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The **Education Leadership Review of Doctoral Research (ELRDR)** is an ICPEL publication of doctoral research in education leadership and a companion peer reviewed journal to the Education Leadership Review (ELR). Lead authors are recent doctoral graduates with chair or committee member serving as coauthor/s. Research is limited to dissertations, capstones, and action research projects. The purpose of the ELRDR is to disseminate the results of doctoral research in education leadership and school administration.

All manuscripts have been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the International Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (ICPEL) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education



***Education Leadership Review of Doctoral Research
Fall/Winter 2019***

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From the Editor

This issue of Education Leadership Review of Doctoral Research (ELRDR) is published in recognition of the extensive work that recent doctoral graduates, chairs, and/or committee members complete to augment the field of education leadership and administration. This work represents a sense of optimism for what the future holds and promotes the ongoing quest to continue to focus on research-based findings to enhance the scholarship and practice of K12 education and school leadership. As I continue to work as Editor of ELRDR, I encourage you to further promote this journal to your colleagues and recent graduate students so that we may continue to support new authors and contribute to recent, innovative, and meaningful work to the field.

In this edition, Jamie Segraves and David Reid present their work, *Induction Programs in Independent Schools: A Qualitative Study on New Faculty Members' Experiences*. As our education system continues to be largely impacted by teacher attrition, the authors' unique findings help orient readers to induction program similarities, differences, and themes. These findings provide implications for practice that can be used to preserve or encourage modifications to existing induction programs and, in turn, support ongoing efforts to combat teacher attrition and retain them for future years of service.

In *Pay-for-Performance in Three Michigan School Districts: Lessons for Decision Makers*, Daniel J. Quinn and C. Suzanne Klien focus on initiatives related to performance-pay for teachers. Their work highlights that the implementation of teacher compensation reform presents a complex, complicated, and thought-provoking enterprise for district leaders. The authors note some successful actions taken by district leaders that warrant further exploration and consideration.

Certainly, as leaders and educators are tasked with roles that continue to evolve and become more complex, Michael Flynn and Jason LaFrance explore moral knowing development in ninth-grade athletes in their work entitled, *Moral Development in a "Win at All Cost" Society: An Examination of Moral Knowing Development in 9th Grade Athletes*. The authors' results remind us about the far-reaching efforts that school leadership entails, including athletic programming and related impacts on student outcomes.

Again, please encourage your colleagues and their recent doctoral graduates to take the next step beyond the dissertation by pursuing authorship of their work. This help us to engage in and disseminate innovative and meaningful work in Educational Leadership.

Sincerely,

Jafeth E. Sanchez, PhD

Editor, Education Leadership Review of Doctoral Research

Induction Programs in Independent Schools: A Qualitative Study on New Faculty Members' Experiences

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The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the experiences of newly-hired faculty members in the induction programs provided by four independent schools in the greater Washington, D.C. area and examine how each induction program influenced faculty job satisfaction. Data came from six administrators and 17 faculty members and were collected during the 2017–2018 academic year. Through the use of document review and semi-structured interviews, similarities across schools and individual participants emerged. The findings showed that a positive school culture and opportunities to build relationships with colleagues influenced the faculty members' overall professional satisfaction.

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Teacher turnover affects public and private schools throughout the United States, where *turnover* refers to attrition combined with teacher migration. It is calculated that more than one million teachers leave the profession (attrition) or migrate to other schools annually (Alliance for Excellent Education [AEE], 2014; Ingersoll, 2001, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2012). Recent studies have shown that up to 17% of new educators do not complete their first year of teaching (Breux & Wong, 2003; Hammer & Williams, 2005; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010; LoCascio, Smeaton, & Waters, 2016), while the number of teachers leaving the profession after completing their first year has increased by more than 40% over the past two decades (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014).

Researchers such as Smith and Ingersoll (2004), Brill and McCartney (2008), and Moore (2012) suggest that the principal reasons for the evolving crisis in teacher attrition have more to do with job dissatisfaction, changing careers (attrition), or moving to different teaching jobs (migration) in other schools to escape organizational conditions and less to do with teacher retirement. The primary complaints of job dissatisfaction include the following influences: inadequate preservice preparation, insufficient compensation, poor working environments (e.g., high-stakes testing, excessive and increasing workloads, and disruptive student behavior), absence of teacher support (e.g., ineffective administration or leadership), inadequate professional development and in-service preparation, and lack of voice in decision-making (Brill & McCartney, 2008; Dean, London, Carston, & Salyers, 2015; Johnson, 2011; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

The findings in these studies indicate that administrator retention and support efforts have implications for teacher retention (Johnson, 2011), teacher morale, student achievement, and school budgets (Miller, 2010; Sass, Bustos Flores, Claeys, & Pérez, 2012; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). The results also suggest that the development and implementation of effective and comprehensive faculty development, mentorship, and preparation programs are more cost-effective in teacher retention. These help to mitigate teacher attrition (Shockley, Watlington, & Felsher, 2013) through positively affecting teachers' perceptions of the level of support provided by the school and, therefore, the overall collaborative culture of the school (Dimatteo, 2014), and improve overall student and teacher experiences (Brill & McCartney, 2008; Dean et al., 2015). Furthermore, teachers who have been formally paired with a mentor have reported that they were supported, experienced greater job satisfaction, and wished to return to their present position (Britt-Stevens, 2014; McCamley, 2014) in addition to acquiring more classroom management strategies and learning about school and district culture (McCamley, 2014; Ogunyemi, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

Although empirical evidence has shown that the utilization of comprehensive induction programs can positively impact teacher retention (Britt-Stevens, 2014; Eisner, 2015; Fletcher & Mullen, 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; McCamley, 2014; Ogunyemi, 2013), several sources have cited that such studies were executed in a weak manner (Allen, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Glazerman et al., 2010; Gold, 1996; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Lopez, Lash, Schaffner, Shields, & Wagner, 2004; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Such limitations included lack of controlling for other factors affecting teacher retention, basic "yes/no" survey questions without soliciting further details on induction program components, and only surveying a subset of the new teacher population in a given cohort, for example, new teachers without any prior teaching experience (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Therefore, the results are inconclusive in determining the contribution of how participation in a comprehensive induction program improves teacher retention or

effectiveness (Allen, 2005; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Lopez et al., 2004; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). It is also uncertain how induction programs influence novice teachers' competence, efficacy, or desire to continue in the profession (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Glazerman et al., 2010; Gold, 1996; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Additionally, a lack of continuity in induction program purpose (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004), substance, quality, and superficial assistance (Gold, 1996), and the length of the program (American Federation of Teachers [AFT], 2001; Wong, 2004) indicated that further research is needed to conclude that induction programs are effective in influencing teacher retention.

The current body of research on induction programs only presents the collection of data in Kindergarten (K) to Grade 12 (12) public schools, international schools, as well as public and private universities for newly-hired faculty members; empirical evidence on the effects of these programs regarding teacher retention in K–12 independent schools is lacking. Furthermore, the study of teachers' experiences in an organizational induction program and its influence on their satisfaction with their first year in an independent school is almost non-existent. According to recent reports run in the NAIS database – specifically *Data and Analysis for School Leadership* (DASL– <http://dasl.nais.org/Public>) – independent schools of various characteristics (e.g. student enrollment, number of full-time faculty members, grade levels served, day and boarding schools, single-sex or co-educational, religious affiliation or not) generally experience teacher turnover. This teacher turnover is attributed to various factors including teachers leaving their schools to: (a) go to another independent school (migration), (b) go to a public school (migration), (c) attend graduate school, (d) change professions (true attrition), (e) retire, or (f) another reason (these factors were reported in DASL). It has yet to be determined how organizational induction programs influence teacher turnover statistics in independent schools. The present study will fill the gap in the current literature on two fronts: (a) by providing empirical data on how teacher induction programs influence teachers' job satisfaction and (b) specifically showing how this phenomenon unfolds in independent schools, which as mentioned above, is an understudied population of schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of newly-hired faculty members in four independent schools – three day schools and one boarding school (as boarding schools represent 17.9% of all independent schools) – in the greater Washington, D.C. area. Of particular note is the use of the terminology “faculty,” which is the expected and accepted term used when directly referring to “teachers” in independent schools. Therefore, any direct reference to “teachers” in independent schools in this study will be described as “faculty.” The goal of this study was to gain a better understanding of the influence that these respective school communities' induction programs had on their experience as newly-hired faculty members and specifically how these programs influenced faculty members' decisions to stay in their school or in the profession. The study was guided by the following research questions: (1) What role do formal faculty organizational induction programs play in newly-hired faculty members' professional satisfaction and their integration into independent schools?, (2) What are the basic components of the organizational induction program?, and (3) How do newly-hired faculty members describe their experiences in the organizational induction program?

