

NCPEA Education Leadership Review,
Volume 10, Number 2; August 2009

Collection Editor:

National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

NCPEA Education Leadership Review, Volume 10, Number 2; August 2009

Collection Editor:

National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Authors:

Ann Allen
Marytza Gawlik
Doreen Gosmire
Jerry Johnson
Lane Mills
Marcia Morrison
National Council of Professors of

Educational Administration
William Rouse
John Roush
Shane Shope
Joanne Van Osdel
Caryn M. Wells

Online:

< <http://cnx.org/content/col10710/1.2/> >

C O N N E X I O N S

Rice University, Houston, Texas

This selection and arrangement of content as a collection is copyrighted by National Council of Professors of Educational Administration. It is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>)

Collection structure revised: February 22, 2010

PDF generated: October 26, 2012

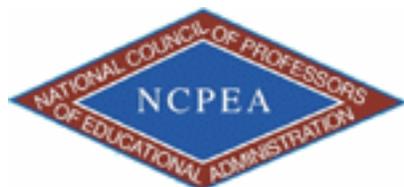
For copyright and attribution information for the modules contained in this collection, see p. 62.

Table of Contents

1	Education Leadership Review List of Reviewers (July 2009)	1
2	Johnson, J., Shope, S., & Roush, J. (July 2009). Toward a Responsive Model for Educational Leadership in Rural Appalachia: Merging Theory and Practice	3
3	Wells, C. (July 2009). Leadership, Quantum Mechanics and the Relationship with Professional Learning Communities	13
4	Allen, A., & Gawlik, M. (July 2009). Preparing District and Charter School Leaders: A Systems Perspective	21
5	Morrison, M., Gosmire, D., & Van Osdel, J. (July 2009). Administrators' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Value and Current Use of the ELCC Standards	31
6	Mills, L., McDowelle, J., & Roush, W. (July 2009). Does Research Support New Approaches for the Evaluation of School Leaders: Using Emotional Intelligence in Formative Evaluation	43
7	Ward, C. (July 2009). Implementing Success Against All Odds: A Lesson from Three Historically Underperforming Schools	51
	Index	61
	Attributions	62

Chapter 1

Education Leadership Review List of Reviewers (July 2009)¹



NOTE: Reviewers and their university affiliations for the July 2009 publication of the NCPEA Education Leadership Review, a nationally peer-review journal in education leadership. Editors I. Philip Young, University of California Davis; and Kenneth Lane, Southeastern Louisiana University.

Education Leadership Review List of Reviewers (July 2009 Issue)

David Dunnaway, University of North Carolina Charlotte	William Price, Eastern Michigan University	Kenneth Rasmussen, South Dakota State University
Delois Maxwell, Virginia State University	Sandra Harris, Lamar University	Kathleen Campbell, Southeastern Louisiana University
Rose McNeese, University of Southern Mississippi	Athanase Gahungu, Chicago State University	James Drexler, Covenant College
Bettye Grigsby, University of Houston Clear Lake	Jody Isernhagen, University of Nebraska Lincoln	Paul Hewitt, University of Arkansas
Jerry Johnson, Ohio University	Virgil Freeman, Northwest Missouri University	Jacque Jacobs, Washington Central University
<i>continued on next page</i>		

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24487/1.3/>>.

Francis Duffy, Gallaudet University	Marcia Lamkin, University of North Florida	Carlton Holt, University of Arkansas
Renard Jackson, North Central College	Mack Hines, Sam Houston State University	Gary Schumacher, University of Houston Clear Lake
Glenn Koontz, Regent University	Donnie Snider, Abilene Christian University	Lisa Driscoll, University of North Carolina Charlotte
Mick Arnold, Southwest Baptist University	Thomas Kersten, Roosevelt University	Linda Searby, University of Alabama Birmingham
Donald Wise, California State University Fresno	John Fulwiler, Southeastern Louisiana University	Ronald Lindahl, Alabama State University
Heather Duncan, University of Wyoming	Judith Zimmerman, Bowling Green State University	Lu Stephens, Angelo State University
Effie Christie, Kean University	Robert Beach, Alabama State University	James Berry, Eastern Michigan University
Lloyd Goldsmith, Abilene Christian University	Patricia Marcelina, Adelphi University	Ric Brown, Brown Consulting
Jason Mixon, Lamar University	Douglas Roby, Wright State University	Janet Tareilo, Stephen F. Austin State University
Mohamed Nur-Awaleh, Illinois State University	Douglas DeWhitt, Salisbury University	Jeffrey Oescher, Southeastern Louisiana University
Angela Webster, University of Central Arkansas	Mary Harris-John, Marshall University	Beverly Irby, Sam Houston State University
Marcus Shelton, George Fox University	Craig Peck, University of Central Georgia	Carlos Alers, Universidad Metropolitana
Marjorie Ringler, East Carolina University	Bill Keane, Oakland University	John Hunt, Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Mary English, George Washington University	Earl Newby, Virginia State University	

Table 1.1

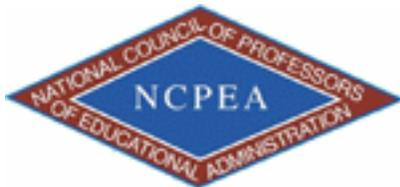
Chapter 2

Johnson, J., Shope, S., & Roush, J. (July 2009). Toward a Responsive Model for Educational Leadership in Rural Appalachia: Merging Theory and Practice¹

2.1 Sumario en espanol

Este papel conceptual utiliza disciplinas varias de académico para exponer un modelo de liderazgo educativo molió en la justicia social y sensible a los desafíos y fuerzas extraordinarios de escuelas rurales de Apalaches y comunidades. El desarrollo modelo creció fuera de discusiones entre facultad y estudiantes de posgrado en un liderazgo educativo programa doctoral, incitando un diálogo que unió teoría y práctica por (1) lecturas críticas de modelos tradicionales de liderazgo y de modelos alternativos que pretenden satisfacer mejor las necesidades de estudiantes y familias económicamente desventajados, y (2) un examen cercano de la práctica en el profesional vive de los autores, cada uno de quien sirve o ha servido Como un administrador de la escuela en un Apalaches rurales que ponen. Seguir una discusión del modelo de liderazgo, la consideración es dada a las implicaciones para programas de preparación de liderazgo y prácticas.

NOTE: Esta es una traducción por computadora de la página web original. Se suministra como información general y no debe considerarse completa ni exacta.



NOTE: 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 education administration. In addition to publication in the Connexions Content

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24352/1.2/>>.

Commons, this module is published in the International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, ² Volume 5, Number 2 (October - December, 2010), ISSN 2155-9635. Formatted and edited in Connexions by Theodore Creighton, Virginia Tech and Janet Tareilo, Stephen F. Austin State University.

2.2 Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Traditional leadership theories (e.g., trait theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, transactional/transformational leadership theories) grounded in positivist assumptions and functionalist research are challenged in terms of their applicability across diverse contexts and on the basis of their potential to misguide leadership practice and work against desirable schooling outcomes like more equitable distributions of student achievement (Blackmore, 2007; English, 2005; Howley & Howley, 2007; Ryan, 2005). Alternatives to traditional models exist, but they too exhibit limitations that call into question their applicability and raise questions about their potential to do harm. Perhaps the most well-known contemporary model of this type, one that is widely embraced by practitioners and teacher/administrator preparation programs, is the one embodied in the work of Dr. Ruby Payne and her work around understanding the culture of poverty (e.g., Payne, 1995). While immensely popular, Payne's work has its share of critics (see, e.g., Gorski, 2008). Presenting some of that criticism is useful here in the context of this current project, because it informs the conceptual framework for the alternative model we propose. While Payne's framework is presented as an alternative to traditional ways of thinking about teaching, learning, and leading, the model upon which the framework is built is not new; indeed, the culture of poverty tradition has a long and stubborn history. It was parented in large part by Lewis (1959) in a series of case studies from Mexico. It is now firmly part of the "pejorative" tradition in sociology. The best early critique of it came from Valentine (1970), but there have been more recent critiques. Lewis was sympathetic to the poor and recognized poverty was forced by external forces, but he concluded the dysfunction that accompanies poverty ultimately becomes internalized and culturally heritable (i.e., children get it from their parents). The application of such thinking to schooling emphasizes middle class characteristics that poorer children lack (i.e., it is a deficit model) and ignores structural influences that create and maintain social stratification; the result is both a shifting of the blame and legitimization of the status quo.

More generally, the practical utility of the culture of poverty approach is limited because it *essentializes* the communities and the constituents with whom educational leaders work (i.e., the approach purports to comprehend the essence of an individual or community on the basis of a single identifying characteristic, poverty). In such a model, to know that an individual or a community is economically disadvantaged is enough to claim an understanding of the knowledge bases, resident capacities, and core beliefs of that individual or community. Of note with regard to the project, this kind of essentializing gains particularly strong grounding when applied to rural contexts, as the notion that all rural areas are the same is an idea that persists in America today (Brown & Swanson, 2003; Johnson & Strange, 2007).

In contrast to existing approaches, the model we suggest seeks to be socially and culturally responsive while acknowledging key structural influences that impact rural schools and communities in Central Appalachia. The model is organized around three key areas of understanding for educational leaders: knowledge, place, and people (see Figure 1).

²<http://www.ncpeapublications.org>



Figure 2.1: Conceptual Model

We argue that the development of leaders who can move forward educational goals while contributing to sustaining and revitalizing rural communities requires both intellectual and emotional engagement. Central to engagement is the consideration of power, and we ground our approach in critical understandings of the power dynamics that have shaped contemporary Appalachia. Power has been deployed throughout the region to neglect and exploit human and natural resources of the region, creating and maintaining poverty that is both intense and enduring. Understanding such dynamics, we contend, is a necessary precursor to effective leadership in this context—educational or otherwise.

2.3 Knowledge

Critical theorists assert that Knowledge (i.e., knowledge with a capital “K”—the information and skills deemed important and appropriate by recognized experts and authorities) represents a source of power and has historically been deployed as a means of marginalizing certain groups (see e.g., Apple, 1999, 2002; Fraser, 1997; Giroux, 1997, 2001). Attentive to this critical reading of knowledge and power, the model we propose consciously and deliberately acknowledges the worth of information and skills not typically associated with schooling. Specifically, the model construes Knowledge as comprising both (1) an academic component (i.e., traditional knowledge such as that defined by official curricula and assessed as part of educational accountability systems) and (2) a contextual component (i.e., knowledge that is closely connected to place and culture and is learned informally through interactions with others, particularly interactions that occur outside of the formal schooling process). Combining these two components, we propose here a third construct termed *systemic knowledge* to describe an integrative knowledge that honors both academic and contextual forms of knowledge, thereby catalyzing the individual strengths of each (cf. Geertz, 1973; Jackson, 1996; Williams, 1958/2001). The result is a kind of Deweyian knowledge that reflects common experiences and shared commitments, thereby resonating with learners.

There are immediate practical implications for a schooling process that honors and is attentive to these differing forms of knowledge—e.g., such a process can assist in preparing individuals to navigate the varied systems and divergent contexts that impact on their survival and well-being (Cuseo, Fecas, & Thompson, 2007). There are less direct implications, and these are implications that speak to the primary issues of power and powerlessness that we confront here. Understanding these implications necessitates a consideration of the culturalist perspective that the distribution of material goods in society and the distribution of curricular

goods in schooling are related. Reflecting on that perspective, Williams (1961, p. 125) writes:

The cultural choices involved in the selection of content [will be seen to] organic relationship to the social choices involved in the practical organization of [society]. If we are to discuss education adequately, we must examine, in historical terms, this organic relation, for to be conscious of a choice made is to be conscious of further and alternative choices available.

Put simply, representation in the curriculum (i.e., officially sanctioned knowledge) mirrors social patterns of haves and have-nots. Knowledge as construed in the model proposed here works against such representations, redistributing to groups and cultures that have been excluded a place in the curriculum.

The implications for students and families in rural Appalachia (as for other marginalized groups) are enormous and far-reaching. Eagleton (1991) contends that marginalized groups must be actively taught the ideology that marginalizes them—i.e., individuals are not born with a sense of powerlessness; they learn it. Stereotypes abound, of course, and do grievous harm in this regard (consider, e.g., the film *Wrong Turn* [McElroy, 2003]). Such ideological teaching can take more passive approaches as well. In the context of schooling, as Williams (1961) noted, excluding a group from the curriculum (the manifestation, within schooling, of what constitutes important knowledge) is a way of teaching members of that group that they don't matter. Reframing our understandings of knowledge to honor and integrate academic and contextual components, can work against this kind of marginalization and work toward re-positioning marginalized groups (like rural Appalachians) to a place where they share a substantive role.

The idea that knowledge as a source of power that (1) has contributed to inequitable distributions of societal goods, and (2) can be repurposed and marshaled to work against such inequitable distributions is not standard fare in most educational leadership programs. In the model described, such an understanding is crucial for effective leadership. To be successful a school leader must be able to identify the power structures and system resources available. In a region where knowledge brokers are looked at with skepticism, this is difficult work that requires skill sets and dispositions overlooked in traditional leadership models: humility, self efficacy, and a deep trust in people and their abilities.

2.4 Place

The phrase “knowing your place” carries with it connotations of powerlessness and exclusion (i.e., it serves as a reminder to marginalized groups that their “place” is not at the center where decisions are made among equals; it is at the margins where those impacted by the processes from which they are excluded await the results of deliberations of deliberations conducted at the center). In that sense, rural Appalachian people all too often know their place—much to their detriment as they internalize the beliefs and attitudes that give support to the policies and practices that oppress and marginalize them (cf. Aronowitz, 1991; Gaventa, 1980; Gramsci, 2000; Lukacs, 1972). In postmodern fashion, the model described calls for a reappropriation and repurposing of *place* as part of operationalizing the understandings of *schooling* and *community* that responsive leadership in rural Appalachia demands.

Schooling happens within a particular place. Typically, schooling processes have no immediate connection to the particular place of the school—i.e., curriculum content and instructional practices are standardized across districts and even states, presenting students in dramatically different places (e.g., a remote rural setting versus an urban setting) with the exact same set of experiences. This kind of standardization is problematic for members of groups whose culture is not at the center, who do not see themselves reflected in the curriculum. That is not to suggest that there are no shared knowledge bases and skill sets that are relevant to all and should be taught in all settings; rather, the suggestion is for a more nuanced approach that reflects important universal skills while acknowledging and valuing the importance of place. Pedagogies described under the umbrella of place-based learning offer viable approaches for undertaking this kind of work (see Gruenewald, 2003; Hutchison & Orr, 2004; Smith, 2002; Smith & Gruenewald, 2007; Sobel, 2004). Such pedagogies meld awareness of place with rigorous academic content and service learning to create opportunities for students to engage in learning the kinds of knowledge that Smith (202, p. 586) describes: “valuable knowledge for most children is knowledge that is directly related to their own social reality, knowledge that will allow them to engage in activities that are of service to and valued by those they

love and respect.”

Place-based learning is an integral part of the model we propose, but the model goes beyond classroom pedagogy to embrace the broader construct of *place-conscious capacity-building* (Johnson, Thompson, & Naugle, in press). Three key tenets of that model are directly applicable:

1. *Responsive practice.* Professional development for teachers, administrators, and other helping professionals should acknowledge that what is best in one place may not be necessarily best someplace else (and that “best practices” that are shared and/or mandated often originate in the experiences of default suburban and urban settings), and instead emphasize research-based *responsive* practices (or practices that are attentive to the research literature and also attentive to the specific characteristics and conditions of a particular place—in this instance, primarily rural, remote, low-resource Appalachian communities).
2. *Broadening of roles and of membership.* Leadership, decision-making, and governance should embrace democratic principles that are inclusive of mandated governance structure, but should move beyond required participation to involve the broader community in roles and responsibilities not mandated in statute or administrative regulation (e.g., the model broadens the definition of who is a “teacher,” calling on community members to share their expertise in structured learning opportunities for students; the model ensures that a diverse group of community members are represented in strategic planning for the school and/or school district).
3. *Building a viable structure for sustainable work.* All work should attend to achieving immediate and short range goals (e.g., positive student outcomes), as well as long-range goals (e.g., building sustainable structures to support continued improvements in student outcomes as well as in the resident populations served by the school).

This perspective posits an approach to leadership that is very different from the roles described in traditional leadership or in commonly acknowledged alternative approaches. Key to this leadership approach is a thorough understanding of multifaceted meanings of place (both practical and symbolic). Thus, a place-conscious approach to leadership acknowledges the importance of the school as a part of the community’s place (e.g., by recognizing the role of the school as a community center and encouraging its use as such) and is attentive to the need to value the educative potential of places outside the school (e.g., by conducting school-related interactions and functions in nonschool settings).

This kind of leadership is particularly important in rural settings where schools are the primary (perhaps only) institutional *places* with which people come into contact. Thus, the school is the front line for engaging with the institutional world, and can be a barrier or a facilitator. As a facilitator, schools can be the advocate for individuals without a voice and a mediator in the institutional world. To do so successfully, leaders must be attentive to key cultural and economic dynamics at work in their communities, and to develop the ability and willingness to see the community through multiple lenses. Humility, patience, and understanding are all key components in making organic change in the schools and communities of Appalachia.

2.5 People

Given their economic stress, remoteness, and related challenges, rural Appalachian communities lack many attributes and characteristics commonly construed as *assets* with the potential to contribute to schooling outcomes (e.g., community-based facilities, non-school agencies supporting education). The primary asset with the potential to benefit schools and communities in rural Appalachia is its people. Indeed, along with the land itself, the people of Appalachia are perhaps the region’s most distinguishing characteristic. Exposing the richness of these human assets rather than exploiting the poverty that characterizes them is a means to gain respect and value amongst the residents of Appalachia. Thus, effective educational leaders in rural Appalachian contexts must find ways to openly and deliberately acknowledge and value the resident resources that human assets represent.

Weber’s (1968) theoretical framework of titular versus legitimate leadership offers a useful approach for considering leadership in this context. As credentialed professionals with official titles, educational leaders

hold titular authority and can exercise that authority over people with whom they share an institutional relationship (e.g., superintendent over principal; principal over teacher). To be effective, leaders must also engage and enlist the commitments and efforts of others over whom they do not exercise such authority. That means earning and developing some measure of legitimate authority, a warrant to lead that is grounded in recognition of one's capacity. This is particularly important in the context of communities and cultures like those of rural Appalachia where traditional sources and symbols of authority (e.g., college degrees, dress, language) are not recognized as primary—and, indeed, are often distrusted.

