, the students were connected with three other classmates to create a simulation related to the course topics of Individuals and Organizations and school level leadership. Each team was tasked with working through the branching,

decision-making options, and fully developed simulations using SimWriter Professional. Each team of experimental group students followed a 5-stage process of simulation development. The framework for the design of the simulations followed a five-step process commonly used in environmental management simulations occurring over a five-week period. "The various stages and type of communication technology used have strong similarities to other online role-play simulations" (McLaughlan & Kirkpatrick, 2005, p.2). For the purposes of this study the five-step design was tailored to fit within a sixteen-week hybrid course format.

Stage 1 was the Briefing Stage. Participants became familiar with the concepts and purpose of simulation software initially through an instructor-led discussion. The student groups discussed possible topics and areas of interests that might be best suited for decision making via simulations. Each group was provided a list of parameters for a completed simulation. Each group would develop a simulation with a minimum of three objectives that the simulation user should explore through the process. There was to be a defined learning goal, information to prepare the participant to walk through the simulation, a vision statement for the educational institution in the scenario, any pertinent background information about the organization being examined including documents and any outside resources. In addition each group was tasked with creating a list of characters and pertinent attributes.

It was recommended that each team use graphics and an easy to read font. Each team was required to have a minimum of four decision points within the simulation. Each decision would allow the user to choose between three or more options, typically denoted as good, mediocre, or bad. With each choice the experimental group was expected to provide feedback to the simulation user before moving to another part of the simulation scenario. Each decision option and feedback would be tied to one or more of the objectives created by the groups at the beginning of this stage.

Stage 2 was the Adoption Stage. In this step the groups discussed their observations and experiences as professionals in the education field. Each student spent one or two weeks researching sources of school district data and topics related to the educational administration and supervision of a specific scenario of interest to assist in developing a simulation. Each group adopted a persona and background for all of the possible decision makers and catalysts that would be typical in the chosen scenario. At this stage the experimental group attended a training session on how to use the simulation software. A question and answer session allowed them to see a variety of design models that could be created within SimWriter Professional.

Stage 3 was the Interaction Stage. Each group compiled a list of roles that would likely play out in the given scenario for each group. These might be protagonists that show up after various decisions are made, for example, those that might interact with the principal in solving the problem, i.e. staff, teachers, parents, or other administrators in the district and community. Each group had to decide on a scenario and a catalyst for a decision by the educational administration persona that represented the group. The catalyst, or the stressor, was what caused the persona to begin making decisions in the simulation. After that initial decision the persona would encounter a series of events within the scenario leading to more decision-making points. Each group had to choose a classification for each possible decision option as noted in the adoption stage. Each team could use any combination of choices from good, mediocre, and bad. The simulation user must decide on only one option. Thus, participants were required to apply their understanding of various stakeholders and the simulated environment gained during the Briefing Stage to know at which decision option classification each possible option would fall.

Stage 4 was the Forum Stage. During this stage the participants were set to gain an

understanding of multiple perspectives about the educational scenario being presented. These perceptions come from the motivations and values ascribed by the team to each entity and interaction within the simulation. As the understanding of motivations and values of the simulation persona and constituent groups was determined, the motivations and values of the constituent groups were reshaped through the consequences of the good, mediocre, or bad decisions that were made by the persona in the simulation. During this stage the groups were able to discuss the logic of each decision and the connections the decision had to the school district data. Discussions would happen at each decision point, but this stage created a deep focus on the realistic nature of the decision options. The end goal was to present a simulation user with three viable options. All might create an end to the issue, but at least one option would be the most ideal for an educational leader. The realism discussions were informed by participants' previous experiences and classroom content. In this stage, the scenarios, artifacts, and decision trees were written into SimWriter Simplicity files.

The fifth and final stage was the Debriefing Stage. A completed simulation involved having a defined process of decisions in an educational administration context, appropriate interactions by the developed personas, text presented, order of operations designed, and graphics used to enhance the visuals noted by each participant. Students presented the final simulation to all of the other groups and the instructor. Each group walked through the cycle of the educational administration persona in the scenario and the various decision point options related to the topic of the simulation.

After the experimental groups presented the first simulations, these students were tasked with completing a second simulation. The teams continued with the same members as in the first round of simulation development. They had two weeks to complete the design and background information. The second time through creation, the teams were pushed to consider if the poor decision options they created were truly realistic. Would a leader be in a principal role if there were a history of poor decision-making? If not, then that decision option would be thrown out and replaced with something that seemed more realistic. The end goal was to present a simulation user with three viable and realistic options. All options were expected to create a realistic end to the issue, but one option would be the most successful for an educational leader. Then another two weeks were provided to actually create the simulation using the software with appropriate branching with text and graphics.

Revisiting the Case Study Assignment

Toward the final weeks of class both the control and experimental groups were given a second case study assignment. Just as in the initial assignment, this last piece was a scenario, which focused on a school leader identifying the need and steps for school vision and organizing and leading staff to achieve in that effort. Just as in the first assignment, students completed the assignment on their own. It was graded in the same format as in the first case study assignment. Once all simulation work and case study assignments were completed, both classes of students participated in a post-course survey related to the role of simulations in leadership preparation programs. It was the same survey that was provided earlier in the course.

Results

The scores from the initial case study assignment and final case study assignment were examined in SPSS. A bivariate correlation test revealed a statistically significant strong Pearson correlation

(.818) between the scores from the initial case study assignment from all students and those scores on the final case study assignment of students in the experimental group that were part of the simulation creation process. This correlation was significant at the .01 level. No correlation was found from the initial case study and final case study from those students who only worked through previously designed simulations.

Table 1

Correlation of Initial and Final Case Study Assignments

	Case Study Initial Attempt
Case Study Final Attempt Control Group	.020
Case Study Final Attempt Experimental Group	.818**

***significant at the .01 level*

An initial correlation among all pre and post-course survey 15 variables was calculated and examined for variance. Six major variables (V1-V6) were identified after ten survey questions were collapsed into a single variable (V1). This was determined using factor analysis through SPSS. V1 consisted of the perceptions of simulations in practice, such as learning new skills or how simulations might seem useful in future on-the-job decision-making. Variable 2 (V2) was perceptions about the ability of simulations to solve school-based problems. Variable 3 (V3) was perceptions about the ability of simulations to evaluate case studies. Variable 4 (V4) was perceptions about the ability of simulations to help develop new skills to understand current school based problems. Variable 5 (V5) was level of program of the participants such as master or doctoral program. Variable 6 (V6) was perceptions that simulations developed by individuals, or in teams, as helpful to overall learning. A bivariate correlation was run among variables 1-6. Five correlations of statistical significance were revealed (Tables 2 & 3).

Control group

Table two provides the statistically significant findings related to the control group in the simulation study. Two of the findings were significant at the .01 level and two were significant at the .05 level.

Table 2

Correlation matrix of control group

	Sims in Practice (V1)	Solve school-based problems (V2)	Evaluate case studies (V3)	Developed new skills to understand school based problems (V4)	Program Level (V5)	Building simulations to general learning (V6)
Sims in Practice (V1)	1	.995**	.685**	.635*	-.215	-.249
Solve school-based problems (V2)		1	.657*	.237	.068	-.127
Evaluate case studies (V3)			1	.017	-.348	-.158
Developed new skills to understand school based problems (V4)				1	.271	.231
Program Level (V5)					1	.388
Building simulations to general learning (V6)						1

**significant at the .05 level*
***significant at the .01 level*

A statistically significant relationship (.995) was revealed between the control group simulation in practice variable (V1) and the control group solve school-based problems (V2) at the .01 level. Participants who indicated in the pre-course survey that simulations would be helpful in practice reported in the post-course survey a significant change in their perceptions toward the helpfulness of simulations in preparing them to solve school-based problems.

A statistically significant relationship (.685) was revealed between the control group simulation in practice (V1) variable and the control group when evaluating case studies (V3) variable at the .01 level. As participants identified in the pre-course survey that simulations would be valuable in practice reported in the post-course survey a significant change in their perceptions that simulations would help them in their ability to evaluate case studies, make judgments about new ideas, and solve problems.