Overview of Theoretical Framework

The contradictory evidence found in the current body of knowledge demonstrated that further research was needed to conclude that induction programs are effective in influencing teacher retention across K–12 schools and in universities. Additionally, with the lack of research exclusively directed to retention in independent schools, this study aimed to build theory specifically to address this gap in the literature. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) elaborated on the application of Zey's (1984) mutual benefits model, which is drawn from social exchange theory, as the foundational theory by which induction programs were initially created. The model is based on the premise that relationships are formed between parties and continue as long as they are beneficial (in this case, between teacher and school). It is, therefore, seen as necessary to develop such support programs for novice (teachers) to learn, advance, and prosper in schools (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Although not generalizable to all independent schools, one of the goals of this work is to begin to test this theory.

As is typical in qualitative research, Glaser and Strauss' (1967) *grounded theory* served as the foundational springboard in this study. With the implementation of a comparative case study approach, this study examined four schools as four individual cases in a within-case analysis and then cross-examined the cases with each other in a cross-case analysis. The application of codes in each analysis directly and inductively developed the emergence of themes that led to the building of theory. The findings and implications enhance our overall understanding of the components of induction programs, how faculty members experience these programs, and therefore faculty's subsequent job satisfaction, especially as it relates to independent school communities.

Review of Related Research and Literature

This section examines the recent research and current body of knowledge on teacher attrition rates and the factors that contribute to the annual teacher turnover rate. The study of independent schools' attrition, retention, and induction programs is lacking in the current literature, which is the foundational core for the design of the present study.

Attrition and Turnover

While some turnover is beneficial in avoiding complacency and stagnation (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004), high levels of turnover are both a source and a consequence of these attributes. The development and maintenance of a learning community is halted when high rates of teacher turnover exist (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004), which then becomes an issue due to the necessary replacement of these teachers (Boe et al., 2008; Carroll, 2007). Districts with low retention not only become fiscally irresponsible by spending millions of dollars to recruit and train new teachers, but at times the districts must also partake in the last-minute hiring of unqualified teachers (Heineke, Streff Mazza, & Tichnor-Wagner, 2014; Hunt & Carroll, 2003), which naturally contributes to the decline of the overall student and faculty experience. In Ingersoll's (2002) analysis of the Bureau of National Affairs' (BNA) and Boe, Cook, and Sunderland's (2008) limited comparative analysis of three versions of the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) (1990–1991, 1993–1994, and 1999–2000) along with 1-year

longitudinal components with the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) (1991–1992, 1994–1995, 2000–2001), the researchers excessively narrowed the scope of their investigations; they solely examined public school teachers, including statuses of full-time, part-time, or long-term substitute, and did not account for any teaching equivalencies in the private sector.

Retention

In an attempt to limit such teacher turnover and retain teachers, numerous initiatives and policies have included mandatory mentoring programs and retention bonuses. Springer, Swain, and Rodriguez's (2016) study on a retention bonus initiative in Tennessee in *priority schools* (i.e., low-performing schools), the researchers studied the impact of a \$5,000 retention bonus on Level 5 teachers to continue teaching in priority schools during the 2013–2014 academic year. While the researchers determined that these bonuses were successful in increasing teacher retention after the 2013–2014 academic year by about 20%, they did not state whether these bonuses continued to take effect in subsequent years. If the bonuses were not resumed, did teacher turnover return to its pre-bonus level?

In a study conducted by Mancuso, Roberts, and White (2010), the researchers modeled their statistical method after Ingersoll's (2001) analysis of SASS by collecting data from 22 heads of school and 248 faculty members in the Near East South Asia (NESAs) region. The results of the data analysis showed that satisfaction with salary, the perceived effectiveness of the head of school, and the amount of faculty input in decision-making were significant predictors of teacher mobility in the international schools studied. If the researchers had also collected qualitative data through interviews, they may have gained a deeper understanding of these teachers' perceptions beyond their statistical analyses.

Comprehensive Induction Programs

Provided the impact of teacher attrition rates on student achievement and the financial costs associated with teacher turnover, policymakers have commonly applied two strategies to solve the problem, namely alternate route teacher certification and extensive and planned beginning teacher induction programs (LoCascio et al., 2016). Over the past decades, induction and mentorship programs have become a widespread practice in the teaching profession (Fideler & Haselkorn, 1999; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Components and implementation. In Smith and Ingersoll's (2004) quantitative analysis of public and private school teachers in the 1999–2000 SASS, the outcome indicated that as the number of elements in an induction program increased, the likelihood of teacher turnover decreased. However, the questions and categories across public school and private school surveys were not synonymous, resulting in missed nuances in the data. In the mixed-methods study by LoCascio et al. (2016) on the effect that induction programs had on alternate route urban teachers' decisions to remain teaching in Northeastern New Jersey, the researchers used a "forced choice" survey with 53 participants, while only conducting six participant interviews. The researchers failed to describe why only six participants were interviewed.

Westling, Herzog, Cooper-Duffy, Prohn, and Ray (2006) used open-ended response surveys and interviews in their qualitative study of a teacher support program for special education teachers in North Carolina. The study developed its own *bottom-up* support program, but the program lacked isolation to one school culture and did not account for the nuances of joining one

particular community. Last, the study by Fenton-Smith and Torpey (2013) on inducting instructors of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Japan was a major source for this study. In their qualitative study using interviews, surveys, and focus groups, their focal point most similarly reflected the topic of this study – inducting faculty members to new workplaces and unfamiliar cultural surroundings to adapt to their new employment. The researchers collected data from participants using only surveys and focus groups, while interviews were solely used with management. Each of the aforementioned studies had limitations that the present study attempted to address.

The Case for Studying Independent Schools

The body of knowledge documented studies that focused on teacher attrition and retention in school settings including K–12 public schools and international settings with different populations of teachers, including teachers serving in urban school districts, special education teachers, and educators abroad. Although some of the researchers explored attrition and retention in private school settings, these studies were limited in scope simply to compare rates of turnover among public and private school teachers, and those studies that were conducted specific to private schools did not utilize a qualitative method to develop a richer understanding of several key questions.

Independent schools are unique in that they are designed as not-for-profit institutions and governed by a board of directors. They are also financially independent from public monies or religious subsidies, and, thus, the schools charge tuition, raise money, and accept charitable donations to operate (NAIS, n.d.). Furthermore, given that independent schools do not operate under the same state regulations that public schools do, they are not required to follow state mandates such as offering mandated teacher induction programs, as seen in the study by LoCascio et al. (2016). Last, independent schools also have the freedom to define teacher credentials; as defined on job qualifications, teachers are not required to have certification of any kind to teach at an independent school and therefore may not have completed any basic training in the art of teaching.

The importance for studying independent schools is critical, as the most recent report from the Council for American Private Education (CAPE) (n.d.) – which includes independent school statistics, with reference to the NCES, illustrates that of the 132,000 schools and 55 million students from pre-Kindergarten (PK) to grade 12 (or PK–12) in the United States, there were 33,619 private schools serving 5.4 million PK–12 students in the 2013–2014 academic year. These private schools account for 25% of all schools in the United States, and these enroll 10% of all PK–12 American students. Through examination of the research questions in independent schools, the present study contributed to the formerly lacking body of knowledge, where little representation of teacher job satisfaction and retention in K–12 independent day and boarding schools existed.

Research Design and Methodology

This study utilized a comparative case study approach to explore which factors of an organizational induction program influenced newly-hired faculty members' job satisfaction. To identify the participants, purposive sampling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Patton, 2001), in particular the technique of criterion sampling, was used. The reason for this was that the research questions

required a sample of newly-hired faculty members in their first year at their current independent school. Each of the four schools was considered to be its own case; that is to say that each case's induction program and subsequent faculty experiences were first examined independently (within case analysis) and then compared across cases (cross-case analysis) to identify any emergent themes as is typically seen in case studies (Merriam, 1998) and grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Additionally, the inclusion of multiple cases enhanced the external validity of the findings (Merriam, 1998). Under the assumption that faculty members' experiences in their integration into a new environment were likely to individually fluctuate, an analysis of the words that narrated these experiences best addressed the study's research questions.

Participants

Four independent schools in the greater Washington, D.C. area were selected based on an increase in student enrollment in this metropolitan area between 2013 and 2017 (Pruce & Torres, 2017), on the researcher's personal proximity, and on the schools' submission of teacher turnover statistics to DASL. Each participating school was assigned a letter code (A, B, C, and D) to identify the school and to ensure anonymity. These schools represented the majority of the various distinguishing characteristics of independent schools – that is, day vs. boarding, grades K–8, K–12, 9–12, and were all co-educational.