Rural people in general, and rural Appalachians in particular, see value in what is practical and useful (cf. Whisnant, 1994; Berry 1987). In a community that is experiencing decline and has lost its primary economic base, the ability to subsidize one's family's diet by gardening and/or hunting is valued. Likewise, exercising practical skills and capacities to generate supplemental income (e.g., by doing home improvement work for residents of other communities) is valued. Similarly, leadership that is grounded in what is practical and useful is valued. Consequently, the community member who can effect action (i.e., can make things happen) is valued and recognized as a legitimate leader in the community.

The work of the educational leader this model describes is informed by two key ideas with regard to the people and to place: (1) that forming and maintaining authentic working relationships with non-educators who possess alternative expertise and legitimate authority is crucial, and (2) that the titular position offers an important platform for advocacy work that can only be accomplished through a mixture of titular and legitimate authority. Specifically, those holding institutional positions of authority (e.g., school superintendent) have the power and privilege to make things happen. These are the individuals who can "fix" things, broker deals on items, or arrange to bypass red tape and lengthy processes. People lacking privilege and social capital need someone in these places to provide them with access to and understanding of the system and to be a sounding board for them. To act effectively in this advocacy role, educational leaders must view themselves as cohabitants with stakeholders rather than as colonizers. Educational leaders are perceived as the keepers of knowledge to many of our local constituents. This model contends that leaders are responsible for sharing, imparting, and *learning from the established* knowledge of the people they serve—here, people from rural Appalachian communities.

Thus, responsive school leaders are willing and able to use their titular position to empower rather than exercise power over historically marginalized people. Schools can begin to take on a new community role in this model. Curriculum and pedagogy can begin to seep outside of the classroom walls and text. Educational institutions that embrace community resources, place-based pedagogies and experiential learning can become institutions that value people on an entirely new level. Leaders who formalize, actuate, and sustain resources representative of the knowledge of people in their communities exercise a new level of thinking pursuant to wisdom.

2.6 Implications for Leadership Preparation Programs

The above-described model offers several implications for educational leadership preparation programs. Generally, the model suggests that preparation programs should incorporate approaches that are attentive to the humanistic considerations of leadership practice. Curricula should include substantive work related to cultural and ethical bases of leadership, consciousness of place, and the inclusion of readings outside the canon of traditional educational models (importantly, the idea here is not to replace the canon, but to augment it with readings that offer varied perspectives and new lenses for considering traditional readings and interpreting and working with lived experiences). In an attempt to meet the needs of the communities they will serve, aspiring school leaders must be equipped with the tools to implement programs and deploy strategies within specific contexts—skill sets that, we argue, are best developed via wide readings, reflection, and critical examination of readings and experiences. To meet the challenges of diverse groups and, perhaps most particularly, historically marginalized groups, school leaders must be well-versed in understanding the needs and obstacles people face in their everyday lives.

A well balanced curriculum is needed to meet these needs. For programs preparing leaders for rural and Appalachian schools and districts, authors such as Wendell Berry, John Gaventa, Wes Jackson, and

David Whisnant, offer readings that would be considered outside the disciplines of education or educational leadership, but can be crucial to developing the kinds of cultural, sociological, and economic understandings of context that can (and, we argue, should) inform leadership. The scope here is broad and is intended to make possible perspectives that many educators and leaders rarely experience. The idea is to develop breadth and depth in school leaders' awareness of context, in their understanding of the obstacles that their constituencies face, and in the knowledge bases and skills sets they can bring to bear dealing with issues impacting teaching and learning. The model further suggests an emphasis on understanding how schooling can and should operate in ways that sustain and revitalize the communities they serve, and how communities can and should operate in ways that contribute to desirable schooling outcomes. Works in this line of inquiry (e.g., Longo, 2007; Sobel, 2004; Morse, 2004) offer viable strategies and solid warrants for approaches such as those embodied in the model presented and provide a good starting part for discussions about the possibilities for schools and communities catalyzing each others' efforts in ways that can impact both community and schooling in a positive and constructive manner.

In addition to theoretical and analytical works that consider communities, schooling, and the intersection of the two, works of fiction that explicitly engage with rural people and rural communities can help to develop in aspiring leaders an understanding of the rural *lifeworlds* (Habermas, 1987; Sergiovanni, 2000) they will encounter. The reading of authentically rural novels (e.g., *Jayber Crow* [Berry, 2001]; *The End of Vandalism* [Drury, 2006]; *The Shipping News* [Proulx, 1999]) has proven to be professionally beneficial and intellectually engaging among students in the leadership program at the authors' institution, presenting those students with the opportunity to engage with rural communities at a level of depth not otherwise attainable in an academic exercise (and, moreover, to critically reflect and analyze with a level of honesty that might be impractical if they were considering an actual community—particularly the one in which they live and/or work).

Course assignments for aspiring leaders in preparation program should include—in addition to assignments directly related to preparing for traditional administrative tasks and responsibilities that they will be undertaking as leaders—activities that engage skill sets from other discipline that can contribute indirectly to leadership/administrative capacity. A prime example is community asset mapping (see, e.g., http://www.bonner.org/resources/modules/modules_pdf/BonCurCommAssetMap.pdf³). A vital tool for community organizers and community economic development teams, community asset mapping offers a process for school leaders to identify, engage, and work with the human, material, and structural assets within a community. The approach offers depth and breadth over traditional understanding of school-community partnerships, positioning leaders and aspiring leaders to make the most of the inherent potential in the partnering of the two entities.

2.7 Conclusion

The leadership model we propose eschews simple answers and one-size-fits-all solutions, calling upon leaders to be consciously and explicitly attentive to context, and to accept the responsibilities inherent in constructs portraying leadership as a form of service (cf. Autry, 2001). Such a model requires ongoing learning and personal development on the part of leaders—including, in no small part, rather broad reading and active, thoughtful reflection on readings and their relation to theory, practice, and lived experiences. Aspiring and practicing educational leaders operating within this model must develop a critical awareness of their practice in order to challenge inequities and promote and enact ethical treatment and care of those they serve (most particularly, those who lack the social and political capital to enact change on their own behalf). Not everyone in the field would agree that these are the responsibilities of educational leaders, of course, but we assert that leaders can and should embrace these challenges. Moreover, in the context of rural Appalachian communities, we assert that they must in order for meaningful action to occur and systemic change to take place.

The model acknowledges the importance of knowledge and information, but moves beyond traditional

³http://www.bonner.org/resources/modules/modules_pdf/BonCurCommAssetMap.pdf

understandings to consider the ways that wisdom and the power to effect change can evolve from understanding knowledge in the place where one is standing and with whom one is standing. This movement beyond traditional leadership models demands humility and a sense of service to communities (cf. Middleton, 1999). Educational leaders, this model would suggest, must find the axis on which their community spins, understand it, embrace it, and serve it.

Importantly, while the model was developed with a specific focus on rural Appalachia, the central tenets upon which it was built—cultural responsiveness, attentiveness to context, servant leadership, etc.—are readily transferrable to other contexts, including urban and suburban communities. At its core, the model is built upon the recognition that schools, students, and communities cannot be homogenized; that effective leaders will know and understand the unique challenges and unique strengths that characterize the communities they serve; and that the knowledge bases and skill sets for that knowing and understanding can be cultivated. Such an approach can be applied anywhere that leaders are committed to what is best for their educational institutions and their community.

2.7.1 References

- Autry, J. A. (2001). *The Servant Leader*. New York: Crown.
- Berry, W. (2001). *Jayber Crow*. Berkeley: Counterpoint.
- Blackmore, J., & Sachs, J. (2007). *Performing and reforming leaders: Gender, educational restructuring, and organizational change*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Brown, D., & Swanson, L. (2003). *Challenges for rural America in the twenty-first century*. University Park: Pennsylvania State University Press.
- Cuseo, J. Fecas, V., & Thompson, A. (2007). *Thriving in college and beyond: Research-based strategies for academic success and personal development*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall-Hunt.
- Drury, T. (2006). *The end of vandalism*. New York: Grove.
- English, F. (2005). *The Sage handbook of educational leadership: Advances in theory, research, and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gorski, P. (2008). Peddling poverty for profit: Elements of oppression in Ruby Payne's Framework. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, 41(1), 130-148.
- Howley, A., & Howley, C. (2007). *Thinking about schools: New theories and innovative practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Habermas, J. (1987). Lifeworld and system: A critique of functionalist reason (vol. 2). *The Theory of communicative action* (T. McCarthy, Trans.). Boston: Beacon Press.
- Jackson, W. (1996). *Becoming native to this place*. Berkeley, CA: Counterpoint.
- Johnson, J. & Strange, M. (2007). *Why rural matters: The realities of rural education growth*. Arlington, VA: The Rural School and Community Trust.
- Johnson, J., Thompson, A., & Naugle, K. (In Press). Place-conscious capacity-building: A systemic model for the revitalization and renewal of rural schools and communities through university-based regional stewardship. *Rural Society*, 19(3).
- Lewis, O. (1959). *Five families: Mexican case studies in the culture of poverty*. New York: Basic Books.
- Longo, N. (2007). *Why Community Matters: Connecting Education With Civic Life*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Middleton, J. (1999). Why administrators need diversity training. *The School Administrator*, 89(9), 77.
- Morse, S. (2004). *Smart Communities: How Citizens and Local Leaders Can Use Strategic Thinking to Build a Brighter Future*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Proulx, A. (1999). *The shipping news*. New York: Scribner.
- Ryan, J. (2005). *Inclusive leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Payne, R. (1995). *Poverty: A framework for understanding and working with students and adults from poverty*. Baytown, TX: RFT Publishing.
- Schmidt, R. (Director), & McElroy, A. (Writer/Producer). (2003) *Wrong turn* [Motion Picture]. United States: Summit Entertainment.

Sergiovanni, T. (2000). *The lifeworld of leadership: Creating culture, community, and personal meaning in our schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Smith, G. (2002). Place-based education: Learning to be where we are. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 83(8), 584-594.

Sobel, D. (2004). *Place-based education: Connecting classrooms and communities*. Great Barrington, MA: The Orion Society.

Valentine, C. (1970). *Culture and poverty critique and counter proposals*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Weber, M. (1924/1968). *Economy and society: An outline of interpretive sociology*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Whisnant, D. (1994). *Modernizing the mountaineer: People, power, and planning in Appalachia*. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press.

Williams, R. (1961). *The long revolution*. New York: Columbia University Press.

*CHAPTER 2. JOHNSON, J., SHOPE, S., & ROUSH, J. (JULY 2009).
TOWARD A RESPONSIVE MODEL FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN
RURAL APPALACHIA: MERGING THEORY AND PRACTICE*

Chapter 3

Wells, C. (July 2009). Leadership, Quantum Mechanics and the Relationship with Professional Learning Communities¹

All creativity is based on quantum leaps and uncertainty. Deepak Chopra, M.D. (2003, p.84)

In quantum schools, leaders pay attention to the flow and interchange of energy. Energy, not things, becomes the avenue to the flow and interchange of energy. Garmston and Wellman (1995, ¶ 15).



NOTE: This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of education administration. In addition to being published in Volume 10, Number 2 of the *NCPEA Educational Leadership Review* (ELR), it is also archived in the *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation* (Supplemental Link). Author is: Caryn Wells, Oakland University.

3.1 Introduction

It is the intersection of the research of Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) and the literature base of quantum mechanics that is the focus of this paper. PLCs are designed to change the culture of the school with *teacher learning* to improve *student learning* (Hord & Sommers, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). This teacher work demands a collaborative culture where teachers learn how to work together, changing from the isolation that typically exists in schools (Fullan, 2007; Hord, 2004; Lortie, 1975; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001). The changes that occur in schools as teacher begin to work collaboratively to focus on their learning are significant; educational analysts refer to the changes as second-order because they change the culture of the school (Fullan, 2006; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Although books about PLCs have

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24349/1.1/>>.

defined the desired states of change in the school, confusion exists as to which strategies to employ, and for what purpose (Fullan, 2001; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Wells & Feun, 2007, 2008). Fullan (2007) posed the question: “How many of us has ever read a book or an article on a learning organization, agreed with everything we have read, and then had no clue about what to do?” (p.301). Garmston and Wellman (1999) agreed, “It is one thing to note that professional communities are characterized by shared norms and values, a collective focus on student learning, collaboration, deprivatized practice and reflective dialogue. How they get that way remains the educational leaders’ most pressing problem” (p.19). Some of the answers as for how to approach the work of transforming schools into PLCs come from an interesting field: the field of quantum mechanics.

The literature on quantum mechanics allows for some different perspectives that can be applied to PLC work, providing some unique ways for thinking about the work of the school as an organization, and the flow of energy and information that create and sustain a school culture. But first, a look at the field of quantum mechanics, the questions it raises, and the approaches it might suggest for improving schools.

3.2 Quantum Mechanics

The *quantum field* or *quantum domain* consists of information and energy; in fact, everything in existence is either energy or information (Chopra, 2003, p.36). The field of quantum physics emerged as a response to the prevailing scientific views of the 17th century in which Rene Descartes and Isaac Newton described the universe as a “giant machine” (Garmston & Wellman, 1995, ¶ 9). In their view of the world, things happened in the universe by cause and effect relationships. Materials were considered to be bits of discrete particles, and the interactions were separate from the sources of energy with which it interacted (Garmston & Wellman (1995), citing Devall & Sessions, 1985, ¶ 9). Newtonian physics prevailed for almost 300 years, until the revolution of thought known as quantum theory began to emerge.

Unlike the Newtonian world of discrete bits and pieces, the quantum world is seen as a web of interrelatedness (Chopra, 2003; Garmston & Wellman, 1995; Wheatley, 1994). Chopra referred to the “chunks of energy fields vibrating at different frequencies that we perceive as solid objects are all part of a collective energy field” (p.39). In essence, any one person’s energy field comes in to contact with and responds to that of another. Hence we are all part of the great “energy soup” (Chopra, 2003, p.39). As people interact, they share information and energy.

The quantum world provides interesting implications for school improvement. Garmston and Wellman (1995) referred to the relationship of the quantum world with that of education. They stated, “In quantum schools, leaders pay attention to the flow and interchange of energy. Energy, not things becomes the avenue to attainment” (¶ 15). It is the interaction of energy in motion that is the essence of the quantum world.

3.3 The Role of Organizations and Their Relation to Quantum Mechanics

Quantum mechanics offers a view of organizations that deals more with the energy and the relationships of people, it is clear that this approach differs greatly from the Newtonian view of the world, which placed great emphasis on predictability and order (Garmston & Wellman, 1995; Wheatley, 1994). It could be argued that the Newtonian methods for organizing and improving schools are alive, although not thriving, in schools today. Wheatley (1994) stated, “It is interesting to note just how Newtonian most organizations are” (p.27). Organizations have become fragmented, divided by disciplines, bits, and subjects. Wheatley continued, “In organizations, we focused our attention on structure and organizational design, on gathering extensive numerical data, and on making decisions using sophisticated mathematical ratios” (p.27). People in organizations often believed in the study the parts to arrive at an understanding of the *whole*. When this occurs, people are still looking at the Newtonian *cause and effect* model of explanation. In contrast, it is embracing and understanding the *system* for its wisdom that can transform organizations (Senge, 1990). It is the interconnectedness, the formation of community that ultimately allows for renewal and forward motion.

The interdependence that exists in organizations is the same type of connecting element that is seen in the quantum universe (Garmston & Wellman, 1995).

Newtonian influences are woven into the structures of schools. Wheatley (1994) related the irony of the work of social scientists who are working hard to be scientific in their research by using mathematical formulas to describe and formulate responses, while “ the scientists traveling away from us at the speed of light, are moving into a universe that suggests entirely new ways of understanding” (p.141). The same desire for scientific objectivity and causal observations are true for educators in a day of accountability. Instead of utilizing the richness of anecdotal and action research that allows for personal investigation by the teachers within a school, some educational leaders have become reliant on extrinsic or standardized measures of achievement instead of utilizing their own powers to observe and analyze student learning. Educators employ a Newtonian view of their world if they look immediately for a cause and effect method of interpretation of student achievement information, particularly if they see the issues as isolated bits of information instead of concentrating on the whole system. As educators strive to be more precise in their understanding of student learning, a question can be asked if they are trading the power of their own observation and analysis for an interpretation that reduces student achievement into a bottom line of a particular test score. Looking at the school as a system of interconnections can give fresh perspectives and deep meaning to the results of student learning. Unfortunately, student learning is not often analyzed for what is working.

As schools seek to improve, they often look at failures, the quest for what is wrong. Schools have been pressed for accounting numerical interpretations of student achievement with legislation such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB). As people in organizations review data, their interactions propel the information throughout the system. First, these data are influenced by the observer, which are subsequently passed down from one level of the organization to the others, all with multiple interpretations (Wheatley, 1994). If the teachers are not involved with the analysis, they can be far removed from deeply understanding or utilizing the information. A challenge for schools is to effectively use the information they are accumulating. Too often, schools are burdened with information that has no meaning for them. The key to better understanding is to harness the talents of teachers who are closest to the work of the students, in analyzing student learning.

Contrast the Newtonian approach to accountability with a systems approach that builds the professional capacity within a school, one in which the teachers discover together, the issues and problems that most confront them, and then work collaboratively to address the same. This internal capacity of professional growth is the essence of a PLC. Elmore (2002) stated,

Most schools and districts that are successful in these performance-based accountability systems- and this is going to sound counterintuitive- actually pay relatively little attention to the test. They use test as benchmarks again which to judge whether they're on the right page. But the most successful schools work on the internal accountability problem that is creating greater coherence within the organization. They work on developing their own measures of whether they think they are succeeding with kids, which may have to do with reviewing student work and discussing it among colleagues. (p.43)

Organizations become learning communities when the workers interact collaboratively with each other to construct new meaning and create solutions to pressing problems (Hord, 2004; Hord & Sommers, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001, 2006; Senge, 1990; Wheatley, 1994). To build ownership, all constituents must interact. Self-renewing systems need information, and they need to allow structures and cultures that cultivate learning. Data are helpful only inasmuch as it provides for understanding and application, and when it is assimilated by the people who can use it for growth and advancement.