A statistically significant relationship (.635) was revealed between the control group simulation in practice (V1) variable and the control group developed a new understanding variable (V4) at the .05 level. These participants identified in the pre-course survey that simulations would be valuable in practice, they significantly reported in the post-course survey that simulations helped them to develop new skills to understand current school based problems.

A statistically significant relationship (.657) at the .05 level revealed that in the pre-

course survey those participants who felt simulations would help them in their ability to evaluate (Bloom, 1956) case studies (V3), significantly reported an increase in their perceptions toward the helpfulness of simulations in preparing them to solve school-based problems (V2).

Experimental group

Table three provides the statistically significant findings related to the experimental group in the simulation study. A statistically significant relationship (.712) was revealed between the experimental group simulation in practice variable (V1) and the experimental group solve school-based problems variable (V2). The finding was significant at the .05 level.

Table 3

Correlation matrix of experimental group

	Solve school-based problems (V2)
Sims in Practice (V1)	.712*

**significant at the .05 level*

As participants who had developed, designed, and created simulations indicated in the pre-course survey that simulations would be helpful in practice reported in the post-course survey a significant change in their perceptions toward the helpfulness of simulations in preparing them to solve school-based problems.

Limitations

The Individuals in Organizations course was the first course for some of the students beginning a Master's Program. A concern is raised as to the ability of first-year graduate students who may have only a few years of teaching experience, to participate fully in the simulation. Is there a time in the design of the simulation or the development of the decision-making tree where the new student becomes confused or is unable to make connections between administrative practices and the scenario? Additionally, the expectations a new student brings to graduate school, and their period of adjustment, may be influenced positively or negatively by having to jump in to the real world thinking of a principal.

The results of this study may not solely rely on the use of simulations. The semester long course provides additional instructional activities that may also contribute to the students' understandings and development of leadership skills.

The need for the study stems from a lack of research on educational leader focused simulations. The usefulness of simulations in other disciplines is evident, but more research on the role of decision-making specifically in educational institutions should be amassed. The data collection is limited to case study assignments as well as pre and post-course surveys completed by the participants. The number of variables that needed to be collapsed fell into two categories. They were categories about practice and perception of knowledge acquisition. These questions should be reviewed further for future studies.

Discussion

Simulations contribute significantly to graduate students' perceptions of their learning and development of skills when they participate in pre-designed online decision-making simulations. In addition, significant evidence reveals that the proces*s* of designing decision-making simulations is valuable to the learning and development of skills as perceived by graduate students in an educational leadership preparation program. The use of simulations and the benefit to students fall into two areas: course outcomes and on-the-job preparation.

Case studies are commonly used in college leadership courses as tools for examining situations that may occur in real life related to course outcomes. Students share what they might do if confronted with the same situation, each student learning from the other through the discussion. Results from this study indicate that the use of simulations positively effect students' experiences in the course in such a way as to increase their capacity to respond to a case study scenario related to course outcomes. The use of simulations in the course demonstrates leadership skills students are developing thus, preparing them decisions in a complex environment (Rubel, 2006).

Participants in the study perceive an increase in their ability to understand and solve problems in their future jobs as principals. Transfer of knowledge from college courses to application in the field should be the goal of principal or leadership preparation programs. When given opportunities for practice and feedback as in the online simulations, students indicate they are more prepared to handle the same situation should it occur on-the-job when they are principals. Simulations not only provide the practice for graduate students, but the relevance to the learning occurring in their college classes. It bridges the gap between research and practice for the student (NCATE, 2011).

The process of designing simulations appeared to have even further implications as evidenced by the experimental group of students. Two pieces of statistically significant data were presented, and they are significant for faculty in leadership preparation programs. The experimental group of students who worked in teams to develop a model of decision-making processes of an educational leader had significantly higher scores on the individual case study assessment. The case study assessment had each student outline a realistic plan to make decisions and lead a staff at the school. The individuals who were part of the experimental group demonstrated significantly more leadership and collaborative actions in the final case study than the control group. The process of designing a simulation requires more thought and discussion among the participants. Participants have to analyze all of the different paths a decision might lead and the implications of those steps to determine the best and/or worst courses of action based on their course readings and observational experiences. The five-step process that guided students through the design of the simulation is an example of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of learning at the highest level.

The ability to solve problems related to school leadership creates self-confidence within students and a schema to tackle similar issues in the future. This finding reinforces the concept expressed in Cone's Model of Learning (1969). The closer the instructional activity comes to the actual experience, the more significant and long term is the learning. Principal preparation programs can use online simulations to provide the readiness needed in candidates to assume the job of principal. They can also use simulations as a tool for novice principals requiring a refresher course or professional development.

A peer apprenticeship model provides graduate students in a leadership preparation

program internship experiences that are enhanced by peer interactions and faculty mentoring. Given the time constraints of full-time teachers to participate in on-the-job training, simulations can be used as some or all of the internship experiences. Using online capabilities such as video conferencing and discussion boards, mentor and peer interactions can still occur in response to a given simulation.

The software benefit of the simulations is less clear as this element was not isolated in the study. The software allowed a more dynamic environment for decision-making with the possibility of creating a level of anticipation among participants as they selected a decision option and then waited to see their results. The students designing the simulations however, did not share the same experience of select and wait. Instead their experience looked more like a web of options and outcomes. The flexibility built into the software allowed students to build their own models for the scenarios thus, constructing their own knowledge one decision at a time based on their course research. This suggests that their use of the software influenced a stronger demonstration of leadership actions in the final case study.

The second posit is that the template in the software was an accurate representation of how decisions play out in schools. If this were true then the decision-making tree presented in the software tool could provide a framework for decision-making in leadership courses. Exploring the schema principals use to address school related issues and how this relates to the decision-making tree presented in the software could help clarify the role of technology in simulations.

Online decision-making simulations offer promise for leadership preparation programs as well as principal professional development. The online environment offers flexibility of access to the simulations and two-way communication for practice and mentoring. Opportunities to develop and practice leadership skills in a simulated environment can translate into more informed decision-making in the future.

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Urban School District's Preparing New Principals Program 2008-2011: Perceptions of Program Completers, Supervising Principals, and Senior Level School District Administrators

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The purpose of these three parallel mixed method studies was to measure the effectiveness of an urban school district's 2011 Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP). Results supported the premise that preparing principals for school leadership in 2013 must develop them as instructional leaders who can improve teacher performance and student achievement. The recommendations are useful to any school district or institution of higher education implementing leader preparation programs. Improvements to principal preparation programs supported by the results of these studies include a longer principal internship, a strong mentor relationship with an effective principal, a structured process of initial entry into the program, differentiated principal preparation experiences, and an increased focus on teacher effectiveness.

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Introduction

Principal preparation has been the focus of criticisms that it is fraught with too much theory and too little practical application (Bottoms & Fry, 2009; Darling-Hammond, La Pointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Wallace Foundation, 2012). Principal leadership is essential to improving student learning (Hattie, 2009); therefore, alignment of principal preparation with standards to improve student learning outcomes is critical for effective principal preparation.

In the state of Florida there is a two-tiered approach to principal preparation which includes Level I educational leadership certification and Level II principal certification based on Florida Principal Leadership Standards (FPLS). Level I certification is obtained through 21 state approved university programs and 1 school district approved program which makes an educator eligible for application to become an entry level administrator or assistant principal. Level II principal certification is provided by school districts or education agencies, the completion of which provides for eligibility to be a principal (SBE Rule 6A-5.081). Dissimilar from many other states, this two-step certification and principal preparation process is unique and extends the preparation time and experiences for candidates who wish to become principals. Even though Florida's process is unique, the implementation of a standards-based principal preparation program and analysis of perceptions of completers, principal supervisors, and senior level school district administrators is of interest to school districts and principal preparation programs nationally.

Three studies were undertaken with the purpose of determining the effectiveness of an urban school district's Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) in preparing assistant principals to be successful with the Florida Principal Leadership Standards adopted November 2011 (SBE Rule 6A-5.080). Perception of effectiveness was reported by program completers, supervising principals, and senior level school district administrators.