School A. School A is a Junior Kindergarten (JK; ages 4 and 5 years old) to Grade 8 co-educational day school with a total student enrollment of 207 students and approximately 36 faculty members whose main responsibilities are classroom teaching. Over the past three academic years, the school has only needed to hire three new faculty members: one in the 2015–2016 academic year, none in the 2016–2017 academic year, and two in the current 2017–2018 academic year. School A's teacher turnover has remained under 5.41% in the past three years.

School B. School B is a JK (age 4) to Grade 8 co-educational day school that follows a progressive approach to student learning by offering learning through experience and the outdoors. School B has a total student enrollment of approximately 300 students and 47 faculty members. Over the past three academic years, the school has hired 16 new community members whose main responsibilities are teaching: six were hired in 2015–2016, three in 2016–2017, and seven in 2017–2018. Teacher turnover at School B has fluctuated from 14.46% to 8.5% to 18.42%, respectively, over the course of three years. Two of the seven faculty members in their first year will not return to School B for a second year of service.

School C. School C is a JK (ages 4 and 5) to Grade 12 co-educational day school with a religious affiliation on two campuses, one for JK to Grade 5 and another for Grade 6 to Grade 12. For this study, the 6–12 campus was researched. The total student enrollment for JK–12 is approximately 1,000 students with 590 students and approximately 76 teaching faculty members on the 6–12 campus. Over the last three years, the 6–12 campus has hired 26 new faculty members whose main responsibilities are teaching: seven were hired in 2015–2016, 13 in 2016–2017, and six in 2017–2018. Overall, School C's turnover has remained between 16 and 20%.

School D. School D is a Grade 9 to Grade 12 co-educational boarding school with a religious affiliation. Total student enrollment is approximately 440 students (including international students) and approximately 55 full-time teaching faculty members. In the past three academic years, School D has hired 21 new faculty members whose main responsibilities include teaching: eight were hired in 2015–2016, 11 in 2016–2017, and two in 2017–2018. School D experienced an increasing percentage in teacher turnover from 2015–2016 to 2016–2017 (14.63%

and 20.3% respectively), with a drastic decrease in turnover in 2017–2018 of only 3.6%. One of the two new faculty members will not return for the 2018–2019 year.

As noted, to identify the faculty participants, purposive sampling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) was used, in particular the technique of criterion sampling. The choice of criterion sampling permitted identification of only those faculty members new to their independent school to better understand the participants' perceptions of the organizational induction program's influence on their professional satisfaction (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Fenton-Smith & Torpey, 2013; Heineke et al., 2014; LoCascio et al., 2016; Westling et al., 2006). All 17 new faculty members in their first year of teaching in the 2017–2018 academic year, as well as all six administrators (School C and School D, had both an administrator and a lead induction program coordinator) at each of the four participating schools agreed to participate.

Each individual faculty participant received an assigned letter *I* (denoting *interview*) and a number code (ex. 1, 2, 3, etc.) within the participant's school code to ensure confidentiality. Administrator participants were referred to as "Admin" from each school, with an additional "1" or "2" attached to "Admin" if there were two or more people associated with the running of the induction program. The codes associated with each school or participant were maintained in an electronic file, and this key was stored away from the data so as to not compromise confidentiality or anonymity. Table 1 shows a visual representation of all 17 faculty participants and the six administrators across schools in the study.

Table 1

Participants

Participants	Number of Participants from School A	Number of Participants from School B	Number of Participants from School C	Number of Participants from School D	Total Number of Participants in Study
Administrator	1	1	2	2	6
Faculty	2	7	6	2	17

Specific sample characteristics of faculty members' demographic information are not included here as the data analysis did not reveal any themes across demographic information.

Data Sources and Data Collection

Data sources included an official document review and semi-structured interviews for administrators, as well as for newly-hired faculty members, to as part of the data collection.

Official document review. Administrator(s) in charge of developing, implementing, and overseeing the organizational induction program at each independent school were asked to provide the researcher copies of official school documents for review. Such documents included materials provided to candidates during the recruitment and interview phases prior to their offer of employment; general school policy documents; statement of philosophy and mission statement;

documents describing the purpose, audience, duration, intensity, and components of the induction program (e.g., whether mentorship is a part of the program, how mentors are assigned to new faculty, or whether they receive training or compensation); and materials related to all phases of the induction program itself, along with any other documents the administrator deemed important in understanding the nuances of the induction program at the school. These official documents were collected at the time of the administrator interviews.

Semi-structured interviews. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with the same administrator(s) who provided official documents for review and with new faculty members. These interviews were conducted in the 2018 Spring semester after employment agreements for 2018–2019 were offered, so as not to influence faculty participants' decisions to return to their school for a second year of service or not. Interviews were conducted with all participants in their natural work setting and environment and all participants signed an *Informed Consent Form*. Two semi-structured interview protocols were developed and followed during each interview to ensure continuity across schools and participants: one specific to induction program administrators and another based on the researcher's own experiences as an independent school educator having participated in induction programs for faculty members. The topics covered in the faculty interviews included asking participants to describe the components of the induction program, provide clarity on if it helped them to integrate into their new school environment, and mention whether there were any detractions from the integration. Additionally, participants were asked whether the induction program contributed to their overall job satisfaction in their first year at the school.

Before faculty interviews began, faculty members were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. Follow-up questions were asked and elaboration of responses was encouraged as administrators described the components of the induction program and as faculty members narrated their experience in the induction program and new themes emerged. Each interview took place solely with the researcher and each participant from each school. For schools that had more than one administrator, separate interviews were conducted with each administrator. Interviews were audio-recorded to reflect accuracy in analysis and transcription, and written notes of any non-linguistic observations were made during these interviews.

Data Analysis

Analyses conducted. As this study was a comparative case study, the within-case analysis for each school, A, B, C, and D, respectively, was performed first by following an open-coding procedure. As Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggested, the researcher read through all data points (i.e., documents and interview transcriptions) without taking notes to get a sense of the data as a whole, then read through the documents while coding, and identified specific codes along the way, in alignment with the research questions and using ATLAS.ti as a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). Afterwards, the codes were grouped into larger categories as they emerged, with the assistance of ATLAS.ti. There were 135 total codes applied across the 23 transcriptions imported into ATLAS.ti. Emergent themes were noted at the time of each analysis. The four within-case analyses were then followed by a cross-case analysis to build abstractions across schools as Merriam (2009) suggested.

Within-case analyses. Each of the following four cases (Schools A, B, C, and D) was analyzed as its own comprehensive case by understanding the elements of each school's induction program and the faculty experiences within that program. A summary of each induction program

was developed from open-coding the interviews conducted with administrators and the summaries were sent to those individuals at each school to ensure accuracy. Any necessary edits were made at that time in collaboration with the participating schools and the researcher. Summaries of each school's program were sent to participating schools *prior* to conducting individual faculty semi-structured interviews, with the exception of School A (due to all interviews being scheduled on the same day), to ensure understanding of the induction program from the administration's perspective was correct.

Once individual faculty member interviews were completed, transcriptions of participant interview responses within each school were open-coded, starting with the first participant to add to each school's baseline coding scheme. Revisions to the coding scheme were made as necessary as themes emerged. Coding was applied in ascending order by participant code within each school (I1, I2, etc.) until each participant within a school had been coded. All participants in School A were coded before moving to participants in School B and so forth. A summary of each faculty member's experience was drafted and a list of the codes applied with their frequency was created. Once all participants' summaries were drafted for each school, an aggregate summary for each school was generated to ensure participant anonymity and confidentiality. Abstractions were built across participants to contribute to the understanding of the aggregate experience within the program, and these allowed for themes to emerge across participants. Each school had a list of emerged themes and faculty experience responses that were uploaded into ATLAS.ti for data analysis and storage. Table 2 shows a visual representation of the programs offered by Schools A, B, C, and D, respectively.

Table 2

Program Components

Component	School A	School B	School C	School D
Orientation			Adult Weekend	
	Previous Closing Meetings		Responsive Classroom Training	Summer
		Summer		
	Summer		Collaboration Time	Orientation Opening Meetings
		Orientation Opening Meetings		Orientation Opening Meetings
Induction	Meetings with Administrator	Progressive Education Course		Weekly New Faculty Cohort Meetings
	Mentorship	Mentorship		Professional Development Opportunities
	Evaluation	Meetings with Administrator	Weekly New Faculty Cohort Meetings	Mentorship
		Evaluation		Meetings with Administrator
				Drop-by Meetings

Cross-case analysis. A cross-case analysis comparing all induction programs and faculty experiences within those programs was warranted in order to make generalizations across cases

(Merriam, 1998) and to fully answer the research questions. The researcher compared each school's induction program with the other participating schools in the study to analyze the different components of each program to see whether any similarities emerged across schools. Similarly, emerged themes from faculty experiences in the induction program within schools were compared to each other and analyzed across schools as suggested in qualitative data analysis (Bazeley, 2013). Both the comparison of induction program components and faculty experiences were achieved by comparing each school's list of emerged themes and faculty experiences across schools through tracking codes in ATLAS.ti and noting each code's use across schools.