Teachers share the wisdom of their practice, what does and does not work with students, and yet, collaboration in and of itself does not mean renewal. To be effective, collaboration needs specific goals for continuous learning, where best educational practice is studied, and teaching is transformed (Fullan, 2007; Hord, 2004; Hord & Sommers, 2008; Palmer, 2008). Participation involves *community* and community involves *participation* if it is to be effective. It sounds simple, but this concept is profoundly challenging to the formation of PLCs (Fullan, 2006; Hord, 2004; Hord & Sommers, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001, 2006; Moller, 2004; Wells & Feun, 2007, 2008). Changing the culture of a school to reduce isolation and build community takes patience and skill. A deliberate focus is needed to bring together the people who have experienced isolation in their work. It means forging a new order of things, a way of doing business.

The ‘*it*’ is the language of relationships.

Relationships in schools have been isolating, not collegial (Fullan, 2001; McLaughlin & Yee, 1988; Lortie, 1975). In the past, teachers have not typically been part of the design of learning for the larger system; this has been private work, done in isolation of colleagues (Blankstein, 2004; Fullan, 2001; Lieberman, 1995; Lortie, 1975). Relationships become the important foundation for the work that is asked of the workers in any organization. Garmston and Wellman (1995) defined self-renewing schools as places that are governed by relationships (§ 54). Schools should be envisioned as collaborative places where the adults come together to solve their pressing issues and work with passion to make them better.

New skills are needed to assist in creating workplaces that foster relationships. People in organizations need to spend less time on delineating tasks and dividing responsibilities, and more time on fostering *process* where listening, communicating and facilitating are center stage. Wheatley (1994) stated, “Now I look carefully at how a workplace organizes its relationships; not its tasks, functions, and hierarchies, but the patterns of relationship and the capacities available to form them” (p.39).

The relationships in an organization can produce positive or negative energy. As educators begin to develop new skills of collaborating in PLCs, problems surface (Hord & Sommers, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; Supovitz, 2006, Wells & Feun, 2007, 2008). Teachers are reluctant to deprivatize practice, which has not been the order of schools (Fullan, 2007). Teachers need help in learning how to collaborate. Building collegiality is a complicated process that takes time, patience, and skills to develop. Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (1988) related the skills that leaders used to build collaboration in their staffs:

- Building trust and rapport
- Organizational diagnosis
- Dealing with the process
- Using resources
- Managing the work
- Building skill and confidence in others (p.153)

The skills listed above follow the logic of the quantum world; they are the skills that focus on the connections that people make as they bring their wisdom and voices to the table. First on the list is the importance of relational trust. In the area of organizational diagnosis, teachers are encouraged to observe and share their observations with other members of the school, rather than passively receive the data to review. Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (1998) suggested, “Collaboration does not come as a natural consequence of working in a school. It must be taught, learned, nurtured, and supported until it replaces working privately” (p.156). Collaboration is not without conflict, and therefore it is essential that teachers learn new methods for resolving disputes and reaching consensus in PLC work.

Teachers can become agents of institutional change. Palmer (2008) stated, “These are not simply talking points for a sermon. We have empirical evidence that in the absence of moral agency and peer community, schools are less likely to grow their capacity to serve the young” (p.13). Tschannen-Moran (2004) agreed,

Professional learning communities share three important features: the adults in them act and are treated as professionals, there is a focus on learning, and there is a strong sense of community. For these three features to characterize a schools’ culture, trust is required. (p.107)

Trust is the seed in the school that feeds the culture and the culture feeds the trust; the two interact. Trust is the building block for teachers who can begin to believe again that their voice matters. Yet, Fullan (2007) reminded us, “. . .finding moral and intellectual meaning is not just to make teachers feel better, it is fundamentally related to whether teachers are likely to find the considerable energy required to transform the status quo” (p.39). The purpose of collaboration is to use human talent for growth and change, avoiding the ceiling effect of learning that people have when they learn in isolation. Leaders make a difference as they strive to create environments that empower teachers and foster relationships that develop PLCs (Fleming, 2004; LeTellier, 2007; Hord & Sommers, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; Moller, 2004; Morrissey & Cowan, 2004).

3.4 Quantum Theory and its Application to PLCs

Quantum theory provides a framework for analyzing the transformation that occurs in PLCs. For purposes of this paper, the conceptual design of PLCs is taken from Hord (2004) in which five dimensions are listed as interdependent characteristics:

- Supportive and shared leadership
- Shared values and vision
- Collective learning and application of learning
- Supportive conditions
- Shared practice (p.7)

In PLCs, teachers work collaboratively to study together, build shared practice, and improve student learning. Analysts have pointed to the difficulty in creating learning communities while calling for their creation. McLaughlin & Talbert (2001) stated, “Principles for professional development policy, practice and initiative that come from nearly two decades of U.S. reform underscore our conclusion that teacher learning communities constitute the best context for professional growth and change” (p.135). As principals foster the vision for PLCs they are well-served to begin with fostering relationships.

Quantum theory would suggest the importance of connections and relationships for their relation to PLC work. Not surprisingly, the difficulties of the tasks in collaborating stall or abort the possibilities of getting to the essence of PLC work, namely, teachers working and studying together to improve student learning. Consider the wisdom of the approach taken by Meg Wheatley (1994) who described how the understanding of the quantum universe has impacted her organizational life:

“First, I try hard to discipline myself to remain aware of the whole and to resist my well-intentioned desire to analyze the parts to death. I look for patterns of movement over time and focus on qualities like rhythm, flow, direction, and shape” (p.43).

In PLC work, there can be a tendency to analyze the parts to death as some schools take on the challenge on improving student achievement. If the driver for the improvement is lost in data analysis without the important foundational work of building relationships and allowing teachers to discover and own the problems and strengths of their school, there is a huge disconnect. Garmston and Wellman (1995) reported, “Our need to measure, record, and report may actually inhibit significant reform” (¶14).

“Second, I know I am wasting time whenever I draw straight arrows between two variables in a cause and effect diagram, or position things as polarities, or create elaborate plans and time lines.” (Wheatley, 1994, p.43)

Well-intentioned school leaders can unwittingly take on a Newtonian view of their school in an attempt to understand what is working or not working with regard to student achievement. Unfortunately, as people grapple with the PLC concepts of data analysis, there can be a causal interpretation of facts, as opposed to looking at the system as a whole. A systems approach looks at the relationships that exist between and among the variables in the school. Garmston and Wellman (1995) related, “When we apply systems thinking, we look for patterns of interaction within the system and subsystems, seeking key and often nonlinear relationships between seemingly unrelated elements” (¶39). A cause and effect approach to improving schools can be the genesis for guilt, shame, and blame, all counterproductive to growth.

“Third, I no longer argue with anyone about what is real” (Wheatley, 1994, p.43).

The work of PLCs creates tension and discord as teachers begin to define their work environment and seek to improve it (Fullan, 2007). McLaughlin & Talbert (2006) stated, “The literature on teacher learning communities also is mostly silent on the matter of how schools develop these productive professional norms and practices” (p.38). As teachers begin to work in PLCs they break cultural norms that have dictated the work environment that is autonomous and isolating. Schools can break down the barriers of isolation when they facilitate teacher work groups and build capacity for teacher leadership (Fullan, 2007; Hord & Sommers, 2008). It takes time and patience to cultivate new relationships in schools.

“Fourth, the time I formerly spent on detailed planning and analysis I now use to look at the structures that might facilitate relationships. I have come to expect that something useful occurs if I link up with people, units, or tasks, even though I cannot determine precise outcomes.” (Wheatley, 1994, pp.43-44)

The Newtonian approach in organizations is visible in the organizational charts, timelines and flowcharts, often by listing a linear progression of steps to be taken and the problems to be solved. Problems in schools are messy; simple answers do not exist for complex problems (Fullan, 2001). The quantum approach is to look at the interconnectedness of issues, and see the energy flow that people bring to the table. Self-renewing schools bring people together with an expectation for change; relational trust facilitates the changes that need to take place (Garmston & Wellman, 1995). Finally, the work in PLCs demands respect for the history and traditions of the school, while working to change them (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001).

“And last, I realize more and more that the universe will not cooperate with my desire for determinism.” (Wheatley, 1994, p. 44)

PLCs evolve as people build capacity for shared leadership; structural changes are not enough to change the deeper cultural changes (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Teacher learning is fundamental to the growth and change that is needed in PLC work (Fullan, 2007; Hord & Sommers, 2008). As teachers learn together, shared practice is built, and norms for interaction begin to shape and change the way business is conducted in the school. Learning is a foundation, not a by-product of PLC work (Hord, 2004). PLCs demand collegial interaction that moves beyond an exchange of managerial issues such as materials to purchase, student discipline, or scheduling concerns. It also means moving beyond a superficial look at assessments. Garmston and Wellman (1995) stated, “In too many settings, collegiality is confused with conviviality. Here we move beyond staff room conversations to real dialogue about teaching and learning” (¶42).

3.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The transformation to PLCs is a slow and deliberate journey, one that involves the recultering of the school (Fullan, 2001; Hord, 2004; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). As the difficulties that schools encounter are reviewed through the lenses of the quantum world, perhaps some of the challenges can be mitigated. The quantum experience speaks to the interconnectedness, energy, and participation that define PLCs. Leaders who are want to build capacity and transform schools provide pressure and support for change. Effective PLCs share decision making and power, and teachers are leaders in formal and informal ways. School administrators must simultaneously navigate the world in which they recruit new teachers whom they feel will collaborate, while working with experienced staff who are learning the skills of working together (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006).

Educational leaders are faced with choices without easy answers for pursuing educational change in their schools. Analysts have pointed to the myriad attempts to change schools to without success and the research base is growing from those who report that there is diminishing chance that the type of transformation needed to transform schools to PLCs will occur (Fullan, 2006; Giles & Hargreaves, 2006; Joyce, 2004; Schmoker, 2004; Wells & Feun, 2007).

Given the challenges, there are several *ifs* that are presented for their application to leading school change with the wisdom of quantum thought. The answers for school change are not in a flow chart, or a linear approach to solving this problem or that issue. It’s not about searching for the disease that brought about this condition. It won’t be disguised in a single test score. It won’t be found in that mission statement that took eight months to complete and divided the staff in the process. The quantum world speaks to us through the brilliance of the smallest energy bundles, or quantum mechanics, that when woven together, create a mosaic of the whole, not isolated bits. In essence, it is all about the community. If we already know that most of the approaches that we try when we work to create PLCs do not move us beyond superficial exchange of ideas (Fullan, 2007), then it is time for a new direction and employing new energy.

Some of the ‘*ifs*’ for PLCs adapted from the wisdom of quantum mechanics include:

- *If* the leaders begin the transformation to a PLC by empowering, encouraging, and enlisting faculty to come together to study their school instead of mandating an approach that relies on procedures and flow charts;
- *If* teachers are given responsibility for discovering and building a shared vision for continuous growth that begins with best practice;

- *If* the stakeholders of the school have the courage to delve deeply into their norms of isolation, and have conversations that lift them to a place of collaboration;
- *If* the leaders of the school pay particular attention to the energy of the people working there, carefully cultivating human talent by creating capacity;
- *If* the principals pay particular attention to the interconnectedness of the faculty and seek to increase their involvement and participation;

...When these “ifs” are met, then perhaps we can get across in a proverbial quantum leap to the other side where the world is not seen as an *either/or, yes/no, you or me, right or wrong* existence. Instead, it is a world, based on community of purpose, a place of continuous improvement, completed by people who are compelled to create, not just respond. It is more about finding direction and purpose, not just seeking solutions. Here’s to a new and long overdue world of connections, relationships, trust, and support in the schools.

3.6 References

- Blankstein, A. M. (2004). *Failure is not an option*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Chopra, D. (2003). *The spontaneous fulfillment of desire: Harnessing the infinite power of coincidence*. New York: Three Rivers Press.
- DeVall, B., & Sessions, G. (1985). *Living as if nature mattered*. Layton, UT: Peregrine Smith Books.
- Elmore, R.F. (2002, January). Building capacity to enhance learning: A conversation with Richard Elmore. *Principal Leadership*, 39-43.
- Fleming, G. (2004). Principals and teachers as continuous learners. In S. M. Hord, (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities*. (pp. 20-30). New York: Teacher’s College Press.
- Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fullan, M. (2006, November). Leading professional learning. *The School Administrator*. The Association of School Administrators. Retrieved February 2, 2007 from <http://www.aasa.org/publications/saarticledetail.cfm?itemNumber=7565&snItemNumber=>
- Fullan, M. (2007). *The new meaning of educational change (4th Edition)*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Garmston, R. J., & Wellman, B. M. (1995). The quantum world in an adaptive universe. *Educational Leadership*, 52, 7, 6-12. Retrieved May 27, 2008 from <http://www.ascd.org/portal/site/ascd/template.MAXIMIZE/menuitem.459dee008f99653fb...>
- Garmston, R. J., & Wellman, B.M. (1999). *The adaptive school: A sourcebook for developing collaborative groups*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.
- Giles, C., & Hargreaves, A. (2006, February)/ The sustainability of innovative schools as learning organizations and professional learning communities during standardized reform. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42, 1, 124-156.
- Hord, S. (2004). Professional learning communities: An interview. In S.M. Hord, (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities*. (pp.5-14). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Hord, S., & Sommers, W. (2008). *Leading professional learning communities: Voices from research and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Joyce, B. (2004, September). At odds: Strategic planning- how are professional learning communities created? History has a few lessons. *Phi Delta Kappan* 86 (1), Retrieved January 31, 2006 from <http://find.galegroup.com/itx/retrieve.do?contentSet=IAC-Documents&resultListType+RE...>
- LeTellier, J.P. (2007). *Quantum learning & Instructional leadership in practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Lieberman, A., Saxl, E. R., & Miles, M.B. (1988). Teacher leadership: Ideology and Practice. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Building a professional culture in school*. (pp.148-166). New York: Teachers College

Press.

Lieberman, A. (1995). Restructuring schools: The dynamics of changing practice, structure and culture. In A. Lieberman, (Ed.), *The work of restructuring schools: Building from the ground up.* (pp. 1-17). New York: Teachers College Press.

Lortie, D. (1975). *School teacher: A sociological study.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Marzano, R., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McLaughlin, M., & Talbert, J. (2001). *Professional communities and the work of high school teaching.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

McLaughlin, M., & Talbert, J. (2006). *Building school-based teacher learning communities: Professional strategies to improve student achievement.* New York: Teachers College Press.

McLaughlin, M., & Yee, S. M. (1988). School as a place to have a career. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Building a professional culture in schools.* (pp.23-44).New York: Teachers College Press.

Moller, G. (2004). Building teacher leadership within a traditional school structure. In S.M. Hord (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities.* (pp. 140-150). New York: Teachers College Press.

Morrissey, M., & Cowan, D. (2004). Creating and sustaining a professional learning community: Actions and perceptions of principal leadership. In S. M. Hord, (Ed.), *Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities.* (pp. 45-57). New York: Teacher's College Press.

Palmer, P.J. (2008, Spring). On the edge: Have the courage to lead with soul. *National Staff Development Council Journal*, 29, 2, 12-16.

Senge, P. (1990). *The fifth discipline.* New York: Doubleday.

Schmoker, M. (2004, February). Tipping point: From feckless reform to substantive instructional improvement. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85 (6),424-432.

Supovitz, J. (2006). *The case for district-based reform.* Cambridge: Harvard Education Press.

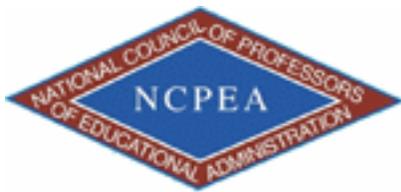
Tschannen-Moran, M. (2004). *Trust matters: Leadership for successful schools.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wells, C. & Feun. L. (2007). Implementation of learning community principles: A study of six schools. *NASSP Bulletin*. 19 (2), 141-160.

Wheatley, M. J. (1994). *Leadership and the new science: Learning about organizations from an orderly universe.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Chapter 4

Allen, A., & Gawlik, M. (July 2009). Preparing District and Charter School Leaders: A Systems Perspective¹



NOTE: This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of education administration. In addition to being published in Volume 10, Number 2 of the *NCPEA Educational Leadership Review* (ELR), it is also archived in the *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation* (Supplemental Link). Authors are: Ann Allen, The Ohio State University; and Marytza Anne Gawlik, Wayne State University, Michigan.

4.1 Introduction

Given the growth of charter schools over the last 15 years and the different skill sets charter school leaders require (Campbell, Gross, & Lake, 2008), it is appropriate that educational leadership programs prepare students for leadership in both district and charter schools. To do otherwise would be a disservice to students and a missed opportunity to contribute to the leadership needs of a growing portion of public schools. As the charter school movement grows, some colleges and universities are creating offerings that incorporate the special needs of charter school leaders, while others are developing separate programs specifically and exclusively for public charter schools principals. With a new focus of school leadership beginning to unfold, we see a need to examine the special needs of charter school leaders, how charter school leadership development fits within traditional school leadership programs, and the potential effects of separate leadership programs for district and charter school leaders on public education. With this paper, we hope to begin this discussion.

In this article, we sketch a framework that integrates contributions from educational leadership theories, including an examination of the systems perspective (Kuhn, 1966; Senge, 1990) and the democratic mission of public schooling (Gutmann, 1987; Dewey, 1916). We argue that although there has been a broad review of charter school research, a closer examination of the history of school leadership, coupled with a comparison

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24364/1.1/>>.

of district and charter school leadership roles, will yield potential areas for further leadership and research. Specifically, we explore the larger question of how separate leadership programs for public charter and public district school leaders might divide or enhance democratic goals for public education, including equity (Abernathy, 2005; Fuller, Elmore, & Orfield, 1996; Nathan, 1996), social cohesion (Levin, & Belfield, 2003; Riehl, 2000), and democratic engagement and participation (Gutmann, 1987; Mintrom, 2003). The question this paper addresses is: How might professional schools of education move forward to meet the special needs of charter school leaders while maintaining a common mission for public education? Underlying this question is a series of questions, including:

1. What are the special needs and skills of charter school leaders and how do these needs dictate differences in training?
2. What is the mission of public education? How does this mission translate across public district and charter schools?
3. How can a new paradigm of public school leadership co-exist with a traditional mission? How can a systems approach contribute to a more synergetic relationship between district and charter schools?

How educational leadership programs are designed is an important consideration in how public education is perceived and perpetuated. Despite the structure or form a public school leadership position takes, there remains a common core of values for public schooling that applies to all public school leadership positions. The challenge as we see it is how do educators design educational leadership preparation programs that meet the nuances of different types of leadership positions while maintaining a focus on this core set of values. First, we must consider what this set of values is and how well it translates across school types.