This article is based on three parallel mixed method studies including the perception of program completers from 2008-2011 (Pelletier, 2013), perceptions of principal supervisors of program completers 2008-2011 (Trimble, 2013), and perceptions of senior level school district administrators who were selected by the superintendent for participation (Ruiz, 2013). Study participants also offered recommendations for enhanced effectiveness of principal preparation. The overarching research question was:

To what extent do program completers (2008-2011), their supervising principals, and senior school district administrators perceive that the Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) prepares completers to be successful on the Florida Principal Leadership Standards (FPLS) adopted November 2011?

Conceptual Framework

These research studies explored the concept of how to develop effective principal leadership behaviors conducive to increasing student achievement outcomes through a principal preparation program for assistant principals. In meta-analysis research on the influence of principals on student achievement outcomes, Hattie (2009) describes two types of principal leadership, instructional and transformational. The results of Hattie's (2009) meta-analysis support instructional leadership as having the greatest impact on student outcomes. Principals who are instructional leaders create safe learning climates, set clear instructional goals and maintain high expectations for both the teachers and students in their schools. Hattie (2009) reported common

dimensions of instructional leadership found in the research that had the greatest impact on student achievement to include: being committed to and participating with teachers in professional learning; organizing for the evaluation of teaching and curriculum; making strategic decisions for appropriate resources for instruction; setting clear expectations; and being sure that an environment conducive to learning is in place (pp.83-84). Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) also researched the behavioral practices of effective principals and found similar practices to those discussed by Hattie (2009) as having the greatest impact on student achievement outcomes. The five most effective principal leadership practices as identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) include: the ability to read happenings in the school and use the information to address issues and problems; keeping the faculty current on educational theory and practice; involving teachers in all aspects of decision making; questioning the status quo and implementing change; and creating a culture of shared beliefs and a sense of community.

As noted by Reeves (2002) principal preparation programs are an investment in the future. Reeves (2004) also indicated that school districts need to develop recruitment programs and preparation programs that will create an unlimited supply of potential new principals, which is the purpose of the PNPP in the study school district. Building a successful principal preparation program includes components as defined by Reeves (2002): identifying prospective leaders; creating an educational leadership preparation program; supporting students, teachers, and parents through servant leadership; and creating synergy by blending leadership, learning and teaching.

Methods

Study participants included PNPP program completers 2008-2011, principal supervisors of these program completers, and senior level school district administrators. All were invited to complete the Preparing New Principals Program Completer Survey electronically and were reminded to do so four times after the initial invitation in line with procedures recommended by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009). Participants rated the preparation of the 2008-2011 completers to be successful on the Florida Principal Leadership Standards (FPLS) adopted November 2011, which can be found by FPLS domain in Tables 2 through 5. The ratings were on a 5-point Likert scale of: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neutral, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree.

Means, ranks, and standard deviations of each FPLS domain and individual FPLS within each domain were calculated for the three groups of participants. When the means were the same, both FPLS were given the same rank and then the next rank was skipped. For example, in Table 2 program completers' means were 3.88 for learning results evidenced by assessments and high expectations for growth in all students, resulting in the rank of two for both, and the next rank of four was student focused faculty system.

Participants were anonymous to protect the interests of the participants and researchers, who were principals in the same school district. Although the population was small and within one school district, the return rates were high (completers N=56, 62%; principal supervisors, N=36, 65%, senior level administrators N=23, 57%).

Qualitative data were obtained from two open-ended survey items and interviews of volunteers. The interview items invited the participants to share insights and recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of assistant principals' preparation. Krathwohl (2009) indicated that open-ended items and interviews are valid methods for obtaining rich information from participants. The open-ended survey items were analyzed by reading and re-reading using the

constant comparison method and identifying commonalities which were developed into themes. Eighteen interviews (six completers, six principal supervisors, and six senior level school district administrators) were recorded and transcribed, and then analyzed similarly to the open-ended survey items.

Findings

Overall, participants indicated that program completers were well prepared to successfully demonstrate the FPLS. Completers in schools with 50% or less free and reduced lunch students, as well as those in schools with 75% or more free and reduced lunch students, believed they were more prepared than those in schools with 51 to 74% free and reduced lunch students. Conversely, principal supervisors in schools with 75% or more free and reduce lunch believed that completers were less prepared to meet all four domains than their peer principal supervisors who served in more affluent schools. This difference in principals' perception of preparedness by percent of students receiving free or reduced lunch benefits may reflect differences in the skills needed in schools with varying demographics.

Completers perceived that they were slightly less well prepared to meet the FPLS than did their principal supervisors or senior level administrators. Instructional leadership was perceived by all participant groups to be the domain for which the completers were not as prepared, followed by student achievement. This is a valuable finding given that these are the two domains identified as most important by the superintendent. Ethical leadership was perceived by all participant groups as the domain for which completers were most well prepared. Table 1 displays the means on a 5-point scale, rank, and standard deviations with 95% confidence intervals for each FPLS domain and within each participant group. The standard deviations related to perceptions of senior level school district administrators show a greater variance in ratings than do those of the completers or of the principals.

Table 1
Perception of Completers' Preparation to Be Successful on 2011 FPLS: Within Group Means, Ranks, and Standard Deviations

	Sr. Level District Administrators N=23	Principal Supervisors of Completers N=43	PNPP Completers 2008-2011 N=56
FPLS Domain	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*
Student Achievement	3.64 (1.02)	4.36 (0.76)	3.85 (0.67)
Instructional Leadership	3.52 (0.85)	4.25 (0.62)	3.77 (0.66)
Organizational Leadership	3.83 (0.59)	4.33 (0.52)	3.87 (0.64)
Professional/ Ethical Behaviors	3.88 (0.71)	4.40 (0.54)	3.93 (0.61)

Further analysis by domain revealed that participant groups' rankings of the six FPLS within the domain of student achievement were very close as shown in Table 2. Completers ranked their level of preparedness to be better than did the school district senior level administrators, but less than their supervising principals. The rank order by participant group was similar, even with the difference in perception of preparedness. Learning results evidenced by assessments is the item that varies and was ranked last or sixth by principals, but second in preparedness by completers and senior level school district administrators.

Standard deviations within the three groups varied also with the principal supervisors having the smallest range and the senior level school district administrators having the greatest range in the responses for each item. Given that the principal supervisors most closely observed the completers' expertise with understanding alignment of student learning experiences and outcome data, more experience for PNPP participants may be needed in this area.

Table 2

Within Group Means, Ranks, and Standard Deviations for Perceived Preparedness of Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) Completers' on the 2011 Florida Principal Leadership Standards: Domain Student Achievement

FPLS Descriptor	Senior Level School District Administrators N=23 *M* (rank) *SD*	Supervising Principals N=43 *M* (rank) *SD*	Program Completers N=56 *M* (rank) *SD*
Maintains school climate that supports student learning	3.87 (1) 1.10	4.50 (2) 0.77	3.91 (1) 0.71
Learning results evidenced by assessments	3.74 (2) 1.10	4.17 (6) 1.15	3.88 (2) 0.85
Generates high expectations for growth in all students	3.74 (3) 1.25	4.51 (1) 0.84	3.88 (2) 0.81
Enables faculty to work as a system focused on learning	3.70 (4) 1.15	4.47 (3) 0.67	3.86 (4) 0.70
Learning goals are based on state/district standards.	3.48 (5) 1.24	4.35 (4) 0.95	3.80 (5) 0.77
Engages faculty to close subgroup performance gaps	3.35 (6) 1.40	4.19 (5) 1.02	3.80 (5) 0.82

The FPLS domain of instructional leadership has 17 competencies which can be seen in Table 3, along with participant groups' means, ranks, and standard deviations. Similar to the domain of student achievement, the principal supervisors had higher mean rankings for the completers' preparedness than the completers, and the senior level school district administrators mean rankings were lower the other two groups. The senior level administrators also had greater standard deviations for the items indicating lack of agreement on the responses. Contrasts in perceptions of the groups can be seen in the ranks related to the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (FEAP), which are the standards for teachers in the state, and engaging in faculty professional learning (completers' rank=16, 13; principal supervisors' rank=17, 11; senior level

school district administrators' rank=3, 4 respectively). Completers believe that they are much better equipped to use data to inform instructional decisions (rank=1) and to identify and address faculty instructional proficiency needs (3) than do their principal supervisors (rank=7, 16) or senior level school district administrators (rank=9, 15) suggesting that mentoring and support in these processes are needed.