Findings

The cross-case analysis revealed six similarities across induction programs and seven themes across faculty experiences, with the concept of mentorship emerging from both.

Similarities Across Programs

Four of the similarities across programs were shared between three of the four schools: summer (A, B, D), meetings with administrators (A, B, D), meeting as a cohort (B, C, D), and evaluation (A, B, C), while all four schools shared orientation and mentorship as components of their respective induction programs.

Similarities 1–4. *Summer, Meetings with administrators, Meeting as a cohort, and Evaluation*, respectively, are not shared by all four schools and therefore are not elaborated upon here.

Similarity 5: Orientation. All four schools had orientation for their new faculty members. All schools covered essentially the same topics, including reviewing the mission or philosophy of the school and distributing school-issued laptops with some technological-specific training. The orientation in Schools B, C, and D was conducted in the same manner: specific days were dedicated to solely working with new employees prior to the entire faculty returning for the next academic year. School A's orientation was individualized to the new faculty member's needs.

Similarity 6: Mentorship. All four schools placed an emphasis on having a mentorship program. Each school's approach to the development of its mentorship program is as follows:

School A: Mentors did not receive training, a stipend, or a reduction in duties. New faculty members were paired with people they would naturally see each day.

School B: Mentors did not receive training nor a reduction in duties, but they did receive a modest stipend and a checklist of actions to complete with their mentees. Mentors and mentees were paired through a common trait, such as personality, stage in life, or department. Mentors were expected to check-in with their mentees at least biweekly.

School C: Mentors received a job description, training, checklist of actions to complete with the mentees, and a stipend. They did not receive a reduction in duties. Mentor-mentee pairings were either done within departments or within divisions. Mentors were expected to meet with their mentees weekly.

School D: Mentors did not receive a job description, training, stipend, reduction of duties, or specified requirements as to the frequency or duration of meeting with their mentees. Mentors were paired with mentees based on "fit" and the mentees' perceived needs.

Themes Across Experiences

Three of the themes across faculty experiences were shared by Schools B and C and the remaining four themes were shared by all four schools' faculty members. No themes emerged across faculty participants' demographic information. It is worth noting that Schools B and C had the highest number of faculty participants – seven and six respectively – which may have contributed to the emergence of the three preliminary themes.

Themes 1–3. *Previous connections to the school*, *Observations as professional growth*, and *Bottom-up approach*, respectively, were not shared by all four schools and therefore are not elaborated upon here.

Theme 4: Belief of intended purpose. Faculty members from across all four schools felt strongly that the purpose of the induction program was to become a part of the school community and for the most part they thought their respective experience was effective in matching their school's intended purpose. For instance, *Interviewee 10* described the intended purpose as: "I think they want staff to feel a part of the community.... I feel like it's to make us part of a better team, a better community."

Theme 5: Positive school culture. Faculty members in all four schools described the nature of the school culture as being so supportive and positive that they had the sense that they could ask anyone – including mentors, veteran teachers, department members, and administrators – questions they might have had in order to continue their integration into the school community. *Interviewee 16* stated: "I feel like I've been a part of the community even though it is my first year, I feel like I've been a part of it for longer and people make me feel very welcome as well." This type of school culture contributed to faculty job satisfaction.

Theme 6: Mentorship. Faculty members across all four schools described mentorship as being helpful in their integration into the school community. However, some faculty members described their formal mentorship pairing as being the most helpful part of the induction program, while others stated that if the formal mentor was located outside of their respective department, the informal mentorship relationships they developed with department members or department chairs were the most helpful part of their integration. Of those who found formal mentorship to be most effective, *Interviewee 3* stated:

Yeah, so I'm really lucky and my mentor is in my department, she's also an [subject] teacher... So, that has been so fantastic because, I mean, not only has she been great in, every morning she touches base, like, How you doing? and How you feeling?.... So, having someone in my department has been so great, so helpful.... Having the mentor aspect has been so, so good. It's really been such a valuable resource.

Conversely, others preferred the informal mentorship relationships developed: "I think it's that. Our department, I'm very pleased. There's a lot of informal mentorship going on in the [subject] department. I feel like I can turn to them for so many things that the formal mentor program hasn't been as big of a need for me...." (*Interviewee 4*). Informal relationships developed through shared content, approach to teaching the same subject, or physical geographic proximity to each other during the school day. These relationships soon replaced the formal mentorship relationship, and consequently the formal mentorship meeting frequency quickly declined.

Theme 7: Building relationships. Faculty members in all four schools described that although mentorship was helpful and contributed to their successful integration into the community, it was the school's overall culture and the relationships they built among new faculty members within their cohorts, veteran teachers, and administrators that contributed to their overall

job satisfaction. A statement from *Interviewee 2* helped to highlight this theme: “Yeah, I think getting solidarity with colleagues is key, and this has a healthy colleague community so that I feel pretty empowered and like we have each other’s backs.”

Across all four schools, a positive, supportive, and collaborative culture, coupled with the opportunities to build relationships with other new faculty members, mentors, colleagues, and administrators, contributed to faculty members’ overall job satisfaction. However, these factors cannot be separated completely from school contexts in general, where school culture and the opportunities within that culture to build relationships are not synonymous with the induction program. According to several faculty responses, the specific details of the induction program offerings did not play a significant role in overall job satisfaction, including the three faculty members (two from School B and one from School D) who are not returning to their schools for a second year of service in the 2018–2019 academic year. For example, *Interviewee 15* stated: “...I think that just my experience with different teachers and how helpful they’ve been and how open they’ve been is part of what has contributed to my overall job satisfaction, but I don’t know if that’s specific to the induction program.” Induction programs, however, provided the avenues and formal structure for faculty members to begin their integration into the school’s community.

Discussion

The previous section described the six similarities in induction programs and seven themes that emerged from faculty responses across schools revealed through within-case and cross-case analyses. This section discusses the study’s findings and revisits the known literature.

Similarities Across Programs

Across schools, the two overlapping elements were orientation (as part of induction) and mentorship. The participating schools each approached mentorship from a similar purpose, however, each school’s development of the mentorship program varied across schools. In delving deeper into the issue, it was questioned whether the mentorship program existed simply to develop the mentee (new faculty member), or whether it was seen as a reciprocal relationship where both mentor and mentee were able to grow together professionally as seen in *Interviewee 5*’s comment from a previous experience as a mentor in a former school:

I was a mentor later, but you work less hours and you really work with being a mentor, it’s not a side thing. It’s a very, very central thing for your day, in your day...the mentor needs to have the time to put into actually helping that new teacher to transition to school... It’s working, it’s being prepared, it’s like being a teacher for a teacher.

The topic of mutual benefit was not elaborated upon greatly during the interviews. A lack of investment in the training of mentors, along with compensation for mentor *and* mentee, a reduction in typical responsibilities, and the formal opportunity for both the mentor and mentee to provide feedback upon completion of the mentorship, restricted the effectiveness of the mentorship programs at these schools.

Themes Across Experiences

Faculty members in all four participating schools expressed both school culture and building relationships as factors contributing to their overall job satisfaction. However, defining these

conclusions as solely pertaining to the induction program the schools offered would be inaccurate. Even though school culture must be an element of the induction program according to LoCascio et al. (2016) and Fenton-Smith and Torpey (2013), it is not strictly and uniquely only found in the induction program. One element that could truly be separated from general contexts – the element of mentorship, which was intricately associated with the induction program – was identified by faculty members as being helpful in their integration into the school community.

Job satisfaction and school culture. Faculty members expressed that the crux of their overall job satisfaction came from a supportive school culture and the relationships built across their first year at the school through: having supportive co-workers and administrators, having the opportunity to professionally grow from observations (Schools B and C specifically), having the opportunity to contribute to determining what was covered during new teacher weekly cohort meetings and the progressive education course on a limited basis, and the opportunity to network with each other. These experiential elements align closely to what current research already says is obligatory to meet teachers' professional needs and overall job satisfaction: (1) creating policies demanding a culture that shares responsibility and supports learning (Shockley et al., 2013), (2) collaboration and trust (Miller, 2010), and (3) opportunities, especially for new teachers, to observe others, be observed, and analyze their own practice and network (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Elmore, 2002; Kelley, 2004). Through the present study, however, school culture in and of itself was revealed as a far more complex topic that is not easy to separate from general school contexts and will require further research.

Mentorship. Based on this study's findings, teachers who developed a relationship with colleagues, whether formally or informally, and who were supported in that relationship through school culture tended to have more overall job satisfaction. It appears that programs offering mentors training or a modest stipend did not make a difference in new faculty's experiences with their mentors, however, the number of participants limited this takeaway, and therefore a generalization on this point could not be made. Additionally, without mentors' narratives describing their experiences within the mentorship program which formed part of this study, it could not be concluded that training or a stipend were helpful or not in experiences within the mentorship program from either the perspectives of the mentors or mentees.