4.2 The Mission of Public Schooling

From the time of Horace Mann, public schooling was conceptualized as a common good, meant to bring students together around core values related to citizenship, democratic participation, discussion of differences, and the development of social cohesion that would lead to a well-functioning, democratic citizenry. A free education for all students, with a focus on the common good values of social cohesion, deliberation, and participation in democratic society remains a foundational goal of public education in district schools today. A report from the Center on Educational Policy identifies six common goals of public education in America (Kober, 2007, p. 7). They are:

1. To provide universal access to free education
2. To guarantee equal opportunities for all children
3. To unify a diverse population
4. To prepare people for citizenship in a democratic society
5. To prepare people to become economically self-sufficient
6. To improve social conditions

4.3 Charter Schooling: A Systems Perspective

Charter schools represent an innovation in education aimed at meeting the needs of individual students and breaking down bureaucratic barriers (Chubb & Moe, 1990; Mintrom, 1997; Wells, Grutzik, Carnochan, Slayton & Vasudeva, 1999). Such innovation, which attempts to create a new model of education, also represents a paradigm shift from a century-old model of citizen-run compensatory district schools to autonomous, independent schools that serve students who choose to enroll. Kuhn (1966) suggests that we can expect a new paradigm to do one of two things: wither from a lack of support or a lack of conversions from the old system to the new, or live side by side with the old paradigm until enough support for the new paradigm develops and then eventually eliminates the old. If successful, the new paradigm establishes a new set of assumptions by which the professional community operates. After nearly 20 years since the first charter

school law was passed in Minneapolis in 1991, charter schools have neither died nor eliminated the traditional public school districts. We gather from this that the old assumptions that underlie the traditional mission of public schooling are still relevant, and that the kind of educational choice charters promise is a compelling assumption that has been widely accepted. In other words the charter school movement has neither died nor taken over the traditional system of schooling because there is both a need for choice within the public education system and a need to ensure a place for all students. Although charter schools were designed to compete with the traditional school model, we believe the potential of charter schools lies not in a “revolution” of schooling but as an option within the system of public education.

4.4 Charter School Theory and Research

Central to the charter school theory of action is the idea that through various organizational and policy mechanisms, charter schools will lead to increased student achievement. The theories that underlie these organizational and policy mechanisms include theories that suggest a market approach to schooling will prompt all schools to improve so they can compete in the marketplace of education (Buckley & Schneider, 2007; Chubb & Moe, 1990). The market mechanism focuses on the private interests of parents, with a central tenet that these private interests will drive competition, increase pressures of all schools to improve, and put the power and motivation to engage back into the hands of parents. Hence, one pressing research question to date has been whether charter educators can increase achievement of weaker students, especially given their early success in providing access to low-income families.

A synthesis of charter school achievement studies was compiled for review and analysis and overall, the charter school impact on achievement is mixed (Miron & Nelson, 2002). Past studies have found that students attending charter schools do not consistently outperform those enrolled in regular public schools, at least on standard achievement measures. In Michigan, Horn and Miron (1998) assessed test scores, comparing students enrolled in charter and regular public schools. They found that charter students displayed weaker learning gains than students attending conventional schools. Eberts & Hollenbeck (2002) found that charter school students in Michigan scored two to three percent lower than comparable non-charter public schools. No achievement advantage has been detected in average school-wide scores among charter students in California, compared to regular schools, after taking into account social-class, language, and other student characteristics (Brown, 2003). In Arizona, researchers tracked student-level scores over a three-year period, and charter students demonstrated slightly higher reading gains across the grade levels on SAT9 scores, while a mixed to positive impact could be detected in math performance (Solmon, Paark, & Garcia, 2001). Encouraging findings have emerged in Texas, where low-income and “at risk” students attending charter schools outperformed similar students in regular public schools on the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (Texas Education Agency, 2001; 2002). Yet for other students, charter attendees did less well than those in regular schools. This research team also found that newly opened charter schools were not as effective in raising achievement as were older ones.

While one of the early goals of charter schools was to create innovations that would then be shared and transferred to district schools, Lubienski (2004) reports that little evidence exist to show that charter schools have, indeed, been innovative in terms of new instructional strategies. Although charter schools are granted a substantial degree of autonomy as an opportunity to innovate, they are often situated in some of the most competitive environments where market forces are unleashed thereby constraining innovation. According to the evidence obtained, charter schools are engaging in a wide array of educational practices that are innovative yet many of these activities are already in use in bureaucratically administered districts (Lubienski, 2004). Although educators and policymakers expect decentralization, autonomy, and deregulation to spur innovation, it may be that these forces are more successful in inducing innovations in administrative behavior than in the classroom (Lubienski, 2004).

The use of the market mechanism to improve public education has also led to significant discourse related to the public aims of public education and how those public aims might be best preserved, given alternative approaches to schooling. There is a concern that a market approach to education would create what Crenson and Ginsberg (2002) call a “personal democracy,” which may have negative effects on more public goals for

public education. A “personal democracy,” which is focused on meeting individual needs, for example, greatly reduces the need for citizens to come together and mobilize for collective ends. The privatization—or personalization—of democracy, therefore, wipes out the collective efforts to establish public policies that reflect an interest in preserving a public good, thereby decreasing if not eliminating the salience of “public” as a means for achieving collective goods. Miron & Nelson (2002) and Miron (2008) make a similar observation about the charter school movement, arguing that the values that undergird educational policies like charter schools reflect “shifting notions” of what it means to be public. For example, Miron (2008) notes:

Traditionalists, while not denying the private good aspects of public education, generally emphasize the public good aspects, which is not surprising since they view public education as having broad social goals. . . . Advocates of privatization do not deny the public good aspects of education but argue that the private good components are more important (p. 344).

One of these public good aspects of public education is social cohesion, or the idea that children from different walks of life come together and learn to be in community with one another (Gutmann, 1987; Levin & Belfield, 2003; Riehl, 2000). Gutmann (1987) argues that this is a vital component of democratic education, to teach “responsibilities and rights within a larger and more diverse community” than the one children are exposed to at home (p. 54). The argument is closely related to the issue of equity in access. If charter schools operate as public schools open to all students, then social cohesion should also be a valued component of the public charter school. One of the rationales for charter schools was to create greater equity for students who could not otherwise “choose” their schools (Abernathy, 2005; Buckley & Schneider, 2007; Chubb & Moe, 1990; Nathan, 1996; Vergari, 2007). By providing students choice in schooling, charter schools then have the potential to increase the equity of educational opportunity. Arguments in early charter school research warned against charter schools “skimming” top students from district schools or “cherry picking” the students who enroll. Buckley & Schneider (2007) found no real evidence for these claims, although some researchers have identified instances in which charter schools find ways to turn away students who “do not fit” the school’s mission or cannot be well-served by the school’s limited resources (Author, 2006). Research indicates, then, that charter schools present both an opportunity to increase equity in access and choice for students and the potential to limit social cohesion and equity through discriminatory practices.

A market approach to public education requires that sufficient and objective information is accessible to parents and other stakeholders so informed decisions can be made as to school enrollment or support of school policies. Research on charter schools and information is limited, but studies that have been done indicate that information about charter schools to parents and other stakeholders is insufficient, creating opportunities for schools to target students, rather than creating opportunities for parents to find choice schools and confusion among taxpayers as to what charter schools are and how they operate (Buckley & Schneider, 2007; Ross & Gallup, 2006).

Finally, in regards to the democratic appeal of charter schools, some research suggests charter schools have the potential to instill greater democratic values within the charter school community than large, district schools in part by creating greater social capital among parents and students who choose to be that particular school. Buckley & Schneider tested evidence to see whether charter schools produce greater social capital among parents, examining parental attitudes related to civic values and participation. What they found was that *within* schools, there is some indication that charter schools do a better job at promoting civic values among parents, but that these values do not translate outside the school boundaries. Their study supports Mintrom’s (2003) findings that charter school parents are more engaged in school decisions than traditional school parents, but it also supports Benevise, Carnoy, and Rothstein’s (2004) observation that charter school parents may feel more pressure to engage in school due to requirements the school has for parental engagement. Overall, Buckley and Schneider (2007) find that charter schools are less effective than district schools at building social capital and promoting democratic aims that translate across communities.

Hence, the political motivations in the charter school movement have vast implications for the inherent leadership that has ensued. Analysis of the effects of this dramatic change in traditional school organization and governance remains mixed, with little consensus on the effects of introducing a market element into public schools (Fiske & Ladd, 2000; Hoxby, 2004; Loveless, 2003; Lubienski, 2003; Miron & Nelson, 2002). Yet, the question of leadership in charter schools is before us, and we have an opportunity to shape that leadership

toward greater fulfillment of democratic ideals. Abernathy (2005) makes a similar observation about the school choice movement as a whole:

School choice has the potential to make education in the United States better or the potential to provide another strain on an already strained system. The question is how we go about it. We may be talking about bureaucratic reinvention and democratic reinvigoration, or we may be talking about hastened obsolescence and increasing inequality. Neither outcome is predetermined. (p. 116)

With nearly 4,000 charter schools across the country, we are faced with a similar question of leadership: how do we move forward preparing public school leaders for the options they face today and how do we do so in a way that unites rather than divides our delivery of public schooling. As a question of leadership, we examine the potential of charter school leadership programs to enhance a system of public schooling. Senge's (1990) ideas of systems-thinking are appropriate in considering how school leaders might best be prepared for all of the options within the public education delivery system. Senge suggests five component technologies or core disciplines in organizations that will gradually converge them into innovative learning organizations. One of these disciplines is systems thinking, which as a conceptual framework, comes from a body of knowledge and tools that has been developed over the past fifty years. Systems thinking is a way of envisioning a system as a whole, as opposed to viewing it as a sum of its parts. Much like Kuhn's ideas of shared assumptions that underlie a particular paradigm, systems thinking requires a shared vision or understanding regarding the mission and purpose of the systems' work (Senge, 1990). In this paper, we apply these ideas to a system of public education delivery, providing a new synergetic lens for considering the work of charter and district school leaders both in terms of practice and research.

4.5 Charting Educational Leadership for Traditional and Charter School Programs

Traditional school leadership programs approach leadership from a bureaucratic perspective. School principals operate within a system of support, including a central office that typically handles board and public relations, relations with unions, facilities management, human resources, etc. Studies of educational leadership suggest that in the past principals were able to succeed, at least partially, by simply carrying out the directives of central administration (Perez et al., 1999). But management by principals is no longer enough to meet today's educational challenges—instead principals must assume a greater leadership role. In fact, recent movements in the field have pushed for a greater focus on instructional leadership for school principals and less of a focus on school management (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Cotton, 2000, 2003; Edmunds, 1979; Goodlad, 1979, 1984; Marzano, 2003; Sergiovanni, 1992, 1994). The complexity of balancing and integrating dimensions of effective leadership in such a way that practitioners can comprehend and apply them is shown by the long struggle to reconcile two major dimensions: *management* and *instructional leadership*. Within the past 25 years or so, principal training programs have changed quite significantly and as evidenced by the ISLLC Standards mentioned earlier, both aspects of school leadership are still represented.

The leader of a school is one of the most important individuals to influence common educational goals yet the pivotal question is what do we mean by leadership? From a reform perspective, the greatest challenge for the educational administration field may very well be a shift in the mental model of what it means to be a school *leader* instead of a school *administrator* (McCabe & McCarthy, 2005; Usdan, 2002). The current conception of leadership supplies an opportunity to reconsider what it means to lead a school where student learning and not the management of daily operations, is the core of the work (Elmore, 2000). While instructional leadership has been infused into the traditional principal role, leading instruction and managing people is simply not enough. According to Senge (1990), radical action is required to maintain and expand capacity to create results where people are continually learning. The invention of new leadership roles around student learning requires these new challenges not to be met with old approaches and traditional roles (Boris-Schacter & Langer, 2002). Traditional principals have expressed that they are not being trained to deal with classroom realities, in-school politics, work with diverse populations and prepare for increased testing and accountability (Levine, 2005).

Because charter school leaders are in charge of an independent school with an autonomous board, they not only serve as instructional leaders, but also must manage much of the same responsibilities as a district superintendent. Campbell, Gross, & Lake (2008) note that charter school leaders face the same challenges as their district school counterparts, namely setting and maintaining a school's vision, establishing trust between adults and children, managing resources, and balancing pressures that exist both inside and outside the school. However, the job of the charter school principal goes beyond that of a district principal because there is no central office providing support. Charter school principals are responsible for finding and maintaining school facilities, handling finances, raising money, hiring faculty members and negotiating relations with boards, parents and charter school authorizing agencies. They are also responsible for recruiting students, since charter schools operate as schools of choice. In a survey of charter school principals across six states, the National Charter School Research Project at the University of Wyoming, researchers found that facilities issues are one of the top concerns of charter school principals. Charter schools typically must find and fund their own buildings (Campbell, Gross, & Lake, 2008). Other top concerns include personnel and budget issues, particularly recruiting and paying for quality teachers, and finding time for strategic planning.

4.6 Crafting Possibilities for Charter School Leadership Programs

As leadership programs emerge for charter school leaders, we suggest program curricula include courses on the core mission of public education, including the role of education to bring diverse individuals together, to create cohesion, and prepare citizens to be deliberative, engaging, citizens who can work and live in diverse societies. We also recommend that emerging leadership programs look at both management and leadership skills of educational leaders and define how those skills may be balanced in different types of schools. Specifically, we suggest:

- Emerging school leadership programs for charter school leaders offer core courses in the foundations of public education, including purposes of public schooling for democratic engagement in diverse communities.
- Leadership programs for both charter and district school leaders offer core courses in working with charter school boards, to help board members understand their role in overseeing a public school. These courses should attend to the differences between public and private governance, including the responsibility of board members to provide citizens the opportunity for open access to information and opportunities to engage in discussions with school governors.
- All leadership programs should consider both the management and leadership functions of school leaders and be able to distinguish the right balance for the right context. In the case of charter school leadership programs, curricular needs to include management skills similar to superintendents and CEOs, while also providing students with skills in managing the multiple expectations charter school leaders must face.
- Courses in school-community relations should go beyond defining community as the students and parents within a given school, even if the school is a charter school. As a public school, charter schools are a part of the larger public school delivery system, and school leaders must understand how the independent school fits within that larger community. This includes both the responsibility public school leadership have to the local community and the responsibility community members have to the school. School-community perspectives can also offer prospective leaders insight as to how to partner with the community in a way that benefits the holistic development of students.
- Traditional school leadership programs should be expanding their offerings to include courses on the charter school principalship, highlighting both similarities and differences between leadership in traditional schools and leadership in autonomous public schools.
- The core values and standards of public education leadership need to be central to any school leadership program, with an eye on what makes school options “public.” Therefore, all programs that prepare public school leaders should offer prospective leaders opportunities to explore the goals of public education, the dilemmas these goals pose such equity in access and opportunity, and how school leaders

might best address these issues.

This perspective also lends itself to a new approach for charter school research. Instead of focusing on charter schools and district schools as separate entities, we might look for the ways in which charter schools and district schools can work together to build a system of public school delivery that is cohesive, connected, and offers options to parents and students. Possible research questions include:

- How might charter and district schools work together for the benefit of students in the community? What are the opportunities for shared services? What are the opportunities for specialized services? On a deeper level, what is it about these schools that might bring them together around meeting the needs of the local community?
- What avenues of communication exist for charter and district schools to better serve students and parents? How can a system of communication for public education in a given community share information about all schools so that true choices can be made?
- How much information does the community have about public school options, including district and charter schools? How can information be disseminated to all stakeholders so that stakeholders can make informed judgments about their public schools and the policies and people that govern them?
- What professional development opportunities might exist that can benefit both charter and district school leaders in a given community? How might professional development be delivered in system of public school that includes public schools of choice?
- What are the shared goals of public education between charter and district school leaders? What are the differences? How do these similarities and differences fit within a broader vision for public education?
- What would a systems approach to choice look like for public education? How would it differ from the market approach? Who would it serve?

4.7 Current Policy Importance

The question we have raised in this paper is if we are preparing educational leaders for public education leadership in separate programs for district and charter schools, are we serving specific needs of these populations as new providers in a system of public education, or are we exacerbating a division in public education and contributing to mixed ideologies, purposes, and goals for public schooling as a common good (Abernathy, 2005; Lubinski, 2001, 2003; Labaree, 1997; Gutmann, 1987). As we move forward with both the study and practice of charter schooling, we see the potential of a synergetic relationship between charter and district schools. Given the interest in educational choice, charter schools offer an opportunity for students and parents for that choice, but in order to preserve the core mission of public education, we need to make sure that choice is part of an overall system of public school delivery that strengthens our efforts toward providing democratic education for all students. Charter school leaders face unique and difficult challenges that must be tended to in our school leadership programs. Given the ongoing growth of the charter school movement, ignoring these needs is not an option. While we believe it is necessary to broaden our leadership programs to include the special needs of charter school leaders, we must do so from a systems perspective, maintaining a focus on providing all students with free education that unites rather than divides.

4.8 References

- Abernathy, S. F. (2005). *School choice and the future of American democracy*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Beneviste, L., Carnoy, M., & Rothstein, R. (2003). *All else equal*. New York: Routledge.
- Boris-Schacter, S., & Sondra L. (February 6, 2002). "Caught Between Nostalgia And Utopia." *Education Week* 21(34), 36-37.