Table 3

Within Group Means, Rank, and Standard Deviations for Perceived Preparedness of Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) Completers' on the 2011 Florida Principal Leadership Standards: Domain Instructional Leadership

FPLS Descriptor	Sr. Level School District Administrators N=23 *M* (rank) *SD*	Supervising Principals N=43 *M* (rank) *SD*	Program Completers N=56 *M* (rank) *SD*
Communicate relationships among standards, instruction, and student performance	3.96 (1) 1.07	4.36 (5) 0.91	3.86 (2) 0.72
Uses diversity as an asset to improve student learning	3.87 (2) 1.01	4.43 (2) 0.51	3.77 (9) 0.93
Implements Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (FEAP)	3.87 (3) 1.06	4.02 (17) 0.87	3.64 (16) 0.94
Engage faculty in professional learning	3.78 (4) 1.00	4.23 (11) 0.62	3.71 (13) 0.85
Safe, respectful, inclusive learning environment	3.78 (5) 1.09	4.43 (2) 0.84	3.80 (6) 0.90
Professional learning is linked to strategic objectives	3.65 (6) 1.07	4.28 (9) 0.76	3.80 (6) 0.81
Evaluates monitors, provides instructional feedback	3.65 (7) 1.03	4.35 (4) 0.66	3.80 (4) 0.75
Promotes valuing similarities and differences in students	3.61 (8) 1.08	4.50 (1) 0.51	3.82 (4) 0.90
Engages in data analysis for instructional planning and improvement	3.52 (9) 1.38	4.31 (7) 1.05	3.96 (1) 0.83
Employs instructionally proficient faculty	3.48 (10) 1.12	4.18 (5) 0.98	3.79 (8) 0.76
Implement culturally relevant instruction	3.35 (11) 1.30	4.10 (15) 0.87	3.75 (11) 0.84
Monitors/gives feedback related to quality learning environment	3.30 (12) 1.36	4.23 (11) 0.84	3.75 (11) 0.88
Initiates and supports continuous improvement	3.30 (13) 1.19	4.28 (9) 0.86	3.71 (13) 0.89
Implement curricula/standards w/rigor, relevance	3.30 (14) 1.26	4.29 (8) 0.84	3.82 (4) 0.88
Identify faculty instructional proficiency needs	3.26 (15) 1.18	4.05 (16) 1.01	3.84 (3) 0.68
Engages faculty in cultural and developmental issues related to student learning	3.13 (16) 1.22	4.21 (13) 0.87	3.70 (15) 1.01
Appropriate use of aligned assessments	2.96 (17) 1.07	4.15 (14) 0.89	3.64 (16) 0.84

Organizational leadership is a domain within which the three groups of participants perceived the completers' preparedness to be successful very differently as noted in Table 4. Supervising principals perceived that completers were better prepared than did the completers themselves, who perceived themselves better prepared than did the senior level school district

administrators. Standards related to visibility, recognizing performance, and promoting collegiality ranked in the top 50% by all three groups. However, standards that might put the completer in the position to have challenging conversations with stakeholders or teachers (such as performance issues) were less highly ranked, and with which novice assistant principals have minimal experience and may need more to become successful principals. Also, the items related to succession planning and delegation had low ranks, which most probably is due to the lack of experience that novice administrators have with those standards. Responses within the three groups varied in the ranges with the senior school district administrators having more differences in responses than did the completers or the supervising principals.

Table 4

Within Group Means, Ranks, and Standard Deviations for Perceived Preparedness of Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) Completers' on the 2011 Florida Principal Leadership Standards: Domain Organizational Leadership

	Sr. Level School District Administrators N=23	Supervising Principals N=39	Program Completers N=56
FPLS Descriptor	*M* (rank) SD	*M* (rank) SD	*M* (rank) SD
Recognize individuals for effectiveness	4.13 (2) 0.55	4.57 (1) 0.65	4.00 (3) 0.83
Promote collegial school improvement and faculty development efforts.	4.04 (3) 0.77	4.51 (2) 0.51	3.84 (14) 0.80
Communicate expectations/performance information to stakeholders.	3.83 (13) 0.72	4.49 (3) 0.77	3.89 (10) 0.85
Listen, learn from all stakeholders.	3.87 (10) 0.92	4.42 (4) 0.77	3.98 (6) 0.77
Maintain visibility in school, community.	4.22 (1) 0.74	4.42 (4) 0.81	4.04 (2) 0.85
Establish appropriate deadlines for self and entire organization.	3.96 (4) 0.77	4.41 (6) 0.96	3.91 (9) 0.79
Empower others; distribute leadership.	3.70 (17) 1.02	4.38 (7) 0.72	3.96 (8) 0.76
Promote teacher-leadership functions.	3.96 (6) 0.85	4.38 (7) 0.64	3.71 (19) 0.85
Ensures faculty receive information about standards, requirements, decisions.	3.87 (10) 0.82	4.38 (7) 0.79	4.00 (3) 0.71
Use appropriate technologies for communication and collaboration.	3.61 (19) 1.20	4.36 (10)0.80	3.89 (10) 0.85
Engage stakeholders in conversations about important school issues.	3.87 (10) 0.74	4.33 (11) 0.68	3.84 (14) 0.85
Develop relationships among stakeholders.	3.87 (10) 0.82	4.32 (12) .063	3.77 (18) 0.85
Is fiscally responsible in use of fiscal resources for instructional priorities.	3.91 (6) 0.85	4.32 (12) 0.71	3.75 (16) 0.84
Attends to decisions affecting student learning and teacher proficiency.	3.78 (14) 1.17	4.31 (14) 0.92	3.86 (13) 0.86
Has clear objectives and plans to organize time, tasks, and projects effectively.	3.74 (16) 1.01	4.27 (15) 1.02	3.95 (7) 0.72
Identify and cultivate potential leaders.	3.70 (19) 0.93	4.23 (16) 0.78	3.89 (10) 0.76
Provide evidence of delegation and trust in subordinate leaders.	3.91 (6) 0.90	4.23 (16) 0.81	3.77 (18) 0.83
Evaluate decisions; implement follow-up actions and revise as needed.	3.91 (6) 1.16	4.21 (18) 0.84	4.00 (3) 0.74
Use critical thinking and problem solving to define problems & identify solutions.	3.70 (17) 1.22	4.18 (19) 0.83	4.11 (1) 0.65
Use technology to enhance decision making and efficiency in the school.	3.61 (19) 1.20	4.15 (20) 0.93	3.64 (20) 0.90
Plan for succession management.	3.90 (21) 1.38	3.81 (21) 1.08	3.50 (21) 0.97

Demonstrating resiliency was the standard for which the participant groups perceived the completers to be less well prepared and was rated particularly low by the senior level school district administrators. Demonstrating willingness to admit errors and learn from mistakes was

close in rank to demonstrating resiliency in perception of lack of preparedness by senior school district administrators. Resiliency and willingness to admit errors and learn from mistakes were viewed by the school district senior administrators as essential to face difficult challenges, strategize to overcome them, and improve student learning as a result; therefore, not letting setbacks or changes in context detract from the role of improving student learning. The others were ranked similarly high, such as adhering to the code of ethics and principles of professional conduct and commitment to student success. However, it should be noted that less of the principal supervisors responded to these items than for the previous domains.