The current faculty members' experiences slightly contradict previous literature that stated how teachers who have been formally paired with a mentor have reported being supported, having more job satisfaction, and wishing to return to their present position (Britt-Stevens, 2014; McCamley, 2014), in addition to learning more classroom management strategies and about school and district culture (McCamley, 2014; Ogunyemi, 2013). Although faculty members described learning classroom management strategies through the induction program components (e.g., observations and weekly new teacher cohort meetings), based on this study's findings, teachers who developed a relationship with colleagues, whether formally or informally, and who were supported in that relationship through school culture tended to have more overall job satisfaction.

Implications for Practice

The following implications for practice are intended for schools to preserve or encourage modifications to their induction programs and retain them for future years of service were made based on the emerged themes from the study and faculty participants' suggestions.

School Culture

Schools should create an open, supportive environment for all employees, encourage trust and collaboration across faculty and administrators, and create time in the paid work day to connect with each other (Darling- Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Elmore, 2002; Kelley, 2004; Miller, 2010; Shockley et al., 2013).

Induction Program Components

Summer. Schools should be mindful of what they ask new teachers to do before the contractual year has begun and consider an appropriate way of recognizing their time and effort.

Meetings with administrators. Contact time with administrators is important for new faculty members to feel supported as they transition into the community.

Meeting as a cohort. Cohort meetings need to be seen as protected time not only to learn more about the school's culture, but also for new faculty members to share in the experience they are all having. Faculty members appreciate the opportunity to contribute to or develop the agenda of these meetings; a bottom-up approach can go a long way at times. If meetings are to happen outside of the paid workday, schools should ensure the effectiveness and productivity of the time spent together where faculty members are missing time in other aspects of their life. These meetings should also be a safe-space.

Evaluation/observations. Schools should make observations valuable to new faculty members by both observing and being observed by their peers, mentors, and administrators and provide feedback in a constructive, approachable way so that the faculty members learn from the process rather than resent it. Schools should also consider implementing peer observation as a tool for professional growth that all faculty should participate in doing.

Orientation. Schools should frontload school-specific terminology (words or abbreviations used at the school) during new faculty orientation so that there is a common understanding of references from the beginning of the faculty member's tenure. Schools should ensure revisiting the mission and philosophy of "how we do things here" annually with *all* faculty members, not only with new faculty members. Schools should remember that the information received at the beginning of the year by new faculty members is a bombardment of information that can cause a "cognitive overload" and that revisiting the same information periodically throughout their first year might be warranted.

Mentorship. Schools should consider the value placed on mentorship within the induction program. To do this, they should consider the following basic requirements needed to develop an appropriate mentorship program, which include (1) defining the purpose and goals of mentorship within the school's culture (including the professional growth that both mentor and mentee should gain), (2) articulating the mentor's role, 3) providing mentors with appropriate training and a curriculum, (4) compensating mentors either financially or with a reduction in other work-related duties, (5) pairing mentors and new faculty appropriately, and (6) including both mentors and new faculty members in the evaluation process at the official close of the mentorship. However, building this type of program has its costs monetarily, in both time and energy.

General. Schools should reflect on all the existing components of the current induction program. Is the school providing enough to fully integrate new faculty members? Schools should give new faculty members the ongoing opportunity to honestly evaluate the induction program. Schools should ensure that each individual is receiving what he or she needs, not just what the

entire new faculty cohort needs as a group. While there might be several points of contact available to new faculty members, schools should consider the communication happening across support systems. For instance, does the mentor know what information is being disseminated in weekly meetings as a cohort and vice versa?

Attrition

Schools should not ignore high levels of teacher turnover; such behavior is not fiscally responsible, and it inhibits the development and maintenance of a learning community (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Implications for Continued Scholarship

The results of the study indicate that novice integration into school culture and the building of relationships within that culture contributed to faculty job satisfaction, although mentorship has been repeatedly mentioned as a helpful resource in a faculty member's integration into the school community. Therefore, it remains inconclusive that induction programs alone contribute to faculty job satisfaction.

Additional Instruments

While official documents and semi-structured interviews were used in the present study, future researchers should employ observations as an additional instrument in an effort to separate general school contexts (e.g., school culture) from faculty experiences in the induction program and consider applying a mixed-methods approach to deepen the understanding of faculty experiences in induction programs.

Further Considerations

The following further considerations are offered to researchers to continue to understand the true influence of induction programs on faculty job satisfaction in their experience to a new school:

- (1) Researchers should consider studying schools in the public and private sectors that have induction programs offered on a voluntary basis so that data can be collected from both participants in the program and non-participants. New insights can be gained if it is possible to compare the influence that a program has on an individual who chooses to participate voluntarily versus mandatory participation.
- (2) Mentors should have the opportunity to share their experience as mentors within the induction programs: this can be done either as an additional participant pool in a similar study as the present study or a separate study. In fact, all persons who form part of the support system for new faculty should be included in another iteration of this study in order to have a fuller and multi-faceted view of the induction programs.
- (3) Further and more accurate statistics and documentation on teacher turnover in independent schools are needed to determine the real severity of teacher turnover and its subsequent impact on the independent school world.

- (4) Further research should be conducted on the impact or influence induction programs may have on student engagement and/or achievement by studying the effects of adults integrating into school communities and how students are affected.
- (5) Further research should be conducted on isolating the influence of induction programs from general school contexts as they relate to faculty's overall job satisfaction.

Conclusion

While this study sought to determine whether induction programs in independent schools played a role in newly-hired faculty's overall job satisfaction and integration into the school community, more was revealed than induction programs playing a role. Faculty members emphasized that school culture and the opportunity to build relationships in that culture contributed to their job satisfaction, although the topic of school culture is much more complex than originally anticipated; the latter only further highlights the need for continued investigation on the influence of school culture on job satisfaction. Faculty members also mentioned mentorship – either formal or informal – as a component that assisted them in their integration into the school community. These results are a small step to gaining a better understanding of why teachers stay, migrate, or leave the teaching profession all together. The more schools can understand the reasons for which teachers are dissatisfied with the profession, the more schools can provide in efforts to attract, support and retain educators. Further research should be conducted on the impact or influence induction programs may have on student engagement and/or achievement and students' experiences in school may be greatly affected by the experiences of the adults in their school.

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Pay-for-Performance in Three Michigan School Districts: Lessons for Decision Makers

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This study explored how district leaders in three Michigan school districts reacted to a state-induced policy calling for district-implemented performance-pay for teachers in response to Race to the Top (RttT) in 2010. The study is positioned at the intersection of reform efforts and policy implementation in practice. Using a multisite qualitative approach, this study examined (primarily through interviews and document analysis) how local leaders responded to and helped shape state law. The study analyzed interview transcripts as well as publicly available documents—primarily collective bargaining agreements and district provided policies. The wide-ranging findings presented in this study illuminated what was already known about the topic: that implementing teacher compensation reforms is a complex, complicated, and thought-provoking enterprise for district leaders. The findings point toward successful actions taken by district leaders that warrant further exploration and consideration.

Keywords: Pay for performance, teacher evaluations, incentives, and Race to the Top

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The overarching purpose of this study was to understand how district leaders in three Michigan school districts understood and shaped a federally preferred, state-induced policy reform. At the time of this study, Michigan was one of only six states (the others included Florida, Hawaii, Indiana, Louisiana, and Utah) that had required performance-based pay be part of teacher compensation (Bates, 2016). This paper grappled with an important issue in the field of policymaking: school districts struggling to implement differentiated pay for teachers at the same time as teacher evaluation reform. For practicing district leaders, understanding the realities of performance-pay policies is a challenging endeavor and deservedly merits more attention in the research literature.

District leaders must be able to navigate the policy process from issue identification through implementation and eventually evaluation for continuous improvement (Fowler, 2009). The science of policy implementation has become a leading topic for school district leaders who face a constant pull of mandates at multiple levels—federal, state, and local (Albers & Pattuwage, 2017; Honig, 2006; Lyon, et al., 2018; Odden, 1991; Young & Lewis, 2015). The key question leaders face with regards to any policy change is: what happens between the making of that policy and implementation?

Without salary differentials, school district leaders, researchers, and policymakers have argued that recruiting and retaining teachers in hard-to-staff positions and in shortage subject areas (e.g., math, science, and special education) is sometimes a struggle. This paper specifically attends to how three school districts' leaders navigated this problem. After Race to the Top (RttT) in 2010, multiple state-level teacher policy changes were simultaneously directed at school district leaders in Michigan, who were responsible for realization of these policies in a changing and uncertain political context. Included among the changes made at the time was teacher compensation reform (Public Act or PA 205 of 2010 amended MCL section 380.1250 of 1976).