- Brookover, W. B., & Lezotte, L. W. (1979). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, College of Urban Development.
- Brown, R. (2003). *Which California schools are improving? A four-year analysis of performance growth*. Berkeley and Stanford: Policy Analysis for California Education.
- Buckley, J., & Schneider, M. (2007). *Charter schools: Hope or hype*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Cambren-McCabe, Nelda, & McCarthy, Martha M. (2005). Educating school leaders for social justice. *Educational Policy* 19, 201-222.
- Campbell, C., Gross, B., & Lake, R. (2008). The high-wire job of charter school leadership. *Education Week* 28(3), 56-58.
- Chubb, J. E., & Moe, T. M. (1990). *Politics, markets, and America's schools*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution.
- Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and student achievement: what the research says*: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Etzioni, A. (1996). *The new golden rule: Community and morality in a democratic society*. New York: Basic Books.
- Eberts, R. W., & Hollenback, K. M. (2002). *State notes: Charter school teachers and finance*. Denver: Author.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37(12), 15-24.
- Elmore, R. F. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership*. Washington, DC: The Albert Shanker Institute.
- Finn, C. E., Manno, B. V., & Vanourek, G. (2000). *Charter schools in action: Renewing public education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Fiske, E. B., & Ladd, H. F. 2000. *When schools compete: A cautionary tale*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.
- Fuller, B., Elmore, R. F., & Orfield, G. (Eds.). (1996). *Who chooses? Who loses?: Culture, institutions, and the unequal effects of school choice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Godwin, R. K., & Kemerer, F. R., (2002). *School choice tradeoffs: Liberty, equity, and diversity*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Goodlad, J. (1979). *What are schools for?* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa International.
- Goodlad, J. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future*. McGraw-Hill: New York.
- Gutmann, A. (1987). *Democratic education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Horn, J. & Miron, G. (1998). *Evaluation of Michigan public school academy initiative: Performance, accountability, and impact*. Kalamazoo: The Evaluation Center, Western Michigan University.
- Hoxby, C. 2004. *Achievement in charter schools and regular public schools in the united states: Understanding the differences*. Retrieved on April 29, 2008 from: http://post.economics.harvard.edu/faculty/hoxby/papers/hoxbycharter_dec.pdf²
- Kober, N. (2007). Why we still need public schools: Public education for the common good. Washington, DC: Center on Educational Policy. Retrieved March 21, 2009 from: <http://www.cepcdc.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=Page.viewPage&pageId=490&parentID=481>
- Kuhn, T.S. (1966). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Levin, H.M. & Belfield, C.R. (2003). The marketplace in education. *Review of Research in Education*, 27, 183-219.
- Levine, (2005). Educating School Leaders. Washington, D.C.: The Educating Schools Project. Retrieved February 15, 2009 from <http://www.edschools.org/pdf/Final313.pdf>
- Loveless, T. (2003). *The Brown center annual report on education: How well are American students learning?* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.

²http://post.economics.harvard.edu/faculty/hoxby/papers/hoxbycharter_dec.pdf

Lubienski, C. (2004). Charter school innovation in theory and practice: Autonomy, R & D, and curricular conformity. In K. Bulkley & P. Wohlstetter (Eds.), *Taking account of charter schools: What's happened and what's next?* (pp. 72-92). New York: Teachers' College Press.

Lubienski, C. (2003). Instrumentalist perspectives on the 'public' in public education: Incentives and purposes. *Educational Policy* 17, 478-502

Marzano, R.J. (2003). What works in schools: Translating research into action. *Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*. Alexandria, VA.

McCabe, C. & McCarthy, M. (2005). Educating school leaders for social justice. *Educational Policy*, 19(1), 201-222.

Mintrom, M. (2003). Market Organizations and Deliberative Democracy: Choice and Voice in Public Service Delivery. *Administration and Society*, 35, 52-81.

Mintrom, M. (1997). State-local nexus in policy innovation diffusion: The case of school choice. *The Journal of Federalism*, 7(3), 41-60.

Miron, G. (2008). The shifting notion of publicness in public education. In Cooper, B., Cibulka, J., & Fusarelli, L. (eds.) *Handbook of Education Politics and Policy*. New York: Routledge, 338-349.

Miron, G. and Nelson, C. (2002). *What's public about charter schools: Lessons learned about choice and accountability*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press, Inc.

Nathan, J. (1996). *Charter Schools: Creating Hope and Opportunity for American Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Perez, A. L., Milstein, M. M., Wood, C. J., Jacquez, D. (1999). *How to turn a school around: What principals can do*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Riehl, C. J. (2000). The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, and critical literature on the practice of educational administration. *Review of Educational Research*, 70, 55-81.

Rose, L.C., & Gallup, A.M. (2006). The 38th annual Phi Delta Kappan/Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 88(1), 41-56.

Senge, P., (1990). *The fifth discipline*. New York: Currency Doubleday.

Sergiovanni, T. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sergiovanni, T. (1994). *Building community in schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Solomon, L., Paark, K., & Garcia, D. (2001). *Does charter school attendance improve test scores? The Arizona results (Arizona education analysis)*. Phoenix: The Center for Market-Based Education, Goldwater Institute.

Texas Education Agency (2001). *Texas open-enrollment charter schools: Fourth year evaluation*. Austin: Texas Center for Educational Research.

Texas Education Agency (2002). *Texas open-enrollment charter schools: Fourth year evaluation*. Austin: Author.

Usdan, M.D. (2002). Reactions to articles commissioned by the National Commission for the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 300-307.

Van Meter, E. & Murphy, J. (1997). *Using ISLLC standards to strengthen preparation programs in school administration*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Vergari, S. (2007). The politics of charter schools. *Educational Policy*, 21(1), 15-39.

Wells, A.S., Grutzik, C., Carnochan, S., Slayton, J. & Vasudeva, A. (1999). Underlying policy assumptions of charter school reform: The multiple meanings of the movement. *Teachers College Record*, 100(3), 513-535.

4.8.1 Appendix A: ISLLC Standards

Standard 1: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes 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.

Standard 2: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

Standard 3: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Standard 4: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

Standard 5: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

Standard 6: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Chapter 5

Morrison, M., Gosmire, D., & Van Osdel, J. (July 2009). Administrators' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Value and Current Use of the ELCC Standards¹



NOTE: This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of education administration. In addition to being published in Volume 10, Number 2 of the *NCPEA Educational Leadership Review* (ELR), it is also archived in the *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation* (Supplemental Link). Authors are: Marcia Morrison, Doreen Gosmire, and Joanne Van Osdel; University of South Dakota.

5.1 Introduction

There is widespread concern regarding the quality of American schools. This concern brings to the forefront public policies that led to an era of accountability and standards. (Enderlin-Lampe, 1997; Grubb, & Flessa, 2006; Lindahl, 2007; Ylimaki, 2007). Several groups have come together for the purpose of developing professional standards to guide administrative practice. The development of professional standards for school administrators evolved into standards from the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) currently used in administrative preparation programs in the United States.

Research regarding the school principal role is replete with definitions about the significance, complexity, and overwhelming nature of the job (Grubb, & Flessa, 2006; Gurr, Drysdale, & Mulford, 2006; Keefe & Amenta, 2005). Grubb and Flessa studied efforts to create different approaches to the principal position because “The job is just too big for one person, with all the different programs and all the needs of the students” (p.519). More recent literature advises principals to share instructional leadership with teachers to increase student performance outcomes (Grubb, & Flessa, 2006; Mangin, 2007; Muijs & Harris, 2007;

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24426/1.2/>>.

Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Teacher leadership requires deliberate planning and a set of shared values. "Growing teacher leaders needs to be an intentional act in our nation's school systems"(Searby & Shaddis, 2008). The ELCC standards potentially provide a common set of understandings for principals and teacher leadership teams. This leads one to wonder about the value of administrative professional standards as perceived by teachers. Teachers did not have a strong presence in the development of the ELCC standards; however, they are integral to their successful implementation.

The purpose of this study is to investigate teachers' and principals' perceptions regarding the value of the ELCC standards and the practice of ELCC standards in schools. Our study examines perceptions according to gender, years of experience, and level of education. Simply put, which standards do both administrators and teachers think are most important and how are these standards part of administrative practice? The following research questions guided the study: (a) what are the perceptions of teachers and principals regarding the importance of the ELCC standards, (b) what are the perceptions of teachers and principals regarding the implementation of the ELCC standards in schools, and (c) what are the differences in teachers' and principals' perceptions of the importance and implementation of the ELCC standards based on gender, level of education, and years of experience in education?

5.2 Background

5.2.1 Fostering Teacher Leaders

The principal as the heroic leader has led to the call for teacher leadership (Avila de Lima, 2008; Muijs & Harris, 2007; Slater, 2005). This movement calls for collaborative process and shared decision making (Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Teacher's participation in decision making is a contributor to student learning (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). The concept of teacher leadership teams requires attention and specific skills on the part of the principal.

The traditional administrator-teacher relationship was one of top-down management and perhaps more representative of a parent-child relationship. The importance of and need for collaboration, decentralized decision-making, professional learning communities, and teacher leadership are all examples of the vital role teachers play in school improvement. Meyer, as quoted in Hollander, (1992) explains, "Oversimplification of leadership roles and adherence to anachronistic models of leader-follower relationships have precluded consideration of the changing complexities and problems of organizations" (p.71). Hollander (1992) goes further to point out that "...our understanding of leadership is incomplete if we do not recognize its unity with followership. Leadership is a process, not a person" (p.74).

Teacher leadership teams add another dimension to the principal's work. Mangin (2007) examined principals' support across five schools districts in 15 schools and found " a clear link between a principal's knowledge, interaction, and support" (p.349) and successful facilitation of teacher leadership teams. The first step in building school leadership teams is to create a shared understanding of common and values (Caron & McLaughlin, 2002; Mangin, 2007; Printy & Marks, 2005).

Marshall and Spencer (1999) examined the shared understandings of the ISLCC standards by both teachers and administrators in Alabama. The findings indicated that similar priorities are held by both school administrators and teachers; however, there was a significant difference (at the .05 level) regarding the management standard with administrators viewing management as more important (Marshall & Spencer, 1999). These Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLCC) professional standards have now been replaced with new professional standards which are used to communicate the knowledge base in educational administration and to guide administrative training and practice. It would be instructive to learn how the new professional standards that guide administrative training and practice are perceived and implemented by practicing teachers and administrators.

5.2.2 Administrative Standards

The current professional standards for educational leadership were developed by the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) in 2002. Member organizations of the ELCC are: American Association of School Administrators (AASA), Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). The purpose of the standards, which reflect earlier work by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), is to advance professional standards of educational administration (NPBEA, 2002).

The NPBEA was founded in 1988 by ten associations: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), American Association of School Administrators (AASA), Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), National Association of Elementary Principals (NAESP), National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), National School Boards Association (NSBA), University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), and Association of School Business Officers (ASBO) (NPBEA, 2002). One goal of the NPBEA was to develop and advance professional standards for school administrators. Another goal was to develop criteria and standards for administrative training programs. In 1995, the NPBEA standards, "Guidelines for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership" were approved by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (NPBEA, 2002). NPBEA's recommendations were "...developed by national associations and regional bodies that described what principals, superintendents, supervisors, and curriculum directors needed to know and be able to do" (NPBEA, p.5).

During the same period, other standards were developed and disseminated by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLCC). These standards were adopted by many states for licensure of school administrators. The Educational Leadership Constituency Council (ELCC) is responsible for the accreditation of programs in school administration. Murphy (2005) explained the relationship between the ISLCC and ELCC standards.

"To link the important leverage point of accreditation to the goal of reshaping the profession around the vision of leadership embedded in the ISLCC design, the ELCC guidelines were scaffolded directly on the *Standards*. Indeed the ELCC guidelines are primarily a restatement of the six ISLCC Standards, with the addition of a seventh guideline on the internship (p.155)."

There are seven ELCC Standards and each has multiple elements; however the general topics of each standard, and those used for reporting of data are: Standard 1: Vision; Standard 2: Instructional Leadership; Standard 3: Management; Standard 4: Community Relations; Standard 5: Ethical Leadership; Standard 6: Professional Involvement; and Standard 7: Internship (NPBEA, 2002). However, the new ELCC standards are more than a combination of previous standards. The standards reflect the need and desire to address new conditions and expectations for schools, such as: (a) a global economy, (b) demographic changes, (c) changing expectations for student results, (d) social and family modifications, (e) new technologies, (f) privatization and deregulation, (g) and new leadership and management systems (NPBEA, 2006).

Input from 14 professional organizations contributed to the ultimate development of the ELCC standards. As noted by Murphy (2005), "The history of the early work of ISLCC and the leadership of a handful of dedicated state leaders is a narrative that has never been fully told..." (p.154). Professional organizations primarily representing teachers have not been part of the process and yet, as noted by the NBPCEA, there are new expectations and conditions to be considered when training school administrators. One strategy to meet increased expectations of administrators is to increase collaboration with teachers to provide much needed leadership for school improvement. Shared values provide a solid foundation for collaboration.

The ELCC standards have evolved over the last 14 years to the point of focusing the outcomes of programs of educational administration and the work of professors and students in the programs. This emphasis has led to a portion of the school community placing high value on standards, but their value to another critically important population, the teachers, is not known.

5.3 Methodology

5.3.1 Survey and Data Collection

A three-part survey was developed by the researchers to investigate perceptions of the ELCC standards' merit and implementation. The survey was critiqued by practicing school administrators, teachers, and college faculty. During the fall of 2007, the survey was administered at seven school sites to 138 educators. A total of 131 responded, resulting in a 95% respond rate. Administrators and teachers completed separate versions of the survey. Participants rank ordered six of the seven ELCC professional standards for school administrators. The seventh standard regarding the administrative internship experience was not included because teachers lack knowledge of the administrators' internship experience.

There were three sections to the survey. Part I asked participants to rank the six professional standards in order of importance with one (1) being the most important and six (6) being the least important. The second section of survey focused on the implementation of the standards. Teachers completing the second reflected on the practice of their current supervisor and ranked the six professional standards in order of implementation by their supervisor with one (1) being the standard most present in their supervisor's practice and six (6) being the standard that was least present. In Part II of the survey administrators ranked the six professional standards in the order they perceived they implemented the standards with one (1) being the standard most present in their practice and six (6) being the standard that was least present in their practice. In Part III, participants identified their gender, years of experience, and educational level. Years of experience were reported as one of three groups: (a) 9 years or less, (b) 10-19 years, and (c) 20 years or more. Educational levels were reported as (a) BA/BS, (b) MA/MS/MEd, (c) Ed.S/EdD.

5.3.2 Population

School districts were selected from a total of 167 districts listed in the South Dakota Department of Education, Educational Directory for the school year 2006-2007. This convenient sample was based on school size, geographic region of the state, and administrator's willingness to participate in the study. Seven school districts, for a total of 131 educators, agreed to participate in the study. Two of the school sites had enrollments of over 200 students, while two had 150 or more students and three had less than 100 students enrolled. All districts participating in the study were located within a hundred mile radius in the southeastern region of South Dakota. There were two elementary building administrators, two middle school principals, three secondary administrators, and one 7-12 principal. One hundred twenty-five respondents were classroom teachers. There were four female administrators and three male administrators, and 42 male teachers and 89 female teachers participated in the study.

5.3.3 Data Analysis

Conjoint analysis is a multivariate technique, frequently used in market research, providing insight into how participants develop preferences for products or ideas (Pietzrak, 2006). Conjoint analysis is appropriate for research in the educational arena (Shukla & Bruno, 2001; Wong, Chan, Cardoso, Lam, & Miller, 2004). Shukla and Bruno (2001) suggested that identifying a person's preference may provide insight into the choices or decisions that they will be required to make in their professional positions. In this study, conjoint analysis is used to assess educators' perceptions of the value of the professional administrative standards developed by Educational Leadership Constituent Council, as well as, their perceptions on the implementation of these standards in administrative practice.

Systat software is used to determine the means, standard deviations, and frequencies for each survey item. In addition, the Mann Whitney U Test and the Kruskal-Wallis Test are utilized to analyze perceptions based on the characteristics of gender, years of teaching experience, and educational level.

5.4 Findings

Seven school sites were included in this study providing input from 132 teachers and eight school administrators. All respondents completed a survey that asked them to rank the importance they perceived for each ELCC standard, as well as, rank how each individual perceived the leader practiced the ELCC standards. Table 1 provides a summary of the means for the teachers' and administrators' perceptions as to the ranking of the ELCC standards.

Teachers' and Administrators' Ranking of the Importance of ELCC Standards

	Mean Teachers	Rank Teachers	Mean Administrators	Rank Administrators
Vision	2.64	3	2.88	3
Instructional Leadership	2.56	2	1.63	1
Management	3.15	4	3.75	4
Community Relations	4.30	5	5.00	5
Ethical Leadership	2.00	1	2.25	2
Professional Involvement	5.59	6	5.50	6

Table 5.1

Administrators' and teachers' perceptions of importance of the ELCC standards were generally in agreement; however, there is a difference in the rating of the most important standard. Administrators rank instructional leadership as most important, and teachers rank ethical leadership as most important.

There are greater differences in what the administrators and teachers perceived as occurring in practice. Table 2 provides a rank order of how administrators and teachers see the ELCC standards being practiced.

Teachers' and Administrators' Ranking of ELCC Standards in Practice

	Mean Teachers	Rank Teachers	Mean Administrators	Rank Administrators
Vision	3.29	4	3.00	4
Instructional Leadership	2.61	1	2.38	1*
Management	3.03	2	3.25	3
Community Relations	3.99	5	5.00	5*
<i>continued on next page</i>				

Ethical Leadership	3.19	3	2.38	2*
Professional Involvement	4.12	6	5.00	6*

Table 5.2

*Determined by frequency distribution

Teachers view administrators as placing the highest priority on instructional leadership. Management is perceived by teachers as the second highest standard practiced and ethical leadership third. Administrators perceive that instructional leadership is the highest priority; however, administrators perceive ethical leadership as the second highest standard practiced and management third.

Perceptions by gender are reported in Table 3 for teachers differing in gender. The differences in perceptions between male teachers and female teachers are analyzed using a Mann Whitney U Test. Female teachers perceive administrators as placing a higher priority on the practice of management ($M=2.80$, $p=.041$). Male teachers perceive administrators as demonstrating more ethical leadership ($M=2.56$, $p=.003$).

Perceptions of ELCC Standards in Practice Ranked by Gender

	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	p
Vision					
Male	42	3.18	2787		
				1841	0.72
Female	89	3.28	5991		
Instructional Leadership					
Male	42	2.35	2880.5		
				1734.5	0.791
				1734.5	0.791
Female	89	2.69	6097.5		
Management					
Male	42	3.46	3275		
				2329	0.041*
Female	89	2.88	5503		
Community Relations					
Male	42	4.28	2355		
				2148.5	0.242
Female	89	3.92	6423		
Ethical Leadership					
Male	42	2.56	3298		
				1409	0.013*
Female	89	3.39	5480		
Professional Involvement					
Male	42	4.67	3094.5		
				2352	0.026
Female	89	3.91	5683.5		

Table 5.3

* $P > .05$

Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance is calculated to determine the equality of the medians for the ranked ELCC standards by years of experience and by education level. The actual years of teaching experience is reported by each of the respondents. After frequencies for years of experience are calculated, respondents are divided into three groups; nine years of teaching experience or less, 10-19 years of teaching experiences, and 20 years or more of teaching experience. Respondents also reported their level of education by choosing one of the following items: BA, MA, EdS, or EdD. The number of respondents who reported having an EdS degree or EdD degree is low, so these two groups are combined for purposes of analyses. The dependent variable for the Kruskal-Willis analysis is the respondents' ranking of the importance of the

ELLC standards. The independent variables for the Kursal-Willis analysis are the years of experience and the educational level.