By reviewing the standard deviations for indicators within each group of respondents the pattern of responses being close together is repeated by supervising principals and program completers. Senior level school district administrators have a larger standard deviation suggesting less agreement on the ratings for the completers on these indicators

Table 5

Within Group Means, Ranks, and Standard Deviations for Perceived Preparedness of Preparing New Principals Program (PNPP) Completers' on the 2011 Florida Principal Leadership Standards: Professional and Ethical Behaviors

FPLS Descriptor	Sr. Level Sch. District Admin. *N=23* *M* (rank) *SD*	Supervising Principals N=37 M (rank) *SD*	Program Completers N=56 *M*(rank) SD
Adhere to Code of Ethics and Principles of Professional Conduct.	4.48 (1) 0.51	4.68 (1) 0.53	4.11 (1) 0.73
Demonstrate commitment to student success by identifying barriers.	3.91 (3) 0.87	4.51 (2) 0.65	3.84 (6) 0.91
Engage in professional learning to improve professional practice.	4.04 (2) 0.93	4.42 (3) 0.65	3.95 (2) 0.84
Demonstrate resiliency by maintaining focus on school vision.	3.30 (6) 1.26	4.41 (4) 0.50	3.89 (4) 0.87
Demonstrate explicit improvement in specific performance areas.	3.87 (4) 0.87	4.30 (5) 0.66	3.91 (3) 0.82
Demonstrate willingness to admit and learn from errors.	3.70 (5) 1.15	4.06 (6) 1.12	3.89 (4) 0.80

The qualitative data gathered from the open ended survey questions, as well as the interviews conducted with program completers (Pelletier, 2013), supervisors of the program completers (Trimble, 2013), and senior level school district administrators (Ruiz, 2013) complemented the findings of the survey results. Qualitative data supported the weakness in the instructional leadership domain, specifically the principal-mentor relationship. The survey participants commented on a need for feedback from mentors, sharing of professional knowledge, practical on-the-job experiences, learning from principals with different leadership styles and opportunities to network with other leaders.

Discussion and Implications

Although the number of participants is small in this study, the return rate was high. Given that the study took place in one school district there were less intervening variables than there may have been if the study had taken place across school districts. Therefore, the insights may be helpful to others who provide principal preparation programs. Interestingly, the supervising principal of the assistant principal PNPP participants tended to rate the participant more highly than either the participant himself or the senior level school district administrator. Whether the higher ratings relate to the relationship developed over the time of the program or if it is due to actually having more first-hand knowledge of the participant's skills and knowledge than senior level school district administrators is unknown.

The small sample size and differences that have been noted raise the need for further investigation. Studies related to the extent to which the ratings of senior level school district administrators in large school districts are influenced by factors other than completers' skills and knowledge (student achievement or need for high performing leaders) or the extent to which the senior level school district administrators have knowledge of the participants would be prudent. Research on the extent to which the ratings of the supervising principals are influenced by personal professional relationships would be helpful to provide greater insight.

Recommendations that emerged from the three studies were drawn from the quantitative survey items, qualitative survey items, and interview items. These recommendations have implications for leadership preparation programs in higher education as well as those in the private sector, regional service centers, and within school districts. Principal preparation programs should target the most valued standards in a specific school district or state, while paying particular attention to the needs of administrators serving students in high poverty schools.

As supported by the literature (Hitt, Tucker, & Young, 2012; Mitgang, 2012; The Wallace Foundation, 2012) an extensive job-embedded internship that may last as long as a year can provide in-depth experience as long as there is quality feedback and mentoring. If the aspiring principal in this preparatory experience is treated as another assistant principal who gets consumed with the pace of the work, rather than as being immersed in a learning context, the results may not be positive in terms of explicit preparation to be a successful principal.

Mentorship by a highly effective principal is critical. Selection of highly effective principal coaches and mentors, who are not the participants' principal nor friend is recommended to address the interest in improving student learning and maximizing the investment in future school and school district leaders. Principal mentors, who may be recently retired effective principals or those from the local university, need preparation to be effective in that mentor role specific to principal preparation. Assuming that an effective principal will also be an effective mentor may be a fallacy.

Differentiation in principal preparation should be made based on an evaluation of knowledge, skills, experiences, and career goals of assistant principals. For example, there may be assistant principals who are not interested in becoming principals in the near future and need continued professional learning, but not to the extent of a principal preparation program. There may also be experienced administrators from other school districts or states who have great expertise in some areas and may only need updating on elements specific to the state or to a specific school district.

In conclusion, preparation of assistant principals to be effective principals is a commitment that should not be taken lightly. The findings from this large PNPP program that prepares assistant principals to become effective principals can inform other programs. Whether in Florida, where there are two levels of educational leadership certification, or in a state that has one certification process for entry into school leadership, alignment with standards and needs of the local context is essential to prepare effective principals.

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Preparing Principals for Success with English Language Learners: Challenges and Opportunities in Illinois

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This paper explores the challenges and opportunities of the English Language Learner (ELL) components of Illinois' new principal preparation legislation [Illinois Public Act 96-0903]. In 2011, Illinois passed Illinois Public Act 96-0903 creating new rules for principal preparation programs, requiring institutions or organizations certifying students for the principalship to revise programs to align with the legislation. Illinois Public Act 96-0903 focuses on partnerships with schools districts, rigorous candidate selection, an expanded performance-based internship and required program content. With regard to required program content, Illinois Public Act 96-0903 includes provisions that require principal preparation programs to help candidates meet the needs of a few specific populations including English language learners, students with disabilities or 504 plans, and gifted students. The implications for program implementation and policy are explored through a review of the English language learner provisions of a newly redesigned principal preparation program at Downstate University.

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Introduction

In 2011, Illinois passed Illinois Public Act 96-0903, which created new rules for principal preparation programs, thus requiring institutions or organizations endorsing students for the principalship to revise programs to align with the legislation. Illinois Public Act 96-0903 focused on partnerships with schools districts, rigorous candidate selection, an expanded performance-based internship, and required program content. With regard to required program content, in addition to legislating that programs align to Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and Southern Research Education Board (SREB) standards, Illinois Public Act 96-0903 included provisions that require principal preparation programs to prepare candidates to work effectively with several subgroups of student populations including English language learners, students with disabilities or 504 plans, and gifted students. Herein we focus primarily on the challenges and opportunities in implementing SB 96-0903 with regard to preparing principals to work with ELL populations.

Statement of the Problem

Illinois mirrors the country broadly in terms of its rapidly changing demographics. For example, the Hispanic population in Illinois is rapidly increasing and, in the last decade, has grown from 12.3% of the total population to 15.8% of the total population (U.S. Census, 2010), which is 32.5% of the overall population growth in Illinois (U.S. Census, 2010). Illinois has the fifth highest Hispanic population in the country after California, Florida, Texas and New York. As a result of demographic changes, Illinois currently enrolls 197,388 students who are classified as English Language Learners (ELLs), which is 8.5% of the total school population (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011a). Of the ELL population, 81.5% are native Spanish speakers, and the remainder speak 143 other languages with Polish (2.82% of total ELL population) and Arabic (2.42% of the total ELL population) ranking next largest proportional (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b).

Illinois public schools are clearly struggling to effectively meet the needs of their changing student populations. Large achievement gaps between ELLs and their non-ELL peers are found on the Illinois State Achievement Test (ISAT) and the Prairie State Achievement Exam (PSAE) in every tested grade level in both reading and mathematics (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). The achievement gap between ELLs and non-ELLs in grades three through eight on ISAT reading range from 35 to 52 percentage points (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). The achievement gaps between ELLs and non-ELLs in grades three through eight on ISAT math ranges from 15 to 45 percentage points in mathematics (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). On the PSAE, the achievement gap in reading between ELLs and non-ELLs is 47.5 percentage points while in math the achievement gap between ELLs and non-ELLs was 38 percentage points.

These achievement gaps do not come as a surprise given the overall capacity of Illinois' public education system to support effective education of ELLs by actualizing the requirement that every student have access to an approved program and/or by providing adequate funding for ELL programs. In 2011, 98% of the state's identified ELL students participated in state approved programs, but approximately half of the school districts in the state do not have a state approved ELL program, even though they are enrolling small but growing ELL populations (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). And, though 98% of teachers in approved ELL

programs have the required certification to teach in an ELL program, only 6.8% of their salaries to do so were funded by the state (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b).