District leaders' decision-making processes, their attitudinal reaction related to changes in teachers' pay for job performance, and challenges faced by districts leaders were all tackled in a larger study that was part of a dissertation with a concentration in educational leadership. The attention of this paper is focused on the emergent themes from three local districts in Michigan as reported by district leaders with cross-site themes explored. Recommendations based on the results in these districts apply to Michigan policy makers, other researchers, and especially local school district leaders.

Background

In hopes of securing the additional funding as part of the first round of RttT, Michigan's Legislature made several far-reaching educational policy changes. Among the changes in 2009 were provisions to alter how teachers and principals were to be evaluated, compensated, and rewarded based on their performance (MCL 380.1250). The state performance-pay policy in Michigan represents a unique policy perspective because: (1) the state was not a winner in the first three rounds of RttT (meaning no additional funding has been provided to districts to implement the policies enacted); (2) the policy did not provide any penalty or consequence for non-compliant districts or leaders; and (3) Michigan Public Act 103 (2011) later made decisions about performance-pay a prohibited subject of bargaining (meaning school districts could not bargain the topic with teachers' unions).

Despite the debate surrounding performance-pay persisting for some time, Michigan law

required that local school districts base their staffing, compensation, and additional compensation decisions, at least in part, on factors related to job performance (student test scores or student growth percentiles). Most districts interpreted job performance to be ratings on teacher evaluation systems. Despite this, very little has been written about how school district leaders navigated policy changes resulting from RttT or other related reforms. Confounding the issue was the fact that most states, including Michigan, were unsuccessful in securing federal funding to support the changes made.

In all, only 12 states were awarded funding under RttT. Weiss (2013) noted that states, even when they were awarded funding, were largely behind in meeting the attainment goals of RttT for improving educational outcomes. The evidence to date has not determined whether RttT improved outcomes (Dragoset et al., 2016).

Michigan's Race to the Top Plan Summary (2010) outlined the state's implementation goals and procedures in key areas, but only scarcely mentioned the implementation of pay-for-performance, despite being a requirement on the U.S. Department of Education's rubric. Other than during the 2014-15 school aid year, teacher and administrator pay for job performance was not supported financially in any form by the state of Michigan. This paper follows other statewide analyses in Michigan by Van Beek (2012) and a qualitative study of nine Michigan superintendents (Tompkins, 2017) related to MCL 380.1250. This study draws on RttT policies, implementation research more generally, and the complexity of implementation (Honig, 2006).

Research Question

How did district leaders in three Michigan school districts interpret and implement pay-for-performance for teachers? The overarching study also addressed sub-questions, including if there were any lessons to be learned from the experiences of these leaders trying to implement pay-for-performance after RttT.

Literature Review

In most U.S. school districts, teachers' pay has been typically determined by a traditional or single-salary schedule, which has been determined based on educational attainment (degrees or graduate-level credits) or years-of service (district seniority). Strong support for single-salary schedules has generally been correlated with a general belief in the need for objectivity (Loeb, Miller, & Strunk, 2009). In recent years, increased pressure has emerged to differentiate pay for teachers and better identify and reward teachers for their performance. In some districts and states improving recruitment and retention of teachers through performance-based pay has been a key priority.

Other sources of policy pressure have come from those seeking to improve teacher quality by economically incentivizing better teachers to the field. Researchers, including Hanushek (2007), Odden and Kelly (2002), and Ritter and Barnett (2013), policymakers, and district leaders have strongly criticized the practice of uniformly paying teachers because the practice fails to incentivize high-performing teachers; and some school districts have reported difficulty attracting and retaining skilled teachers in hard-to-staff schools or in high-needs subjects (e.g., math, science, or special education) because all teachers must be paid on the same schedule.

Figlio and Kenny (2007) noted that the practice of paying teachers for years of service and/or completing graduate education courses has failed to promote individual achievement or excellence in teaching. Buck and Greene (2011) went even further, saying, "To be truly effective,

pay for performance must mean in education what it does in other industries — salary increases for the successful, and salary reductions, even dismissals, for poor performers” (para. 5). Adams and Heywood (2009) found only about one in seven workers in other fields—besides teaching—had received performance-based pay, and supplemental amounts were comparably inconsequential in relation to the total compensation individuals received.

In response to criticisms of current practices related to educational achievement and student performance related to teacher quality, the U.S. Department of Education launched the RttT, a federally funded competitive grant program (legislated under the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009). Among the stated goals of RttT was reforming educator compensation systems to recognize teachers better, and retain and reward the most effective teachers (with effectiveness defined through student test scores).

The federal theory of action was that if school district leaders provided the right encouragement, teachers would be incentivized to improve their performance and the performance of their students on tests would improve. Springer and Gardner (2010) noted that the largest portion of the federal RttT rubric favored states and districts that used teacher performance evaluations that included student growth combined with teacher compensation reforms to better identify highly effective teachers and reward them for their performance.

The broader preferred policy changes advocated by the U.S. Department of Education and part of the RttT application process involved four main areas: (a) adoption of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS); (b) improved data systems for tracking student achievement growth; (c) turning around the lowest-achieving schools; and (d) recruiting, rewarding, and retaining the most effective teachers.

While much has been written and studied about the influence of performance-pay related to teachers and their ability to impact student achievement, very little attention has been placed at the school district level to help leaders implement and better understand pay-for-performance for teachers (Gratz, 2009; Johnson & Papay, 2009; Rice & Malen, 2017). Most of the attention has been focused on the policy formation and research/impact stages. Paying for performance in the educational reform context presented during this study represented a massive change in practice for school districts, as well as their leaders and teachers.

The key issue identified in the research regarding performance-pay for teachers is the assessment of performance, which is restricted in some places around the country by collective bargaining agreements. Past research showed that teacher compensation reforms by themselves did not improve student achievement in schools without proper supports (Fryer, 2011). Fryer’s research on one teacher incentive-based program in New York found no evidence that teacher incentives by themselves improved student performance, attendance, or graduation rates. Another noteworthy study, also from New York City, found that incentives were unlikely to motivate staff to make changes (Marsh et al., 2011).

In the most comprehensive study of pay-for-performance policy to date, Springer et al. (2010) found teacher incentives had little effect on student achievement. Springer et al. hypothesized that factors related to using student test scores to determine pay, a lack of buy-in from teachers, and a lack of consensus over how best to measure teacher effectiveness were explanations for the negative findings.

Marsh et al. (2011), in their two-year study, investigated how the program was interpreted and implemented (similar to the research-design for this study). According to Marsh et al., issues that seemed to limit successful implementation of the differentiated compensation reforms were: (a) a lack of awareness of the program by the staff, (b) the seeming insignificance of the incentive

itself, and (c) a perceived lack of fairness by some staff.

Prior research on performance-pay in Michigan has been restricted because of the changing policy context regarding teacher evaluation reform at the state level. Debates about revising teacher evaluations have been rekindled annually since first being revised in 2009. Tompkins (2017) and Van Beek (2012), in separate but related studies, found that district leaders in some Michigan school districts chose to evade the implementation of the pay-for-performance policy (MCL 380.1250) rather than impose the topic.

The literature presented a gap between pay-for-performance in theory and whether the practice was actually comprehended (or desired) by those responsible for implementing the policy locally. Paying for performance in the education reform context at the time was something that some district leaders lacked any prior knowledge, experience, or desire to implement.

Past research presented only a handful of Michigan school districts where traditional salary schedules were modified or altered to reward teachers more directly for their performance (Tompkins, 2017; Van Beek, 2012). In a legal presentation to Michigan school business officials, Ruga (2015) recognized that only five school districts in Michigan (four Intermediate School Districts or ISDs and one traditional school district) had crafted what could be considered an *alternative salary* schedule.

An alternative salary schedule was best described as one that did not primarily reward teachers for seniority or educational attainment as the determination of pay for teachers. In his analysis, Van Beek (2012) found just 23 districts out of 104 teacher contracts analyzed had bargained additional compensation into teacher contracts (with some paying as little as \$1 for performance), while Tompkins identified just three out of nine district superintendents in his study had implemented alternative salary schedules.

Conceptual Framework

Understanding how policy reforms have prospered, struggled, or evolved at the individual or school level provided the broad structure for this examination within three local school districts in Michigan. The central position of this paper was not a straightforward question about whether pay-for-performance worked, but rather a closer look at how leaders in three districts implemented teacher-related policies and how the leaders interpreted the changes. The premise was that the local aspect of a policy needed to be studied more carefully for leadership development and improved decision-making.

The theoretical underpinnings of this study included Honig's (2006) *policy, people, and places* framework, which provide a three-dimensional model, based on individual contexts and can be utilized for studying implementation in school districts. This framework provided a solid platform for uncovering how and why policies were implemented (or not) in the three Michigan school districts. This has sometimes been described as a "bottom-up" theory focused on the K-12 context (Garces & Cogburn, 2015) because the framework spotlights the context in which policies and practices were involved, instead of whether they had worked as intended.