When considering years of educational experiences, there is one significant difference. Educators with 10 - 19 years of experience rank instructional leadership higher than educators with 9 or less years of experience, and significantly higher than those educators with 20 or more years of experience. Table 4 provides a summary of the mean rank of the perceived importance of the standards when considered by years of educational experience.

Educators with a BA/BS place a somewhat higher value on the standard of instructional leadership than those educators with a MA/MS/MEd, but a significantly higher value than those educators with an EdS/EdD ($M=1.60$, $p=.050$). Table 5 provides a summary of the mean rank order of each of the standards.

Perceptions of ELCC Standards Ranked by Years of Experience

	n	Mean Rank	X ²	P
Vision				
9 or less years	49	2.78	.025	.988
10 – 19 years	32	2.80		
20 or more years	44	2.75		
Instructional Leadership				
9 or less years	49	2.56	6.254	.044*
10 – 19 years	32	3.06		
20 or more years	44	2.32		
Management				
9 or less years	49	3.37		
			.712	.700
10 – 19 years	32	3.14		
20 or more years	44	3.20		
Community Relations				
9 or less years	49	4.37		
			1.529	.466
10 – 19 years	32	4.39		
20 or more years	44	4.66		
Ethical Leadership				
9 or less years	49	2.08		
			.968	.616
10 – 19 years	32	2.03		
20 or more years	44	2.22		
Professional Involvement				
9 or less years	49	5.94		
			2.190	.335
10 – 19 years	32	5.58		
20 or more years	44	5.84		

Table 5.4

*p > .05

CHAPTER 5. MORRISON, M., GOSMIRE, D., & VAN OSDEL, J. (JULY 2009). ADMINISTRATORS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE VALUE AND CURRENT USE OF THE ELCC STANDARDS
Perceptions of ELCC Standards Ranked by Educational Level

	n	Mean Rank	X ²	P
Vision				
BA / BS	82	2.70		
			0.706	.703
MA/ MS/ MEd	42	2.74		
EdS / EdD	8	3.32		
Instructional Leadership				
	82	2.80		
MA/ MS/ MEd			5.762	.050*
	42	2.40		
EdS / EdD				
	8	1.60		
Management				
BA / BS	82	3.13		
			2.330	.312
MA/ MS/ MEd	42	3.45		
EdS / EdD	8	3.80		
Community Relations				
BA / BS	82	4.40		
			1.591	.451
MA/ MS/ MEd	42	4.67		
EdS / EdD	8	4.60		
Ethical Leadership				
BA / BS	82	2.13	0.062	.969
MA/ MS/ MEd	42	2.10		
EdS / EdD	8	2.20		

Table 5.5

*p > .05

5.5 Discussion

Teachers and administrators generally view the ELCC professional administrative standards in the same order of importance. However, while administrators view instructional leadership as most important, teachers view ethical leadership as most important. In practice, both administrators and teachers view instructional leadership as the highest practiced standard but administrators believe the next highest standard they practice is ethical leadership, and teachers report management as the second highest standard in practice.

An implication could be that administrators and teachers view ethical leadership differently. For example, an administrator must follow policy and procedures, and a teacher may view a policy or procedure as wrong

and therefore, following it would be unethical. Perhaps, an administrator may tailor administrative actions to the unique characteristics of the situation or student involved. The administrator would consider this ethical, child-centered behavior; a teacher may consider this inequitable, and therefore, unethical behavior.

Leadership literature is replete with the need for administrators to build relationships with teachers. Teachers in the same setting, examining the practice of the same leader, view the administrators' actions differently. Perhaps behaviors that administrators practice to develop relationships, such as conversations about school events, inquiries about student progress, or a simple, "How's it going?" may be thought to be management behaviors by female teachers, while male teachers view this as the way relationships and trust are developed and the demonstration of ethical leadership.

A final interpretation of the perceptions of ethical leadership by female and male administrators and teachers alike might be that we simply do not agree when ethical leadership is occurring. Many actions that demonstrate ethical leadership are carried out in private with appropriate confidentiality. For example, the dismissal of a staff member on the grounds of professional misconduct could demonstrate appropriate ethical leadership, but confidentially does not allow for the reasons for an action to be known.

Educational level and years of education revealed are demographics that seem to have an influence on the perceptions that educators have regarding the ELCC standards. The difference noted is the higher value that educators with initial degrees place on instructional leadership than educators with advanced degrees. Perhaps this is the result of an emphasis on instruction in teacher training programs. Another interpretation could be that educators with advanced degrees more fully accept instructional leadership responsibilities, rely more on their own abilities in this area, and look to the leader for the systemic management of the school. To continue with this line of thinking, this shouldering of the instructional leadership responsibility may account for the most experienced educators, usually those with advanced degrees, lower perception of the value of the instructional leadership standard. This does not, however, shed any light on why those teachers with 10-19 years of experience place the highest value on instructional leadership. One explanation could be that these are the educators who have been directly involved with the education process before and after the higher accountability required from the No Child Left Behind legislation. They have experienced the critical part that leadership plays in improving achievement school wide.

5.6 Conclusion

The value of the ELCC professional standards for school administrators is generally agreed on by all educators, administrators and teachers. This finding compliments Marshall's (1999) earlier research regarding the similar prioritization of the ISLCC standards by both administrators and teachers. It is heartening to know that educators have shared values. This creates a solid foundation for future work.

The traditional roles of administrators and teachers in schools are changing. When we consider the work of teachers, administrators, school leadership teams, principal facilitators, professional learning communities, teachers on special assignment, and assistant principals in charge of school management, we begin to see the lines blur between what is traditionally viewed as leadership and teacher roles in schools. The need for talent, expertise, and collaboration has never been greater regardless of who is involved. School improvement needs everyone. The results of this study and the findings Mangin (2007) call for principal preparation programs to provide information about the purpose and the role of principal in fostering effective teacher leadership.

Further study of the principal and teacher leader relationship in general, and by gender, specifically, would contribute to understanding the multiple facets of how administrators and teachers can work together toward school improvement. But on the basics, we agree. Simply put, administrators and teachers agree on what are the most important standards and see them in practice.

5.7 References

Avia de Lima, J. (2008). Department networks and distributed leadership in schools. *School Leadership and Management*, 28 (2), 159-187.

- Caron, E.A., & McLaughlin, M.J. (2002). Indicators of beacons of excellence schools: What do they tell us about collaborative practices? *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 13 (4), 285-313.
- Enderlin-Lampe, S. (1997). Shared decision making in schools: Effect on teacher efficacy. *Education*, 118(1), 150-157.
- Grubb, W.N. & Flessa, J.J. (2006). "A job too big for one": Multiple principals and other nontraditional approaches to school leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42 (4), 518-550
- Gurr, D., Drysdale, L., & Millford, B. (2006). Models of successful principal leadership. *School Leadership and Management*, 26 (4), 371-395.
- Hollander, E.P. (1992). The essential interdependence of Administratorship and Teachership. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 71-75.
- Keefe, J.W. & Amenta, R.B. (2005) Whatever happened to the model schools project? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 88 (7), 536-544).
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K.S., Anderson, S., & Whalstrom, K. *Learning from leadership project: How leadership influences student learning*. Retrieved 4/ 28/2009 from <http://cehd.umn.edu/carei/Leadership/ExecutiveSummary.pdf>.
- Lindahl, R.A. (2007). Why is leading school improvement such a difficult process? *School Leadership and Management*, 27(4), 319-332.
- Mangin, M. M. (2007). Facilitating elementary principals' support for instructional teacher leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 43 (3), 319-357.
- Marshall, M. E. & Spencer, W. A. (1999). Public school administrator competencies: A comparison of the perceptions of stakeholders in Alabama. Paper presented at the Mid-South Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Point Clear, Al.
- Moore, B. (2009). Improving the Evaluation and Feedback Process for Principals, *Principal*, January/February, 38-41.
- Muijs, D. & Harris, A. (2007). Teacher leadership in (in)action: Three case studies of contrasting schools. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 35 (1), 111-134.
- Murphy, J. (2005). Unpacking the foundation of ISLCC standards and addressing concerns in the academic community. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(1), 154-159.
- National Policy Board for Educational Administration. (2002). *Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Administration*. Alexandria: VA.
- Pietrzak, D. (2006). Conjoint analysis. Presentation at the meeting of The University of South Dakota, School of Education, Faculty Development, Vermillion, SD.
- Prunty, S.M., & Marks, H.M. (2006). Shared leadership for teacher and student learning. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(2), 125-132.
- Searby, L., & Shaddix, L. (2008). Growing teachers leaders in a culture of excellence. *The Professional Educator*, 32(1), 1-9.
- Shukla, P.K. & Bruno, J. (2001). Use of conjoint analysis and marketing approaches in education surveys. *Education*, 112(3), 451-458.
- Slater, L. (2005). Leadership for collaboration: An affective process. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 8(4), 321-333.
- Somech, A., & Wenderow, M. (2006). The impact of participative and director leadership on teachers' performance: The intervening effects of job structuring, decision domain, and leader-member exchange. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42(5), 746-772.
- Tschannen-Moran, M. (2009). Fostering teacher professionalism in schools: The role of leadership orientation and trust. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 45(2), 217-247.
- Wong, D.W., Chan, F., Cardoso, E.D., Lam, C.S., & Miller, S.M. (2004). Rehabilitation counseling students' attitudes toward people with disabilities in three social contexts. *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin*, 47(4), 194-204.
- Ylimake, R.M. (2007). Instructional leadership I challenging U.S. schools. *International Students in Educational Administration*, 35(3), 11-19.

Chapter 6

Mills, L., McDowelle, J., & Roush, W. (July 2009). Does Research Support New Approaches for the Evaluation of School Leaders: Using Emotional Intelligence in Formative Evaluation¹



NOTE: This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of education administration. In addition to being published in Volume 10, Number 2 of the *NCPEA Educational Leadership Review* (ELR), it is also archived in the *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation* (Supplemental Link). Authors are: Lane Mills, James McDowelle, and William Rouse, East Carolina University.

6.1 Introduction

Over the course of the past two decades several new leadership attributes have been introduced to the leadership literature. Among these contemporary leadership properties are emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence and contextual intelligence (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Goleman, 1995; Silverthorne, 2004). Although these leadership attributes are frequently listed as highly desirable attributes for leaders to possess they are seldom incorporated into the formal leadership evaluation and development process. The purpose of this paper was to attempt to evaluate one of the new leadership archetypes, emotional intelligence, to determine its suitability for inclusion in the school leadership evaluation process.

The stated purpose of formative evaluation is to help individuals improve their performance (Young & Castetter, 2004). The notion driving the analysis described in this paper is that if emotional intelligence

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m24427/1.1/>>.

can be linked to effective leadership it should be part of the formative evaluation process and included in leadership development activities.

6.2 Major Eras

Goffee and Jones (2000) contend that since the 1920s there have been three major eras that represent evolution in thinking about leadership. The three theories that represent these eras are (a) Trait Theory, (b) Style Theory, and (c) Contingency Theory. The first era cited by Goffee and Jones was the era of Trait theory. Trait Theory focused on the traits or characteristics necessary for effective leadership. Trait theory eventually lapsed into disfavor because empirical studies failed to provide a definitive list of leadership traits that could be linked to effective leadership (Northouse, 2004). Trait Theory was eventually supplanted by Style Theory. Yukl (1994) noted that researchers have had difficulty in linking effective leadership to a specific style of leadership because of difficulties in conducting empirical studies that support both trait and style theory as effective conceptual prisms from which to view leadership. The current candidate for an explanation of effective leadership is Contingency Theory. Contingency Theory suggests that specific skills are required in specific leadership situations (Goffee & Jones).

6.3 Emotional Intelligence

One skill set frequently cited in the literature as necessary in a variety of situations are the intrapersonal and interpersonal skills associated with *Emotional Intelligence* (Downey, Papageorgiou, Stough, 2006; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005). While there are numerous studies that provide empirical evidence that EI has a positive effect on leadership effectiveness, (Coetzee & Schaap, 2004; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, Boyle, 2006; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Srivastava, Bharamanaikar, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002), there are also studies that provide empirical evidence that EI has no statistical significance in leadership effectiveness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Barchard, 2003; Brown, 2005; Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2006; Schulte 2002; Weinberger, 2003).

6.4 Defining Effective Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

The question of definitions is a key element in conducting any research and a particularly critical component of any meta-analysis. The problem of defining leadership is well established in the literature (Bass, 1990; Collins, 2001; Nahavandi, 2003; Northouse, 2004; Stogdill, 1974). Stoghill said that “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it” (p.7). Collins contends that vague, expansive definitions of leadership create problems when analyzing organizational issues. When we define leadership by ascribing unlimited and undifferentiated functions and activities in an organization to leadership, according to Collins, we have really not defined leadership at all. We have simply thrown up our hands in frustration and “we prevent ourselves from gaining deeper, more scientific understanding about what makes companies tick” (p.22).

Although acknowledging the difficulty of providing a precise definition of leadership, Nahavandi (2003) and Northouse (2004), after conducting comprehensive reviews of the leadership literature, have found elements common to the phenomena of leadership no matter where or how leadership is exercised. Both Nahavandi and Northouse list three common elements. Those three elements are as follows: (a) Leadership involves interaction with a group; (b) Leadership involves the exercise of influence; and (c) Leadership involves the attainment of a goal.

Once we have established a reasonably precise definition of leadership then effective leadership must be defined. Northouse (2004) stated that leadership effectiveness is measured by the attainment of goals or objectives within a leadership context. Hartman (1999) contends that leadership effectiveness is defined both objectively and subjectively. Subjective measures are usually based on ratings obtained from the leader’s superiors, peers, or subordinates. Examples of objective measures of performance or goal attainment can

include profits, profit margin, test scores, graduation rates, sales increases, market shares, or profitability. (Hartman, 1999) The two instruments used to measure leadership effectiveness most frequently cited in the studies included in the meta-analysis were the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The MLQ, developed by Bass and Avolio (2000), is a 45-question questionnaire that attempts to determine the multiple factors constituting a persons' leadership style. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), developed by Kouzes and Posner (1995), has been used to assess over 350,000 individuals' leadership skills. It is based on qualitative and quantitative research of everyday actions and behaviors of exemplary leaders in a variety of settings.

6.5 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Researchers of emotional intelligence classify their conception of emotional intelligence as either ability models or mixed models. Ability models of emotional intelligence focus on the interplay of emotion and intelligence as traditionally defined while mixed models describe a conception of intelligence that includes mental abilities and other traits and talents including personality (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Drawing from diverse elements of the EI literature, EI was defined for purposes of this study as the advanced ability to use self awareness and insight into self and others' emotion to aid in cognitive processes to produce desired outcomes (Bar-On, 1997; Dulewicz & Higgs 2000; Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). One of the most frequently used instruments to measure emotional intelligence cited in this meta-analysis was the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The MSCEIT is an ability-based scale that measures the capacity to reason using feelings and the capacity of feelings to enhance thought.

6.6 Pertinent Literature

A meta-analysis conducted by Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) was of assistance in informing the current study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. It is important to note that the Van Rooy and Viswesvaran study focused on work place performance and emotional intelligence. Also critical to the validity of this analysis were studies that questioned whether emotional intelligence had a significant effect on leadership effectiveness (Brown et al., 2006; Buford, 2001; Collins, 2001; Schulte, 2002; Weinberger, 2003). For example, Antonakis' 2004 study was included in the meta-analysis. Antonakis' main argument against EI stems from commercial claims that EI is apparently twice as important as IQ or technical skills for leadership effectiveness (see also Goleman, 1998). As stated by Mayer and Caruso (2002), EI is an important capability, but one that co-exists with other strengths and weaknesses. The inclusion of Antonakis' study and other work that questioned the linkage of EI to leadership effectiveness or stated specifically that EI did not contribute to leadership effectiveness provide more credibility for the ultimate conclusions of the study. It is also important to note that in order to avoid publication bias many of the studies included in this study were unpublished. Publication bias often occurs in meta-analysis when an emphasis is placed on published studies. Published studies tend to favor the subject under investigation (Hamer & Simpson, 2002).

6.7 Methods

The purpose of this paper was to conduct a meta-analysis of appropriate studies to ascertain if a consistent, research-based link can be established between the concept of emotional intelligence and effective leadership. If this link can be established, it could have a significant impact on the evaluation of educational leaders in schools as well as other educational settings. This linkage would also have implications for the exercise of leadership in educational arenas.

A meta-analysis is defined as "the statistical analysis of a large collection of analysis results from individual results for the purpose of integrating the findings" (Glass, McGaw & Smith, 1981, p.3). Hamer

and Simpson (2002) state that meta-analysis is a particularly useful tool for synthesizing and integrating large quantities of information from many studies with contradictory information. Since a large body of contradictory information exists on the question of whether emotional intelligence does have an effect on effective leadership it was thought a meta-analysis examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership would be helpful in answering many of the questions surrounding this newly popular concept. A meta-analysis of this relationship can help those responsible for school leadership determine if the skills associated with Emotional Intelligence should be an important element in the evaluation of school leaders.

6.8 Results of the Study

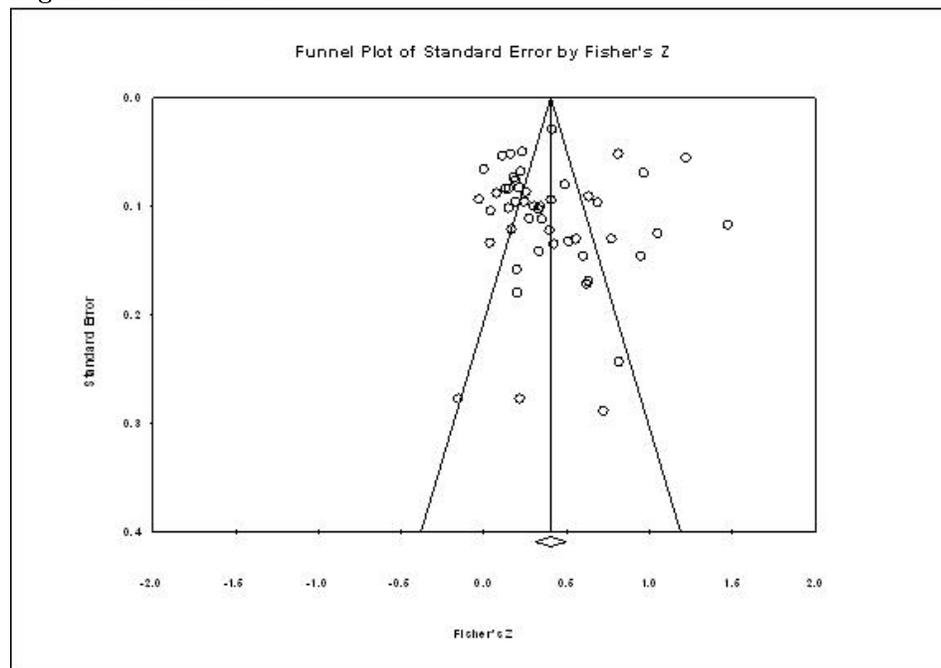
The comprehensive attempt to identify relevant studies on EI's effect on leadership effectiveness conducted between 1990 to the present yielded 141 studies. Forty-eight studies met the criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis sample. Those 48 studies yielded 99 correlations for analysis. Over half of the studies included in this study were in the form of unpublished dissertations (48%) and theses (8%) with forty-one percent of participants reported serving in the field of business or industry.