A review of the requirements for leaders of approved ELL programs illustrates another aspect of the problem with the capacity of Illinois public schools to serve ELL students effectively. Illinois School Code requires those who direct ELL programs with more than 200 students to hold an administrative certificate and a bilingual endorsement, ENL (English as a new language) endorsement with language designation approval, or an ESL endorsement depending on the type of program they administer (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). But, for programs with less than 200 students, ELL program directors are exempt from the above qualification and are only required to complete two hours of professional development per year, which is likely not enough in most cases to implement a high-quality ELL program.

While data are not available from the state of Illinois to determine the exact qualification of each bilingual program director, some inferences can be made from a review of available data on the size of school districts reporting ELL populations. Of the 677 school districts reporting that they have ELL students, only 115 of the programs are large enough to require an ELL program director who is certified as an administrator or supervisor with an appropriate ELL endorsement. The remaining 562 districts report less than 200 students and therefore are exempt from the program director qualifications for larger districts (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). Within these 677 districts, there are approximately 1070 individual public schools in Illinois with an ELL population of at least 40 (Northern Illinois University, 2013).

While there are undoubtedly and understandably practical concerns operating behind the exemption for districts with small ELL populations, in practice it means that many ELL programs are being administered by administrators with minimal training in working with ELL students and that the administration of a given program may not be at the school level. Currently, in many smaller districts, the building principal is likely the person who is overseeing a state approved ELL program in addition to his/her other responsibilities. In a rural area, this person may also be the principal of a second school or might serve an additional role such as that of superintendent. These facts suggest very strongly that many districts may not currently have the capacity necessary to administer a high-quality ELL program. Until SB 96-0903 was passed, the requirements for an administrative certificate did not include any requirement for teaching aspiring administrators to work with ELL students and administer ELL programs, and these are the principals currently employed in the field.

In sum, many districts serving ELL students do not have an approved program, and of those that do, many are too small to require the more rigorous qualifications for the school leaders. And, because a very small percent of the cost of bilingual program teachers is actually funded through state or federal funds, education for ELLs in Illinois is in essence an unfunded mandate.

Certainly, these selected data and more were on the dashboard of legislators and state employees working to draft and pass SB 96-0903, which included several key provisions for preparing principals to work with Illinois' ELL population. The ELL population in Illinois is growing, and available evidence shows that Illinois schools are not effectively meeting the needs of ELLs in Illinois. The purpose of this study was to look at the challenges and opportunities in SB 96-0903 for preparing principals to work effectively with ELL populations, with a particular focus on rural Illinois. This study most directly benefits institutions and organizations who plan to prepare principals under the new law, but will also be of interest to stakeholders involved in the passage of the law, and to stakeholders who are likely to be impacted by SB 96-0903. In this

paper, we argue that while reform is clearly needed to improve educational outcomes for ELL and other subgroups of students in Illinois, SB 96-0903 is unlikely to provide the desired results for two primary reasons: (a) the current PreK-12 public school system in Illinois is not effective at educating ELLs and therefore aspiring principals will not have access to internship experiences that will adequately prepare them to lead highly effective ELL programs, and (b) the racial demography of Illinois will limit many downstate interns' access to schools with a state approved ELL program.

Theoretical Framework

Analysis of the challenges and opportunities of Illinois' principal preparation reform can be enhanced by considering it through the lens of situated cognition. Situated cognition is a theory of learning that emphasizes the critical importance of context in the learning process. In their seminal work, Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989) assert that from a situative cognitive perspective, knowledge cannot be separated from the context of its use, that learning occurs from engaging in authentic situations, that knowledge can be defined as tools that "reflect the particular accumulated insights of communities" (p. 33) and that learning is social activity that occurs through an enculturation process.

Situated Cognitive theory is based on a premise that learning occurs through an enculturation process called "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). Through this process, a newcomer becomes a veteran by induction to a *community of practice* and through ongoing participation in the authentic and everyday activities of that community. Brown, et al. (1989) suggest that one way newcomers can participate in a community of practice is through a *cognitive apprenticeship*. Brown et al. describe a cognitive apprenticeship as a teaching method that "try[s] to enculturate students into authentic practices through activity and social interaction." (p. 37).

The theory of situated cognition is particularly relevant to this study because principal preparation in Illinois now legislates an intense, programmatic focus on an a performance-based internship that takes place over an extended period of time in the field with a practicing principal who is considered on at least a few state-determined measures to be effective. In fact, the internship is one of the most salient features of Illinois's principal preparation reform. Until SB 96 0903 was passed, institutions preparing principals might have included a practicum, but the details were not legislated. The reform is premised on the idea that aspiring principals need to move beyond learning declarative knowledge, or "knowing that" and procedural knowledge, or "knowing how" to apply these two forms of knowledge while engaged in authentic activities in actual schools. According to Brown, et al., (1989) cognitive apprenticeship methods "try to enculturate students into authentic practices through activity and social interaction in a way similar to that evident, and evidently successful- in craft apprenticeships" (p. 37). Using the language of situated cognition, the required internship can be viewed as a cognitive apprenticeship where the intern is enculturated into the practices of a successful principal.

Method

The concerns addressed in this paper surfaced during the efforts of Downstate University (a pseudonym) to redesign its principal preparation program in order that it be approved under SB 96-0903, the new principal preparation rules. While trying to address state requirements for

preparing principals to work with English Language Learners, program faculty discovered several aspects of meeting legislative requirements that provided challenges for Downstate University. The authors of this paper conducted action research to better understand ways to overcome the challenges experienced during the redesign process. This study was guided by two research questions: (a) What are the specific requirements in SB 96-0903 related to preparing aspiring principals to work with English Language Learners and how can Downstate University meet those requirements?; (b) What are the particular challenges for Downstate University in implementing the ELL provisions of SB 96-0903 in its principal preparation program given the demographics of its service region?

Data Sources

In order to answer question one, ISBE 23 ILLINOIS ADMINISTRATIVE CODE 30; Subtitle A: Chapter I; PART 30 Sections 30.10-30.80 associated with SB 96-0903 was reviewed. All sections of the administrative code associated with the new principal preparation legislation were reviewed. In order to answer question two, available data on a cohort of Downstate University's internship placements were analyzed. The sample examined was the list of internship placement schools for the fall 2010 cohort from Downstate University. The total N of the cohort was 45. Schools that did not have information available in the Illinois Interactive Report Card database were eliminated (private and out of state schools) resulting in an N of 35.

Procedures and Analysis

To answer question one, 23 Illinois Administrative Code, Subtitle A, Chapter 1, Subchapter b, PART 30 was reviewed in its entirety for reference to the following terms: English Language Learners, Bilingual, ELL and "all students." All instances with direct reference to preparation of principals to work with ELL were noted. Next, the principal preparation program from Downstate University was reviewed to see how the requirements of SB 96-0903 were operationalized. Finally, the challenges and opportunities inherent in SB 96-0903 were determined by evaluating the difference between Downstate University's current and needed capacity for delivering the new program.

To answer question two, to focus on the specific challenges and opportunities for Downstate University inherent in implementing SB 96-0903, a spreadsheet was developed that included each internship placement school for Downstate University for the Fall 2010 semester which was determined to be a typical semester in both size and internship location after reviewing three years of data. The Illinois Interactive Report Card was used to find the district for each school (Northern Illinois University, 2011). A state generated report was used to find out which districts have ELL programs approved by the state of Illinois (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011b). Finally, the number of ELL students for each school was obtained from an ISBE census report (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011c). These data were used to create a simulation for determining the challenges and opportunities for principal interns to work with ELL students during their internship.