The specific research questions and sub-questions for the overall study dealt with the qualitative aspects of policy implementation. State legislative bodies—including Michigan—were effective in crafting legislation to meet the federally preferred goals, but ultimately the local actors had to make the policy work. As a result, local school district leaders were solicited in order to gather evidence about how pay-for-performance was really being interpreted and implemented in the three districts studied.

Other research and evaluation studies have measured performance-based pay policies for teachers against quantitative metrics like student test scores or other outcomes. This study focused on the people, in the places they worked, attempting to implement the policy. Studying implementation speaks to the qualitative parts of how successful policies are put into place or not and the circumstances involved (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984).

Honig's three-dimensional implementation theory encourages shifting the study of policy away from what was being implemented toward conditions necessary for successful implementation. She said, "policy, people and places interact to shape how implementation unfolds" (p. 10). According to Fowler (2009), a theory like Honig's represented the third generation of implementation studies, which attend to understanding the complexity of implementing policies.

The three-dimensional model rests on district leaders implementing policies in school districts. Honig (2006) sought to better understand the key dimensions of policy: (a) the goals of the policy, (b) the intended targets, and (c) the different tools to be used. She speculated, "The people who ultimately implement policy significantly mediate implementation in a wide-variety of ways that have begun to take center state in contemporary implementation studies (p. 16). In terms of places, Honig noted that the location of changes needed to be considered in a broader policy discussion because schools and communities are so tied together.

Honig (2006) stressed that the district leaders were the ones responsible for making the decisions about policies (whether to offer performance-pay and whether to include teacher in the policy development process, and how policies should be implemented). Equally, Durand, Lawson, Wilcox, and Schiller (2016), who studied the implementation of Common Core State Standards (CCSS) assessments in New York, said, "People make schools and district offices innovation-ready, and district leaders play pivotal roles" (p. 67). Durand et al. (2016) emphasized that the decision making of superintendents and other central office leaders was important to address and study during implementation efforts.

Instead of concentrating on the overall effectiveness or outcome of the policy change as a unit for analysis, this study focused on how a state-induced policy was implemented by leaders in three Michigan school districts. The research crafted by studies like this one provides valuable information for school districts leaders dealing with a mix of policies, people, and places (Honig, 2006).

Methods and Data Sources

While other important work has been done on the student achievement effects of performance-related pay or other school level outcomes, very little attention has been placed at the school district level in order to understand the complexity of district leaders implementing teacher compensation reforms and other teacher accountability policies (such as evaluation reform). This study applied a multisite qualitative case study analysis (Herriott & Firestone, 1982) to gather that perspective.

After an initial Internet search of publicly available collective bargaining agreements, a short list of districts was crafted. From that list, three districts were contacted to participate in the study. The study utilized a purposeful sample of school districts. The decision to focus deeply on the local context and the qualitative aspects of implementation in these instances was an intentional move toward a greater understanding of how school district leaders were managing the implementation of pay-for-performance in Michigan.

According to Palinkas et al. (2015), "Purposeful sampling is widely used in qualitative

research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest” (p. 533). This type of process was used to ensure a range of school districts was represented, and to illuminate three distinct instances of how school districts had either attempted to or were implementing pay-for-performance in various ways. Fowler (2009) said that, because of the speed at which education policies have previously moved from state legislatures into school districts, school district leaders must not only understand their leadership roles and responsibilities during policy implementation but also be able to use available data to become better decision makers. This study was focused on the qualitative aspects of the implementation process for performance pay policies for teachers in three school districts in Michigan. Lochmiller and Hedges (2017) supported this stance, as qualitative information research could be best utilized to study districts’ responses to a particular policy.

The primary focus of this study was on frontline central office administrators, or street-level bureaucrats, and their interpretation of the policy (Honig, 2006b; Weatherly, 1979; Wilkerson, 2012). Teacher leaders and union leaders were interviewed to get their perspective on the policy changes. Weatherly (1979) that these individuals (the districts’ leaders) were important to studying policy implementation, because implementers must not only carry out policies directed at the state or national level, but they must navigate and interpret their local situations during implementation.

The policies included for this study were the local documents (primarily the districts’ Collective Bargaining Agreements or CBAs) that recognized teachers’ performance for pay in three Michigan school districts as well as the overarching revised state policy crafted by the state legislature to meet the requirements of RttT. Yin (2003) listed documents among the six sources of evidence for qualitative research. According to Yin, documents corroborated and in some instances augmented (which was the situation for this study) the evidence gathered from the in-depth interviews.

The documents were reviewed to satisfy a variety of research goals, including identification of the districts, examination of the policies, and interpretation of data in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and further develop empirical knowledge (Bowen, 2009). The documents came directly from the districts as well as state legislative and administrative websites. The document analysis provided complementary information to the interviews and allowed for some interpretation around the topic.

Data for this study were based primarily on 15 in-depth, semi-structured interviews with school district leaders and an analysis of documents from collective bargaining agreements. The approach to the in-depth interviews was guided by Seidman (2013), who said of interviewing should include a specific focus on the experience of individual people of the organization or process being carried out. The interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder. Each interview was transcribed verbatim and coded against a research question for each district (this was done using electronic software). The codes were developed inductively using priori themes.

A second round of coding, based on content analysis, was done by hand completed based on four overarching themes developed during the first round of coding. Additional data included the researcher’s notes and journals from each interview. Member checking was used, with the superintendent and teacher union leader in each district reviewing the findings for their district and sent an email indicating that they found no inaccuracies with the reporting of the findings (including themes and recommendations).

The interviews provided rich description through the participants’ perspectives of three local efforts to implement performance-pay policy in Michigan. Participants included: (1) the three

superintendents (two in traditional public school districts and one Intermediate School District or ISD superintendent); (2) five Central Office administrators (including: legal services, business and finance, human resources, and curriculum and instruction); (3) three building administrators; and (4) four teacher leaders (three current union presidents and one recently retired union president).

The places for this study included three Michigan school districts, identified under pseudonyms as *Lighthouse*, *Lakeside*, and *Riverside*. Throughout the paper, the districts were only described under those pseudonyms. All three districts chosen for participating in this study were located within a seven-county region surrounding metropolitan Detroit, Michigan. The Southeast Michigan Council of Governments (SEMCOG) estimated in July 2015 that the total population of the seven-county region was around 4.7 million people, which represented about 48% of the overall state population.

For this study, the Lighthouse district was best described as an older, inner-ring traditional public school district or local education agency (LEA), and was closest (out of the three districts) to the urban center of Detroit. The Lakeside district was best described as a traditional suburban public school district or LEA, but the district was in a newer-developed outer-ring district. Meanwhile, the Riverside district was an intermediate school district, one of only 56 in Michigan, with a different governance and service model structure from the two other districts included in this study.

The inclusion of Riverside provided an opportunity to study the policy implementation process from the lens of school district leaders who work at the county level. Riverside, because of its unique approach to performance-pay for teachers, was often held up by policymakers as a model for replication.

Findings

The overall results of this study indicated a feeling of ambiguity among school district leaders in three school districts toward performance-pay. After interviewing 15 district leaders across the three districts (five in each district) and reviewing the collective bargaining agreements, the evidence indicated that only two of the three districts in this study were actively implementing pay-for-performance schemes at the time of the study.

Compliance with state law was the primary motivation behind the local enactment of policies. Most leaders did not believe that the small rewards included in the policies would change teaching practice or student outcomes—they simply felt the need to follow state law and make the changes required. There were several limitations to this study, including concern about: the number of sites studied (only three for this study); the use of purposeful sampling, which reduced complexity at the expense of representativeness; and the time spent at each site was reduced because of multisite data collection.

District-level Findings

Lighthouse. Responding to the state policy, the district chose to maintain a single-salary schedule that paid teachers for educational attainment and years of service. To comply with state law, the district negotiated a performance-pay clause where teachers would be paid just \$64 if they were rated as *effective* or *highly effective* on their overall teacher evaluation. Based on interview responses, the \$64 per eligible teacher was not an arbitrary amount, but was purposely computed from a district-wide healthcare account that was phased out. To comply with the law, this district

recognized available funds in its budget for one year and paid all of its teachers for their performance in that school year. Because of ongoing budget difficulties, the district chose not to pay the \$64 after the initial negotiations.

Lakeside. In the second district for this study, the school district created a \$100 stipend for teachers who had achieved an annual evaluation rating of *effective* or *highly effective*. *Minimally effective* teachers in Lakeside were provided an opportunity to earn performance compensation if they participated in an additional 16 hours of professional development prescribed by the district. This was something that was common in past research studies in Michigan. According to the respondents, the district enacted the policy simply to be compliant with the law—no study or investigation was done to ensure its effectiveness. Yet still, the district leaders reported that they had previously sought for a way to increase attendance at professional development workshops, and the policy was expected to help the district’s *minimally effective* teachers by offering an incentive to attend sessions.