Determining the degree of homogeneity of the studies included in a meta-analysis helps to determine the statistical model to be used. A Q statistic was computed to explore whether the variability across effect sizes was greater than expected from sampling error alone. Based on a significant result for the Q statistic for these data, the hypothesis of homogeneity was rejected and a random-effects model was implemented. This significant Q statistic result was not unexpected given the essential random differences between studies that were associated with the framework of EI chosen and other study variables (e.g. the framework of leadership effectiveness, occupational setting, etc.). Incorporation of a random effects model allows for the estimation of the mean of a distribution of effects which prevents the underestimation of the weight of a small study or the overestimation of the weight of a large study (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2007).

Using Biostat's *Comprehensive Meta-Analysis Software Version 2.0*, the 99 effect sizes from the correlational studies with a total of 7,343 subjects were converted into Fisher z scores and an overall effect size z was computed and converted to the initial metric of correlation coefficient. Based on the *rule of thumb* for product moment correlation effect size magnitudes suggested by Lipsey and Wilson (2001), correlation effect size values are considered small if less than or equal to .10, medium if equal to .25, and large if greater than or equal to .40. This meta-analysis yielded a combined effect of $r = .383$ which can be interpreted as a moderately strong relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness.

To examine for possible publication bias, several methods were employed by the researchers. A funnel plot of the standard error on the vertical axis and the converted Fisher Z effect size on the horizontal axis was computed and examined (See Figure 1). The plot revealed a largely symmetrical distribution around the mean effect size with no visual indications of extreme outliers suggesting that the probability of publication bias is low.

Figure 1. Funnel Plot



Further analysis for publication bias incorporated the calculation of a fail-safe N. The fail-safe N estimates the number of unpublished studies needed to nullify the positive effect found between EI and leadership effectiveness (Lipsey & Wilson). This meta-analysis incorporates data from 48 studies and using the CMA software, the fail-safe N is 11,249. This means that the researcher would need to locate and include 11,249 *null* studies in order for the combined 2-tailed p-value to exceed 0.05. In other words, there would need to be 225 missing studies that show a negative or non-significant effect for every observed study for the effect to be nullified. The fail-safe N test supports the other data that publication bias was likely not an issue since 62.5% of the studies included were unpublished sources.

6.9 Discussion

Although claims of the paramount or essential value of emotional intelligence as a component of leadership may be overstated, the results of this study would suggest that emotional intelligence is at least an important element in the exercise of effective leadership.

Informal assessments of leaders by subordinates, peers and supervisors may often cause confusion as to how some individuals manage to achieve and maintain positions of leadership and power. Further, given that even with adequate ability and training some leaders continue to fail, perhaps emotional intelligence is a contributing factor. The results of the current study show that EI affects leadership effectiveness. This finding can have significance for the evaluation of educational leaders. Perhaps a good first step for current and future educational leaders is an assessment of their own level of emotional intelligence and learning to be cognizant of how this factor affects their performance. EI provides a structure where emotions are connected to reasoning in a functional way. Those leaders who recognize and monitor their EI have learned to utilize their emotions towards the improvement of processing information in order to make better decisions, support interactions and relationships with others, and exhibit certain behaviors associated with success in order to be viewed as effective. Regardless of the scale used for assessing EI, the results could be used for self-reflection or discussion with supervisors as part of a professional development process. Incorporating these data into a 360 evaluation process might also be a productive approach in providing self and observer ratings of the leader's level of EI as a means of improving performance and developing recommendations for

improvement.

This study also has implications for the assessment of EI in candidates for Educational Leadership Preparation Programs (ELPP). Potential leaders should begin to develop an understanding of how self-awareness of emotions and understanding others' emotions factor into selection, placement, training, and promotion within an organization as well as their success in an ELPP. Studies like this meta-analysis could be used to help introduce the need for self-assessment of the role of EI in the workplace and successful leadership experiences.

6.10 References

Antonakis, J. (2004). On why emotional intelligence will not predict leadership effectiveness beyond IQ or the "Big Five": An extension and rejoinder. *Organizational Analysis*, 12(2), 171-182.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Emotion in the workplace: The new challenge for managers. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16, 76-86.

Bar-On, R. (1997). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Barbuto, J. E., & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The emotional intelligence of transformational leaders: A field study of elected officials. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(1), 51-64.

Barchard, K. A. (2003). Does emotional intelligence assist in prediction of academic success? *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63, 840-858.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, 19-31.

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (2000). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire*, (2nd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden, Inc.

Borenstein, M., Hedges, L., Higgins, J., & Rothstein, H. (2007). *Introduction to meta-analysis*. Retrieved January 29, 2008, from <http://www.Meta-Analysis.com>²

Brown, K. D. (2005). Relationship between emotional intelligence of leaders and motivational behaviors of employees. *Dissertation Abstract International*, 66(07), 2630. (UMI No. 3183509)

Brown, F. W., Bryant, S. E., & Reilly, M. D. (2006). Does emotional intelligence-as measured by the EQI-influence transformational leadership and/or desirable outcomes? *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 27(5), 330-351.

Buford, B. A. (2001). Management effectiveness, personality, leadership, and emotional intelligence: A study of the validity evidence of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I). *Dissertations Abstracts International*, 62, 12-B, (UMI No. 3034082)

Coetzee, C., & Schaap, P. (2004). The relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence. Paper presented at the 6th Annual Conference of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, as part of the symposium.

Collins, V. L. (2001). Emotional intelligence and leader success (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska, 2001). *Dissertation Abstract International*, 62(11), 5416. (UMI No. 3034371)

Downey, L. A., Papageorgiou, V., & Stough, C. (2006). Examining the relationship between leadership, emotional intelligence and intuition in senior female managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(4), 250-264.

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence a review and evaluation study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(4), 341-372.

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2003). Leadership at the top: The need for emotional intelligence in organizations. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(3) 193-210.

Early, P.C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, October 139-146.

Glass, G.V., McGaw, B. & Smith, M.L. (1981). *Meta-analysis in social research*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

²<http://www.Meta-Analysis.com/>

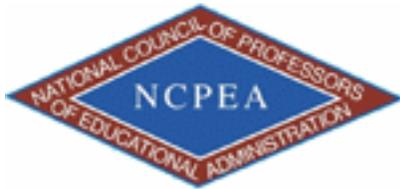
- Goffee, R. & Jones G. (2000 Sept.-Oct). Why should anyone be led by you? *Harvard Business Review*, (78) 9, 45-52.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam.
- Hamer, R., & Simpson, P. (2002). SAS tools for meta-analysis. *Proceedings of the Twenty-Seventh Annual SAS Users Group International Conference*, Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.
- Hartman, L. (1999). A psychological analysis of leadership effectiveness. *Strategy & Leadership*, 27(6), 30-32.
- Kerr, R., Gavin, J., Heaton, N., & Boyle, E. (2005). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(4), 265-279.
- Kouzes, O., & Posner, B. (1995). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Leban, W. and Zulauf, C. (2004). Linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership styles. *The Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 25(7), 554-564.
- Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (2001). *Practical meta-analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). The effective leader: Understanding and applying emotional intelligence. *Ivy Business Journal*, Nov/Dec, 1-6.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- McEnrue, M. P., & Groves, K. (2006). Choosing among tests of emotional intelligence: what is the evidence? *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 17(1), 9-42.
- Nahavandi, A. (2003). *The art and science of leadership*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage Publications: Thousand Oak, California.
- Rosete, D. & Ciarrochi, J. (2005). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(5), 388-399.
- Schulte, M. J. (2002). Emotional intelligence: A predictive or descriptive construct in ascertaining leadership style or a new name for old knowledge? (Doctoral dissertation, Our Lady of the Lake University, 2002). *Dissertation Abstract International*, 63(10), 3590. (UMI No. 3068435)
- Silverthorne, S. (2004, April 12). What great leaders teach us. *Harvard Leadership Initiative*, Retrieved April 14th, 2009, from <http://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/4053>³
- Smith, R. M. (2005). An examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader effectiveness. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 67(02). (UMI No. 3205547)
- Srivastava, K. B., & Bharamanaikar, S.R. (2004). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership behaviour. *Psychological Studies*, 49(2-3), 107-113.
- Stogdill, R. M., (1974). *Handbook of leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Weinberger, L. A. (2003). An examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 64(11), 5828. (UMI No. 3113218)
- Wong, C., & Law, K.S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243-274.
- Van Rooy, D. L., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 71-95.
- Young, I. & Castetter, W. (2004). *The human resource function in educational administration (8th ed.)* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall
- Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations*. (3rd ed.) Englewood : Prentice-Hall.

³<http://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/4053>²⁰

*CHAPTER 6. MILLS, L., MCDOWELLE, J., & ROUSH, W. (JULY 2009).
DOES RESEARCH SUPPORT NEW APPROACHES FOR THE EVALUATION
OF SCHOOL LEADERS: USING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN
FORMATIVE EVALUATION*

Chapter 7

Ward, C. (July 2009). Implementing Success Against All Odds: A Lesson from Three Historically Underperforming Schools¹



NOTE: 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 education administration. In addition to publication in the Connexions Content Commons, this manuscript is published in the *Education Leadership Review*, ² Volume 10, Number 2 (January – March 2010). Author is Cheryl Ward, San Diego State University

7.1 Introduction

With the enactment of NCLB, schools across the nation are now more accountable for student performance than ever before. Funding and other support for failing schools has increased. Low performing schools are spending thousands of dollars annually on professional development, programs, and interventions to improve student outcomes (Reeves, 2003).

Yet for many schools, there is little or no improvement in student achievement. During the 2004–2005 school year, over 2,000 Title I public schools were identified as having failed to make adequate yearly progress for five or more years. This number represents 23% of all Title I eligible schools. What is most alarming is that to meet the NCLB criteria for adequate yearly progress in 2005, only 16% of a school's tested population had to be proficient in reading and only 18% in math (Lips, 2006). Today, roughly 45% of the population must be proficient to meet the federal mandate, and the number of failing schools has dramatically increased.

Failing schools serve a disproportionately high number of low-income Black and Latino children. In the large school districts of New York City and Los Angeles, as many as 300,000 children attend the most

¹This content is available online at <<http://cnx.org/content/m33893/1.1/>>.

²<http://ijelp.expressacademic.org>

persistently underperforming public schools (Lips, 2006). Furthermore, according to The Harvard Civil Rights Project, Black and Latino students comprise 96% of the students in schools identified for improvement in Illinois and 80% of the students in California (Sunderman & Kim, 2005). Of the roughly 20 million low-income children in K-12 schools, 12 million are not even learning the most elementary skills and have little hope of mastering the responsibilities of citizenship or the rigors of global competition (Carter, 2000).

In the midst of the perpetual despair, there are a small number of schools quickly moving large numbers of low income and minority children to proficient levels. The objective of this paper is to highlight three such schools and to describe how each school implementing the same math model was able to move significant numbers of students to proficient levels in less than one year. These schools continued to increase student proficiency levels in the second year of the model implementation and to exceed the goals of NCLB which require schools to increase the number of proficient students by roughly 10% annually.

7.2 What Does It Take to Turn Around Low Performing Schools?

High-performing, high-poverty schools have strong leadership, a clear purpose, and clearly defined curriculum (Carter, 2000). In high-performing schools, teachers are well trained, acknowledge the difficult findings, spend most of their time teaching, and ensure that learning is happening (Carter, 2000; Schmoker, 2006). In this brief literature review, we examine the factors found in high performing schools that are also prevalent in the schools of this study: namely the impact of instruction, teacher training, leadership, use of assessment data, and instructional coaches for student achievement.

7.2.1 The Impact of Instruction on Student Achievement

In recent years, there has been renewed interest in the role of the teacher as the key to school improvement. The 2001 NCLB legislation codifies the emphasis of having a highly qualified teacher in every classroom (as cited in Stronge, Ward, Tucker, & Hindman, 2008). According to Schmoker (2006), the single greatest determinant of learning is not socioeconomic factors or funding levels; it's instruction. Sammons (1987) found that teaching had 6 to 10 times as much effect on learning as all other factors combined. The September, 1996 report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (the Commission), *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, followed by *Pursuing Excellence*, The report of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study, all point to the finding that what teachers know and can do is crucial to what students learn (as cited in Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1997).

Therefore, to improve overall student achievement, the quality of instruction must be improved (Carter, 2000; Wallace 2003).

7.2.2 Teacher Training and Student Achievement

To improve instruction, the quality of educators providing the instruction must be improved. In accordance with Carter (2000), Leithwood et. al. (2004), and Schmoker (2006), teacher quality is the single most accurate indicator of students' performance in school. To ensure that high-level instruction is occurring, schools need to have highly trained teachers. Yoon and colleagues (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarlos, & Shapley, 2007) concluded that "teachers who receive substantial professional development can boost their students' achievement by about 21 percentile points" (p. iii). The right kinds of professional development for both teachers and school leaders can directly contribute to improved student performance (Holloway, 2006).

Accordingly, on-going targeted and focused professional development can significantly impact student achievement (Thurston, 2008).

7.2.3 The Impact of Leadership on Student Achievement

To ensure that quality instruction is happening throughout a school, leadership is critical. Perez, Uline, Johnson, James-Ward & Basom (2008) affirm that an ever growing body of evidence underscores a significant

and positive relationship between effective school leadership, student learning, and achievement. Among related factors, leadership is second only to classroom instruction in its contribution to student learning (Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). Moreover, the effects of leadership are greatest within the contexts where they are most needed, that is, “the greater the challenge, the greater the impact of leadership on learning (Leithwood et al., 2004). Hence, in underperforming and in high poverty schools, the need for effective leadership is magnified.

7.2.4 Using Data to Inform Instruction

Another component necessary to improve student achievement is data. If schools are in the business of helping students learn, then data used to guide decisions should relate directly to student achievement (Marzano, 2003, p. 56). The instructional program must be aligned with the sequence of assessments that report on the regular progress of students. There has to be constant assessment in place that demonstrates mastery of what teachers are teaching (Carter, 2000). Moreover, teachers need regular scheduled times to collaborate about findings and to determine next steps for instruction (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Karhanek, 2004). In accordance, schools with the greatest gains in student achievement constantly use and analyze assessments (Carter, 2000; DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Karhanek 2004; and Reeves, 2004).

7.2.5 Instructional Coaches and Teacher Performance

The final factor in this literature review is the impact of instructional coaching on student achievement. Teacher coaching is fast becoming a tool of choice for striving districts (Killion & Harrison, 2007). Instructional coaching has been adopted as a central professional development strategy in Boston, Dallas, New York, and Philadelphia public schools. Several school reform models, such as America’s Choice, High Performing Learning Communities, and the Breaking Ranks framework rely on instructional coaching to support successful reforms (Kowal & Steiner, 2007). Coaches model teaching in classrooms and help teachers identify when to implement interventions. Principals work with instructional coaches to strengthen their own knowledge and identify teachers who will receive the greatest benefit from coaching (Knight, 2005). In comparing instructional coaching to other programs that purport to increase student learning, education economist Eric A. Hanushek (as cited in Killion & Harrison, 2007) analyzed school data from Washington State and found gains from coaching were about six times more than those for class-size reduction. Accordingly, instructional coaches can significantly impact the quality of teachers and hence instruction.

7.3 Three Schools Implementing Success against All Odds

The three schools identified are part of a large urban school district in northern California encompassing wealthy, impoverished, and high crime communities. The crime rates in some neighborhoods of the district consistently exceed the national average and are listed as some the most unsafe neighborhoods in the nation. Several of the lowest performing schools in the state are in this district. In 2006, the district became a Program Improvement district due to the increasing number of program improvement or low performing schools within its jurisdiction (see Table 1).

Demographics for schools 1, 2, and 3.

Demographics	School 1	School 2	School 3
<i>continued on next page</i>			

Student Enrollment	596	463	327
African American	4%	13%	32%
Asian	5%	8%	2%
Filipino	1%	4%	0%
Hispanic or Latino	86%	72%	64%
White	2%	3%	0%
Socioeconomically Dis- advantaged	99%	100%	98%
English Learners	78%	61%	65%
Students with Disabili- ties	12%	6%	6%
Fully Credentialed Teachers	35/35	23/23	17/23
Parents Graduating from HS	29% (STAR Parent Self Reporting Data)	31% (STAR Parent Self Reporting Data)	29% (STAR Parent Self Reporting Data)

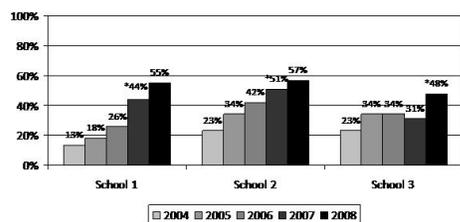
Table 7.1

Data from the Oct. 2007 CBEDS data collection, the 2008 STAR Program Student Answer Document 2007-2008 School Accountability Report Cards.

In October, 2006, two schools in the district, School 1 and School 2, elected to pilot a math model i.e., Results driven Math Model³ (RM²). In September of 2007, another school piloted the program. School 1 and School 2 are both K-5 schools and School 3 is K-6. The three schools are all within a mile radius of each other and serve similar demographics.

In 2007, just after 6 months of using the math model, the number of proficient students at School 1 increased from 26 to 44% in math. At School 2, the number of proficient students grew from 42% to 51%. In 2008, the number of proficient students at both schools continued to grow with 55% of the students proficient in math at School 1 and 57% proficient at School 2. In August of 2008, after one year of using the math model, School 3 increased from 31% to 48% proficient students in the area of mathematics (California Department of Education, 2009). The figure below shows state content standards test results based on AYP trend data for each of the sites over a five year period in the area of mathematics. RM² was implemented in schools 1 and 2 in November of 2006 (for test years 2007 and 2008) and at school 3 in September of 2007 (for test year 2008).