Findings

Research question one asked: What are the specific requirements in SB 96-0903 related to preparing aspiring principals to work with English Language Learners and how can Downstate University meet those requirements? SB 96-0903 was operationalized in the rules set forth in ISBE 23 ILLINOIS ADMINISTRATIVE CODE 30; Subtitle A: Chapter I; PART 30 Sections 30.10-30.80 (hereafter called "the Rules"). The Rules are divided into nine sections plus an Appendix: (a) Definitions, (b) Purpose and Applicability, (c) General Program Requirements, (d) Internship Requirements, Assessment of the Internship, (e) Coursework Requirements, (f) Staffing Requirements, (g) Candidate Selection, (h) Program Approval and Review, and (i) Internship Assessment Rubric. Direct reference to preparing principals to work with ELL populations is found in several sections of the rules. Section 30.30 explains general program requirements and states that each approved program shall offer curricula that address student learning and school improvement, with specific attention aimed towards students with specific special needs. The following special needs are included: students with disabilities, English language learners, gifted students, and early childhood students (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011). With regard to internship requirements, Section 30.40 mandates that internships shall consist of engagement in instructional leadership activities that involve teachers at all grade levels including, including regular education teachers and teachers of gifted education, special education, and bilingual education (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011).

Section 30.45 discusses internship assessment and states that the candidate shall "analyze the school's budget to include a discussion of how resources are used and evaluated for adequacy and effectiveness, make recommendations for improvement, and evaluate the impact of budget choices—particularly on low-income students, students with disabilities, and English language learners" (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011d, para. 3. b). Under this section, the candidate will learn to work with school personnel to identify English language learners (ELLs) and "administer the appropriate program and services as specified under Article 14C of the school code [105 ILCS 5/Art. 14C] and 23 Ill. Adm. Code 228 (Transitional Bilingual Education) to address the curricular and academic needs of ELLs" (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011d, para 4). The rules state that evidence of meeting this competency will be demonstrated when interns do the following:

- use student data to work collaboratively with teachers to modify curriculum and instructional strategies to meet the needs of each student, including ELLs and students with disabilities, and to incorporate the data into the School Improvement Plan;
- evaluate a school to ensure the use of a wide range of printed, visual, or auditory materials and online resources appropriate to the content areas and the reading needs and levels of each student (including ELLs, students with disabilities, and struggling and advanced readers);
- in conjunction with special education and bilingual education teachers, identify and select assessment strategies and devices that are nondiscriminatory to be used by the school, and take into consideration the impact of disabilities, methods of communication, cultural background, and primary language on measuring knowledge and performance of students

leading to school improvement;

- work with teachers to develop a plan that focuses on the needs of the school to support services required to meet individualized instruction for students with special needs (i.e., students with IEPs, IFSPs, or Section 504 plans, ELLs, and students identified as gifted);
- proactively serve all students and their families with equity and honor and advocate on their behalf, ensuring an opportunity to learn and the well-being of each child in the classroom;
- analyze and use student information to design instruction that meets the diverse needs of students and leads to ongoing growth and development of all students; and
- recognize the individual needs of students and work with special education and bilingual education teachers to develop school support systems so that teachers can differentiate strategies, materials, pace, levels of complexity, and language to introduce concepts and principles so that they are meaningful to students at varying levels of development and to students with diverse learning needs (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011d, para. A-G).

Finally, Section 30.50 illustrates coursework requirements and states that candidates must demonstrate understanding of state and federal laws, regulations, and case law regarding programs for students with disabilities and English language learners (Illinois State Board of Education, 2011).

Downstate University has addressed these rules in several ways. Downstate University's redesigned program includes eight face to face courses that address all of the required content from the rules and four internship courses that span a minimum of a two semester timeframe. To address Section 30.30, Downstate University embedded ELL specific content across all of its non-internship courses. For example, in each of the non-internship courses, Downstate University candidates are expected to apply course content in multiple contexts and with various subgroups of students by demonstrating:

> …an ability to work in collaboration with administrators in real settings at all grade levels (i.e., preschool through grade 12) and with all students with specific attention on students with special needs (e.g., students with disabilities, English language learners, gifted students, students in early childhood programs, low SES students). (Downstate University, 2011).

To address Section 30.40 and Section 30.45, Downstate University required all of the internship competencies outlined in the Internship Assessment Rubric be adapted for all of the populations noted in Section 30.30 (students with disabilities, English language learners, gifted students, and students in early childhood programs). Both of these aspects of Downstate University's new program pose challenges and opportunities.

Geographic Challenges for Downstate University

Research question two asked: What are the particular challenges for Downstate University in implementing the ELL provisions of SB 96-0903 in its principal preparation program given the

demographics of its service region? Review of the rules associated with SB 96-0903 demonstrated that a primary focus in preparing candidates to work with ELL students occurs during the internship, where most of the provisions for working with ELLs are set forth. In order for candidates to be able to have meaningful and authentic experiences in working with ELL programs, access is needed to approve ELL programs with large enough ELL populations to afford a rich internship experience. Ideally that the internship school would have an ELL population of more than 200 ensuring that the ELL program director has more than the minimum required qualifications. These would be minimum requirements and do not address the important issue of whether interns are immersed in quality ELL programs where they may have a better opportunity to learn best practice.

Analysis of a typical cohort of interns showed that there is a paucity of approved ELL programs in Downstate University's large service region and that the region's ELL population is primarily concentrated in one school district. Thirty-four candidates interned in 26 different schools. Of those 26 schools, only five had a state approved bilingual program (11 candidates total interned at schools with approved ELL programs). Of the 11 candidates who interned at schools with approved ELL programs, only two interned at schools within a district with a large enough ELL population to require the more rigorous qualifications for the ELL director.

The number of ELL students in the internship schools ranged from zero to 103. Two students interned at one school with 103 ELL students. Three candidates interned at three schools with 75-100 ELL students. Three students interned at two different schools each reporting 34 ELL students. Eight interns were placed at schools with less than 20 ELL students and 16 of the candidates interned at 13 schools that reported no ELL students. Of these 16 interns, none interned in a district with an approved ELL program, and all were geographically isolated from any school districts that had an approved ELL program. It is also noteworthy that due to other aspects of the Rules, it is possible none of the schools in a district with an approved ELL program would be able to accept interns due to other requirements of the legislation such as building principals' experience and failure to make Annual Yearly Progress. Given these data, one of the biggest challenges for Downstate University will be locating and accessing ELL students and programs where interns can be placed.

Discussion

The quality of candidate preparation in a principal preparation program to lead effectively in schools with ELL populations depends on the collective qualifications of those teaching in the program including university faculty, university internship supervisors, and mentors in the field. Clearly in a region such as that served by Downstate University, where few if any of the above professionals have likely worked with ELL students and populations, there is an enormous learning curve for all involved. While overall lack of capacity with regard to effective practice with ELLs is a challenge, it also provides an opportunity for all involved. University faculty and university internship supervisors have a chance to take the lead in school improvement. By including appropriate content on working effectively with ELL students and developing ELL programs in all university coursework associated with principal preparation, the university could have a direct impact on the quality of programming in internship sites in Downstate University's region. The benefit would be interns who bring this knowledge to their practice with ELL students and populations at their internship sites, which might increase capacity in area schools. It is likely that this required emphasis could provide a catalyst for mentors to examine their own

practice with the ELL students in their schools which will hopefully lead to improved student achievement for ELLs over time. The theory of situated cognition would support the notion that in these situations, interns could function as the mentor in the community of practice. Given the data on the status of approved ELL programs in Downstate University's service region, infusing the region with energetic interns who are challenged to develop and apply their knowledge of ELL students and programs in multiple internship experiences towards the achievement of ELLs, a noticeable and exponential impact is possible.

Challenges and Opportunities

Clearly the biggest challenge for Downstate University, considering the demographics and geography of the region, is that posed by the requirement that interns work directly with ELLs. Downstate University's region does not include large populations of ELLs or a wide range of state-approved ELL programs such as those that are found in the Chicago metropolitan region. It is highly unlikely that most candidates will intern at a site with either an approved ELL program or a sizable ELL population due to the demographics of the region. Because of the sparsely populated nature of the region, it is likely that for many interns it will not be feasible to intern at a nearby school that might be more able to provide these types of opportunities. Many students will be applying their learning of the needs of ELL students and populations in settings with scant ELL populations and no currently approved ELL program. From the lens of situated cognition, it is unlikely that candidates will learn to be effective leaders of schools with ELL students from an internship experience that does not provide the opportunity them to engage in the authentic work of learning to lead with ELLs under the tutelage of an effective mentor.

One opportunity inherent in this challenge is that through the additional support of the intern, schools that have been unable to gather enough resources to adequately serve their (albeit small) ELL populations will have additional support in doing so through the work of the intern and input of the university faculty supervisor. Those schools that have yet to experience the impact of Illinois' demographic changes more broadly will find themselves poised better to do so after interns have helped lay the groundwork for future ELL students.

Because it is not reasonable or feasible to limit admission to those students who have easy access to an internship site with an ELL population or a state-approved ELL program, other options will have to be explored. One idea that has been successful in other regions is the development of collaborations and partnerships between principal preparation programs and districts that are currently offering approved ELL programs. This partnership could result in a demonstration site that could provide an opportunity to gain experience with ELL students and programs that would not be otherwise available. Partnerships with school districts that have high quality ELL programs would allow interns to conduct school visits and see what a larger, high quality program looks like in action. Another possibility for addressing lack of access to high quality ELL programs would be to leverage technology to move far beyond Downstate University's geographic boundaries. Perhaps with virtual partnerships, even within the state of Illinois, aspiring leaders could broaden their leadership skills though meaningful interaction with a virtual internship site. From a situative cognitive perspective though, none of these solutions are likely to result in true mastery of the competencies needed to effectively lead in schools with substantive ELL populations.

Policy Implications

While the demographics of Illinois are changing, they are not changing in the same ways consistently across the state. The ELL population is concentrated in the Chicago area meaning it is much easier geographically for principal preparation programs to facilitate access to high quality ELL programs during the field experiences and internship. In fact, a review of the Illinois Interactive Report Card database shows that most interns in the Chicago metropolitan area would have access to gaining experience in an approved ELL program at their own school or at least within their own school district. This is the exact opposite of the experience of students outside the Chicago metropolitan area. Outside of the Chicago metropolitan area, the number of ELL students is growing, but for many potential interns, qualifying programs are inaccessible because of distance.

Rather than take the chance that programs will offer minimal opportunities for mastery to candidates because of demographic and geographic limitation, it seems wise to reconsider the practicality of the ELL provisions of SB 96-03. While Downstate University does not serve a region with high levels of ELLs, there are other forms of diversity (socio-economic and racial), which though passingly mentioned in the new law, are not a primary focus of it. From a perspective of situated cognition, focusing on effective leadership within the existing forms of diversity would afford each candidate the opportunity to engage authentically in the contexts available in learning to lead well in their community of practice. And in Downstate University's region, academic achievement for those subgroups is also an urgent concern.

SB 96-0903 focuses on only a few subpopulations (ELL, SPED, gifted, and early childhood) while omitting provisions for other subpopulations of students that frequently experience achievement gaps. Most noteworthy in the Downstate University region is the cursory mention in the legislation of teaching principals to work with students living in poverty (which is mentioned twice but not operationalized anywhere in the rules). Illinois in general has experienced a surge in poverty in the last decade, particularly among youth. While the overall poverty rate is 13.8% (Heartland Alliance, 2011), forty-nine percent of the state's public school population is receiving free and reduced lunch (Northern Illinois University, 2014).

In addition to a lack of focus on teaching principals to work effectively with students who have low socio-economic status, there is no mention at all in SB 96-0903 of teaching principals to meet the needs of students from varying racial and ethnic backgrounds, and also no mention of the importance of closing the achievement gap between boys and girls. Yet, data show that Illinois's achievement gaps are in no way limited to the gap between ELL and their non-ELL peers. For example, since 2007, there has been an achievement gap between Black and White students in Illinois in all tested subjects at all grade levels every single year (Northern Illinois University, 2014). In this example, the gap posted between Black and White students in 2013 is in most cases greater than any of the preceding six years (Northern Illinois University, 2014). The exact same pattern is present when the achievement gap between Low-income and Non low-income students in Illinois is examined. Since 2007, in every single grade, in every single subject a large gap exists between Low-income and Non low-income students in Illinois.

Clearly, improving educational outcomes for ELLs in Illinois should be a priority, but achievement gaps in Illinois are by no means limited to ELLs versus non-ELLs. Given the fact that every principal will face challenges with the groups not mentioned in the legislation, that there are several AYP subgroups not mentioned at all in the legislation, and that only a small percent of graduates will obtain jobs where they work with ELLs, it seems that the policy would

be far more likely to improve educational outcomes for more students in Illinois with a few important changes.

First, the definition of all students needs to be expanded to include all AYP subgroups at a minimum. This broader definition of "all students" needs to be thoroughly infused into the legislation and its associated code. Next, institutions that prepare principals need flexibility in applying the rules during the internship so that the focus is on school improvement in general. Candidates should be expected to specialize their internship towards areas needing improvement at their internship sites rather than being required to work with a constricted and predetermined list of subgroups that may or may not actually exist at their school. Candidates should be expected to demonstrate their competency at closing achievement gaps in the setting that is geographically available to them regardless of the subgroups with whom they work. Candidates could exit their programs with competency in effectively improving educational opportunities for one or more subgroups very effectively.

Given the complexity of the principal's job in the current educational context, it is possible that it isn't feasible for a candidate to attain the mastery needed to be a truly effective leader with all subgroups in one, 2-year master's degree, regardless of the quality of that program. Illinois should consider creating tiers of principal endorsement. Rather than run the risk of an aspiring principal trying to learn so much during their preparation program that they learn little or nothing very well, a basic endorsement could be offered that demonstrates that the candidate has a developing level of skills at various aspects of school leadership. The second tier of the principal certificate could signify mastery at leading schools with various AYP subpopulations and include additional training and field experiences designed to develop various dimensions of cultural competence, including ELLs but also perhaps including students living in poverty, students with disabilities, and racial subgroups -- AYP subpopulations that deserve our full attention if they are to benefit from Illinois' public schools.

Summary and Conclusion

Although SB 96-0903 has the potential to improve educational outcomes for ELLs and other subgroups by changing principal preparation, it is unlikely to do so for two important reasons. First, the current PreK-12 public school system in Illinois as a whole is not consistently effective at educating ELLs and therefore, even aspiring principals with access to a school with a substantive ELL population will likely not have access to internship experiences that will adequately prepare them to lead highly effective ELL programs if one assumes that access to a successful community of practice is required for such learning. Without unprecedented changes in the collaboration between university faculty, interns, principals, and other practitioners, interns will work in schools learning practices that, in general, often do not succeed with ELL students, as is demonstrated by recent achievement data. Even worse, if interns work with principals who are not effective at leading schools that promote achievement for ELL students, they may learn to perpetuate ineffective practices. Driscoll (2005), in discussing some of the pitfalls of cognitive apprenticeships describes the learning that occurs in an ineffective organization as "fossilization," where an intern "simply adopts the practices of the organization and fails to develop more competent or sophisticated skills" (p. 175). The human geography of Illinois is such that most principal candidates in Illinois outside of Chicago will have little or no access to any ELL program at all where they might actualize one of the intended outcomes of the legislation, which is to become effective in leading schools with populations of ELL students..

Without access to a community of practice, a cognitive apprenticeship is not possible. And in addition to being unlikely to promote better education for ELL students, SB 96-0903 misses the mark because it is not flexible enough in the way it defines all students. Rather than leveraging the actual demographics of the state to provide every candidate with opportunities to learn how to improve schools in a local and authentic context, university programs are required to teach aspiring leaders to improve schools for populations of kids that may be hundreds of miles away. The passage of SB 96-0903 in Illinois seems a clear example of putting policy before capacity. Richard Elmore notes that,

> Elected officials —legislators, governors, mayors, school board members— generate electoral credit by initiating new ideas, not making the kind of steady investments in people that are required to make the education sector more effective (2011, p. 35).

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