Figure 1. Five Year AYP Math Overall Trend Data for School 1, School 2, and School 3.



7.4 The Results driven Math Model (RM2)

The nine pedagogical components of the math model include: seven step lesson design, direct instruction including teacher modeling, active student engagement, on-going spiral review, standardize note taking, common lesson delivery, on-going professional development, common pacing, and the use of common assessments aligned to the pacing guides. The focus of the model is on lesson delivery, pacing order, use of common assessments, data driven instruction, and ongoing coaching for teachers and administrators.

In November of 2006, second through fifth grade teachers at School 1 and School 2 elected to adopt the math model. Principals were assigned an administrative coach, and teachers at each site were provided with a math coach. Teachers were given 1.5 days of training in November and half-day trainings monthly from December to April. When the model was first introduced, teachers were trained in the implementation of each component of the model and the math strategies. Pacing guides were created for teachers in grades 2–6 linking district adopted textbooks to the state content standards and the RM² order of content delivery. Additionally, teachers were trained in an approach to teaching basic math skills and given basic facts books with scripted lessons, math problems, and assessments to ensure all students were able to compute basic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division with automaticity. The explicit teaching of basic skills added an additional 30 minutes of math instruction and provided students with a structure to memorize basic facts and apply them in real problems.

Each month, math coaches provided teachers with professional development in new math strategies, pedagogy, and remediation techniques. Every two months, teachers were provided with unit and benchmark assessments aligned to the pacing. Additionally, they were trained in developing grade level appropriate weekly formative assessments.

The administrative coaches met with principals individually in November of 2006 to establish a clear set of achievable math goals such as doubling the number of students proficient in math by May of 2007. Each principal had to determine and to gain staff agreement about the percentage of students they expected to become proficient in math by testing time. A monitoring system to ensure that agreed upon next steps between the principal and coach was established. Coaches and principals discussed common assessment timelines, how to use assessments to improve instruction, and how to conduct assessment conferences with individual teachers. Additionally, a schedule for monthly walkthroughs with the administrative coaches and each principal was developed.

7.5 Methods of Inquiry

The purpose of this paper is to answer the following questions: 1) What components of the model were used by each school? 2) To what degree did each school implement the components? and 3) What are the teacher perceptions about the math model and student achievement?

To help determine the extent to which aspects of the RM² model were implemented, surveys were distributed in the fall of 2008. One survey was sent to principals and another to 40 teachers. Of the 40 teachers, 31 responded. Of the three principals, two returned the completed survey. It should be noted that one principal has been a principal for 5 years; all five at the same site. The other principal has 30 plus years with the last six in the building.

The teacher survey consisted of 33 multiple choice questions and two open-ended questions, while the principal survey consisted of 33 open ended questions and two selected response questions. The questions were designed to answer questions about which aspects of the math model teachers were using, the frequency with which they were using them, and which aspects the teachers felt were having the most impact on students' success. The surveys were hand delivered to each site and were returned anonymously in an envelope.

7.6 Findings and Discussion

7.6.1 Implementation of Components of the RM² Math Model

Two sets of questions asked about the frequency with which teachers were using instructional strategies from RM² (see Table 2). All teachers indicate they were using problem of the day (POD) word problems, clearly stated and posted objectives, comprehensible and visual vocabulary, comprehensible modeled input, structured guided practice, independent practice, student collaboration and student presentations at least "sometimes." Responses show that the most frequently used of these components are posting clearly stated objectives, using comprehensible and visual vocabulary, using modeled output, using structured guided practice and using independent practice. Student presentations are used the least.

Frequency of Use of Strategies from RM² Model.

	POD – Word Prob- lems?		Clearly Stated and Posted Objectives?		Visual Vocabulary		Modeled Output		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	%
Sometimes	6	26	3	13	3	13	3	13	13
All the time	17	74	20	87	20	87	20	87	87
Total	23	100	23	100	23	100	23	100	100
	Structured Guided Practice		Independent Prac- tice		Student Collaboration			Student Presenta- tions	
<i>continued on next page</i>									

	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sometimes	13	3	13	8	35	11	50
All the time	87	20	87	15	65	11	50
Total	100	23	100	23	100	22	100

Table 7.2

Table 3. Frequency of Use of Strategies from RM² Model.
Survey Question: “Do students in your class..”

Frequency of Use of Strategies from RM² Model.

	Use consensus building during math?		Present math problems to the class?		Use whiteboards to check for student understanding	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Never	0	0%	0	0%	4	13%
Sometimes	8	26%	5	17%	11	37%
Usually	23	74%	25	83%	15	15%

Table 7.3

Another important aspect of the RM² model is the use of assessments to inform instruction. When asked how often they assessed their student in math 27 (87%) indicated they assessed their students at least twice a month, 2 (7%) indicated they assessed their students at least once a month, one (3%) assessed their students every three month and one (3%) reported only assessing students once a year. All of the teachers indicated that they used the data from math assessments to inform their instruction. Only eight teachers responded to the question about whether they were provided with release time to analyze math assessments with two (25%) indicating they were and six (75%) indicating they were not. However, when asked whether they were given release time to meet with grade level colleagues to look at data and discuss instructional strategies, only one teacher (3%) responded never, seven (23%) indicated they had release time twice a year, 15 (48%) said they received release time once a month, and eight (26%) indicated that they received release time more than once a month. Perhaps it was not always clear how release time was meant to be used.

Teachers reported differing amounts of support from math coaches. Two teachers (7%) indicated that they only received support one to three times a year, nine (30%) indicated that they received support once a month, and 19 (63%) stated that they received support once a week. The number of times teachers reported the math coaches visited during math instruction varied with seven teachers (32%) indicated the coach visited once a month, 13 (59%) stated they were visited twice a month, and two (9%) reported the coach came to their class during math instruction at least once a week. Both principals reported that the instructional coaches met with teachers once monthly.

Principals are expected to visit the classroom during math instruction. Only one teacher (3%) indicated that the principal came less than once a month, 11 (50%) indicated the principal visited at least once a month, 9 (41%) were visited twice a month, and one teacher (4%) indicated the principal came every week. Findings from the principal surveys reveal principals visited classrooms to observe math instruction at least once monthly.

7.6.2 Teacher and Principal Perceptions

Teachers were asked, “If the school culture has changed over the last three years, what do you think is the primary cause of the change in culture?” Across the three schools, 14 teachers responded. Of these, 13

stated a positive change in school culture. Most attributed to the change is an increase in shared focus and a consistency across the school. One teacher felt that the school culture was negative and questioned whether all teachers were using RM². “School culture is consistently negative and follows few set goals. No one knows what is going on or when and this impacts fidelity to the program.” There were four other responses from the same school each suggesting that the respondent believed the school culture had improved. As one explained “. . . culture has improved due to clear expectations, collaboration, uniform curriculum, coaching and focus.” Another cited, “More focused and designed curriculum and a uniformed way of teaching”; “collaboration, coaching, modeling and high expectations from the administration”; “teaching staff has changed and with that change came a calmer more focused school climate.” Taken together, these comments suggest that most teachers felt there had been a positive change in the school culture. Most of the reasons can be directly linked to RM², although other reasons, such as a change in staff, were also given as positive influences.

Principals attributed the growth in student math scores to the implementation of the RM² model. Both stated that they were expecting over 70% of their students to score at proficient or above on the California content standards test in 2009 and indicate students are more engaged in math and appear excited about learning. Furthermore, principals reported that strategies from the RM² model are being implemented in other curricula areas.

Principals reported that having instructional coaches and principal coaches was very helpful. Coaches were focused, organized, and knew the approaches and strategies. The principals stated that the instructional coaches modeled, planned, analyzed data, and discussed next steps with teachers.

The administrator coaches met with principals once every 4 to 6 weeks depending on the site. Principals reported that during those visits, the principal and administrator coach visited classrooms, analyzed data, and planned next steps for implementation and teacher support. It was reported that both the RM² administrator and instructional coaches were approachable and had extensive experiences with the populations of students.

7.7 Conclusions and Recommendations

Most components of the math model were used routinely with the student engagement components being used less frequently (see Tables 2 and 3). Both teachers and principals reported that the math model provided more structure and continuity. As one teacher noted, “The consistency of having this model each year will solidify the way students learn math. They will know what to expect. We appreciate that as teachers.”

Although there is no direct way to determine the impact of coaching on the schools, the principals reported that administrator coaches helped to keep them focused on classroom instruction and assessment results. These comments are similar to other school leaders who have coaches. Killion (2002) points out that school leaders with coaches repeatedly remarked that because of the coaching they were able to remain focused and stand firm on issues related to the academic success of their students.

Teachers reported receiving support from instructional coaches generally on a monthly basis and having instructional coaches was useful. More importantly, teachers reported implementing the instructional practices of the math model on a regular and consistent basis. According to Kowal and Steiner (2007), more relevant than teacher’s opinions of their coaches are the changes made in teachers’ practices and strategies in the classroom as a result of the coaching. The emerging body of empirical research on coaching indicates that instructional coaching has great potential to influence teacher practice and, ultimately student performance (Kowal & Steiner, 2007).

Findings suggest teachers routinely used the assessment results to inform instruction after implementing the model, and teachers assessed students frequently. Structured grade level teams, called professional learning communities (PLCs), met regularly to analyze results and discuss next steps. When asked about the success of PLCs, one principal reported, “1) They have focused the teachers on student results, 2) They have made practice more public. 3) They have made our planning sessions more focused.” Another principal stated, “the teachers indicated they have found the meetings extremely helpful in guiding their instruction, for reteaching content in which their students struggled and to be on the “same page” as the other grade level teachers.”

Although there are numerous factors at each site that may have contributed to the increase in student performance, the findings indicate that the implementation of the RM² model may have had some impact on increased student achievement in the area of mathematics. In this study, principals embraced the math model and provided structures to facilitate high quality instruction in the area of mathematics. Teachers were provided with regular release time for training, planning and data analysis; monthly support from math coaches; common unit and benchmark assessments; and math supplies such as student notebooks and whiteboards.

Even though principals reported observing math instruction only once monthly, they provided a structure for success and additional support through both the instructional and administrator coaches. Moreover, principals monitored learning outcomes monthly.

Teachers in the three schools also embraced the math model. They consistently implemented key instructional components, used assessments to modify instruction, and implemented consistent instructional delivery structures across the grades. They provided students with multiple opportunities to demonstrate the learning. Teachers embraced assessments and used the findings to guide their teaching.

Findings from this study support the current literature and research addressing instruction and leadership as well as confirm that schools can be successful against all odds with appropriate leadership. Schools looking to have similar results might want to focus on direct instruction, standards focused content, instructional and administrator coaches, regularly scheduled common assessments aligned to the standards, built in regularly scheduled times for teachers to collaboratively analyze assessment results and plan next steps, and a system for principals to monitor student achievement monthly.

7.8 References

Algozzine, B., Ysseldyke, J., & Elliot, J. (1997). *Strategies and tactics for effective instruction*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Bakunas, B., & Holley, W. (2004). Teaching organizational skills. *The Clearing House*, 77(3). Retrieved February 20, 2008, from ERIC database.

California Department of Education (2009). *Accountability progress reporting*. Retrieved on March 18, 2009, from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ta/ac/ar/>⁴.

Carter, S. (2000). *No excuses: Lessons from 21 high performing high poverty schools*. Washington D.C.: The Heritage Foundation.

Darling-Hammond, L. & Ball, D. (1997). *Teaching for high standards: What policy makers need to know and be able to do*. New York: The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.

DuFour, R., DuFour, R., Eaker, R., Karhanek, G. (2004). *Whatever it takes*. Bloomington, Indiana: National Educational Service.

Gail L. Sunderman, J. K. (2004). *Inspiring Vision, Disappointing Results: Four Studies on Implementing the No Child Left Behind Act*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Civil Rights Project, Harvard University.

Holloway, J. H. (2006, Spring). Connecting professional development to student learning gains. *Science Educator*, p. v15 n1, p. 37-43.

Killion, J. & Harrison, C. (2007, December). Coaching teachers to help students learn. *Education Week*. Retrieved January 20, 2009 from <http://www.cea.org/newsinfo/inthenews/coaching-teachers.cfm>⁵.

Knight, J. (2005, May). A primer of instructional coaches. *Principal Leadership Middle School Edition*, 5, No 9.

Kowal, Julie & Steiner, Lucy (2007, September). *Instructional coaching*. Washington D.C.: The Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement.

Leithwood, K., Seashore L., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning*. University of Minnesota: Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement & Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

⁴<http://www.cde.ca.gov/ta/ac/ar/>

⁵<http://www.cea.org/newsinfo/inthenews/coaching-teachers.cfm>

- Lips, D. (2006, May 30). America's opportunity scholarship for kids: School choice for students in underperforming schools. *Backgrounder*, No. 1939, pp. 1–6.
- Marzano, R. (2003). *What works in school: Translating research into action*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Perez, L., Uline, C., Johnson, J., James-Ward, C., & Basom, M. (2008). Foregrounding fieldwork: Preparing successful school leaders through data-driven inquiry and coursework aimed at improving student achievement. Paper presented at UCEA, Orlando, Florida.
- Reed, B. (2004). Reading apprenticeship framework. *Northwest Education*, volume 10 number 1. Retrieved February 8, 2009 from www.nwrel.org/nwedu/10-01/read/⁶.
- Reeves, C. (2003). *State support to low performing schools*. Washington, D.C.: Council of Chief State School Offices.
- Reeves, D. (2004). *Accountability for Learning: How teachers and school leaders can take charge*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Sammons, P. M. (1987, September). New evidence on effective elementary schools. *Educational Leadership*, p. 45 (1), 4–8.
- Schmoker, M. (2006). *Results Now*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Curriculum and Supervision Development.
- Stiggins, R. (2005). From formative assessment to assessment for learning: A path to success in standards-based schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 87, pp. 324–328.
- Strong, J., Ward, T., Tucker, P. & Hindman, J. (2008). What is the relationship between teacher quality and student achievement? An exploratory study. Springer Science, LLC 2008.
- Sunderman, G.L. & Kim, J (2005). Teacher quality: equalizing educational opportunities and outcomes. The Civil Rights Project at Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Thurston, D. C. (2008, September). Effects of continuing professional development on group work practices in scottish primary schools. *Journal of In-service Education*, v34 n3, pp. 263–282.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wallace, A. O. (2003, August 6). Leveraging teacher pay. *Education Week*, 22(43), 64.
- Waters, T., Marzano, R., & McNulty, B. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement: A working paper*. Aurora, CO: Mid-Continental Regional Educational Lab.
- Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. (2007). Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007-No 033). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest. Retrieved November 12, 2008 from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/>⁷

⁶<http://www.nwrel.org/nwedu/10-01/read/>

⁷<http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs>

Index of Keywords and Terms

Keywords are listed by the section with that keyword (page numbers are in parentheses). Keywords do not necessarily appear in the text of the page. They are merely associated with that section. *Ex.* apples, § 1.1 (1) **Terms** are referenced by the page they appear on. *Ex.* apples, 1

C charter schools, § 4(21)

emotional intelligence, § 6(43)

E effective leadership, § 6(43)

S school leadership, § 4(21)

Attributions

Collection: *NCPEA Education Leadership Review, Volume 10, Number 2; August 2009*

Edited by: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/col10710/1.2/>

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Education Leadership Review List of Reviewers (July 2009)"

By: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24487/1.3/>

Pages: 1-2

Copyright: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Toward a Responsive Model for Educational Leadership in Rural Appalachia: Merging Theory and Practice (Sumario en espanol)"

Used here as: "Johnson, J., Shope, S., & Roush, J. (July 2009). Toward a Responsive Model for Educational Leadership in Rural Appalachia: Merging Theory and Practice"

By: Jerry Johnson, Shane Shope, John Roush

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24352/1.2/>

Pages: 3-11

Copyright: Jerry Johnson, Shane Shope, John Roush

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Leadership, Quantum Mechanics and the Relationship with Professional Learning Communities"

Used here as: "Wells, C. (July 2009). Leadership, Quantum Mechanics and the Relationship with Professional Learning Communities"

By: Caryn M. Wells

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24349/1.1/>

Pages: 13-20

Copyright: Caryn M. Wells

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Preparing District and Charter School Leaders: A Systems Perspective"

Used here as: "Allen, A., & Gawlik, M. (July 2009). Preparing District and Charter School Leaders: A Systems Perspective"

By: Ann Allen, Marytza Gawlik

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24364/1.1/>

Pages: 21-30

Copyright: Ann Allen, Marytza Gawlik

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Administrators' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Value and Current Use of the ELCC Standards"

Used here as: "Morrison, M., Gosmire, D., & Van Osdel, J. (July 2009). Administrators' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Value and Current Use of the ELCC Standards"

By: Doreen Gosmire, Marcia Morrison, Joanne Van Osdel

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24426/1.2/>

Pages: 31-42

Copyright: Doreen Gosmire, Marcia Morrison, Joanne Van Osdel

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Does Research Support New Approaches for the Evaluation of School Leaders: Using Emotional Intelligence in Formative Evaluation"

Used here as: "Mills, L., McDowelle, J., & Roush, W. (July 2009). Does Research Support New Approaches for the Evaluation of School Leaders: Using Emotional Intelligence in Formative Evaluation"

By: Lane Mills, William Rouse

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m24427/1.1/>

Pages: 43-49

Copyright: Lane Mills, William Rouse

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

Module: "Ward, C. (July 2009). Implementing Success Against All Odds: A Lesson from Three Historically Underperforming Schools"

By: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

URL: <http://cnx.org/content/m33893/1.1/>

Pages: 51-60

Copyright: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration

License: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/>

About Connexions

Since 1999, Connexions has been pioneering a global system where anyone can create course materials and make them fully accessible and easily reusable free of charge. We are a Web-based authoring, teaching and learning environment open to anyone interested in education, including students, teachers, professors and lifelong learners. We connect ideas and facilitate educational communities.

Connexions's modular, interactive courses are in use worldwide by universities, community colleges, K-12 schools, distance learners, and lifelong learners. Connexions materials are in many languages, including English, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Italian, Vietnamese, French, Portuguese, and Thai. Connexions is part of an exciting new information distribution system that allows for **Print on Demand Books**. Connexions has partnered with innovative on-demand publisher QOOP to accelerate the delivery of printed course materials and textbooks into classrooms worldwide at lower prices than traditional academic publishers.