Riverside. Unique among the districts studied in this paper, the Riverside district implemented a completely revised teacher salary schedule for its teachers after RttT. Riverside’s alternative salary schedule mirrored a traditional salary schedule, except that the columns in the schedule were based on effectiveness ratings instead of educational attainment (standard in many collective bargaining agreements around the country). The three columns (*novice*, *effective*, and *highly effective*) replaced Bachelors, Masters, and Masters Plus 30 columns. On the previous salary grid, the only way to be in the far right column was to take additional credits. On the new scale *any* teacher with three years of high effective ratings could to the right without earning additional credits.

For teachers to advance on the salary schedule, they would need to earn effective or highly effective ratings on revised teacher evaluations. Kolbe and Strunk (2012) described this type of policy as an *alternative salary schedule*. According to Kolbe and Strunk, “[an] alternative schedule may provide selected teachers a higher starting wage and larger pay increases as they proceed along the schedule’s steps and lanes” (p. 9).

Riverside’s policy still looked very much like a traditional salary schedule, but the district’s pay scale rewarded teachers for their performance and placed them on an alternative schedule aligned with performance evaluations (eliminating pay for degrees and complying with the state law). According to Willis and Ingle (2016), the type of policy in Riverside could be considered a *performance schedule*. This type of schedule looks like a traditional salary schedule, “but the years-of-experience criterion is replaced by some form of performance index. As teachers meet performance levels they move up the pay scale” (p. 15). In Riverside, teachers have to maintain their effectiveness ratings to advance on the years of service scale.

One teacher union leader who participated in the study said that the plan was proposed in theory before, but the teachers were not interested in the changes at the time. The changing state policies and diminished negotiating power of teachers’ unions had affected the teachers’ willingness to even discuss alternative forms of compensation.

Several administrators indicated that, despite the law, they were most interested in finding ways to pay their teachers more for their performance in the classroom in an effort to eliminate the need for additional college education classes and put more money in the hands of the most effective teachers. They wanted to pay teachers for other reasons (besides those in the traditional salary schedule). Many of Riverside’s teachers entered the profession through non-traditional routes and held industry-specific endorsements that did not relate to graduate degrees or credits.

Cross-site Themes

Cross-site themes were identified for school district leaders, decision makers, and researchers seeking to learn about implementing an alternative compensation system. The following four cross-site themes were based on the perspectives of the individuals who were tasked with local implementation in three Michigan districts.

The findings suggested that:

- (a) Teacher evaluation reform likely influenced district leaders' positions on teacher compensation reform;
- (b) Each district continued to discuss and negotiate the topic (pay-for-performance) with teachers' unions despite not being required to under state law;
- (c) District leaders indicated a preference for teacher leadership opportunities, career ladders, and extra pay for extra duty to pay teachers for their performance instead of merit-based pay; and
- (d) Pay-for-performance can be accomplished but local conditions needed to be present for successful implementation in dissimilar situations.

Of importance to leaders in Michigan was the apparent difficulty isolating the topic of teacher pay-for-performance from teacher evaluation reform. In particular, and because teacher evaluation reform was tie-barred legislatively to seniority (recall and retention), state certification, and additional compensation in Michigan, teacher evaluation reform was an identified concern that had to be addressed before successful policy changes could take place. Interviews with district leaders in all three districts indicated that legal firms at the time had pressured school district leaders to use the results of teacher performance evaluations as the key measure for reward.

This placed quite a bit of stress in these districts on the role of teacher evaluations and administrators who were responsible for the evaluations. In the districts, the compensation and evaluation policies were interpreted and implemented differently; teacher performance writ large was primarily informed by annual teacher evaluations. Informing decisions related to teacher compensation reforms in the future will mean implementing teacher evaluation reforms that capture teacher performance reliably and fairly, a valid statewide evaluation model that articulates the desired performance in the classroom, and ensuring that teachers trust the evaluation process.

If nearly every teacher qualifies for the stipends or pay increases by being rated *effective* or *highly effective* (which was the case in this study), a question could be raised about whether or not the state policy has resulted in true pay-for-performance or differentiated pay. Discussing failed systems in Florida, which has encouraged pay-for-performance reforms at the district level, Matthew Springer critiqued programs like those implemented in Lighthouse and Lakeside because “this is essentially paying existing teachers more for what they’ve already been doing” (Iasevoli, 2017, para. 12).

With nearly every teacher earning merit rewards in these districts, the systems did not really recognize the highest performers. Springer noted that these policies are important because they provide teachers with extra compensation, but they were not really performance-inducing if everybody was eligible.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Recommendations for the field include: (1) the decoupling of performance evaluations for teachers from performance-based pay in Michigan (2) the implementation of enhanced career pathways for teachers through multi-tiered compensation systems based in part on state-approved advanced certification, and (3) more study in Michigan on the complications of performance pay for teachers based on teacher evaluations with regards to recruitment, retention, and development of teachers in hard-to-staff schools and subjects.

The results of this study will inform future school reform policies, policy implementation research more broadly, and can be used for additional leadership development programs studying the policy process. Additional research in this area will add to our understanding of policy implementation as well as to our knowledge of education reforms, such as performance-pay. Implementing performance-pay intersects with school district leadership, human resource management, and the politics of education more broadly. The study of pay for performance and its varied impact on the three districts and district leaders was an important topic that deserved further inquiry, potentially as related to school finance and equity issues. The questions that today's leaders must address are unfamiliar to those posed even a decade ago. There is a need to better understand how educational research mobilizes knowledge and improves the decision-making of leaders.

The findings presented in this study provide support for broadening the discussion regarding teacher compensation reform beyond just paying teachers additional stipends for their annual performance on their evaluations (as was the case in the three districts included in this study). That is, the findings from this study should be used to support reforming teacher compensation through different and multiple mechanisms, such as: by rewarding teachers for teacher leadership roles or through multi-tiered and multi-year licensure programs instead of one-year performance measures tied to evaluation ratings.

No existing research supports the rewarding of teachers for a single year's score on a performance evaluation, which is how two of the three districts in this study interpreted the policy (MCL 380.1250). By combining teacher evaluations with accountability and teacher compensation reforms, Michigan created two competing goals for districts and made teacher evaluation reform and teacher compensation reform less likely to be implemented and more likely to be disregarded locally.

One possible solution to this dilemma would be the adoption of a multi-tiered licensure system to reward teachers for their performance over multiple years. This could be done under current law by school districts or ISDs. A multi-tiered system would require multiple years of evaluations, combined with leadership opportunities and local professional development – something current practices do not reflect. What makes this an appealing situation is that Michigan now has a voluntary advanced certificate to teachers. Rewarding for an advanced certificate could be discussed at the local level as a means to comply with MCL 380.1250, and could reward teachers for their classroom performance and additional leadership activities over several years supported by a statewide certificate program.

Ambiguity regarding the application of the state policy (MCL 380.1250), which was first passed in 2010, allowed districts to implement the policy based on their local interpretation, and motivated some districts to disregard the policy altogether. Besides a lack of clarity on what constituted performance or whether the policy was required at all, an overarching concern brought forward by district leaders in this study was the importance of school funding. Even if district

leaders were in support of paying teachers based on their performance, no additional funding has been provided to help school districts make the change.

This paper addresses a key theme of leaders navigating educational politics and policy. Educators, school district leaders in particular, play wide-ranging roles including policy creators, implementers, followers, and influencers (Fowler, 2009). School district leaders (like those included in this study) shape educational policies as policy advocates, and they need to be able to navigate policy and politics in order to make better decisions. Because this study focuses on policy implementation, an often-ignored part of the policy process, this paper provides new insight into how local district leaders make decisions in a complex policy environment.

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Moral Development in a Win at All Cost Society: An Examination of Moral Knowing Development in 9th Grade Athletes

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The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the degree to which participating in strategic intervention workshops affected the level of moral knowing of 111 9th grade athletes. Results from the Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm (RSBH) Value Judgment Inventory were utilized to evaluate the effectiveness of one program. Findings and conclusions are presented on the moral knowing, social character, and moral character of workshop participants versus students who did not attend workshops. Findings suggest that explicit training had a positive impact on the moral knowing of athletes who attended the strategic intervention workshops. Conversely, there was no statistically significant difference in social and moral character components between workshop attendees and non-attendees.

Keywords: Morality, Educationally Based Athletics, Moral Knowing, Moral Development in Education

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While the development of an adolescent's moral decision-making process is often established in the home, schools also play a significant role. In many cases, this development takes place in a school's athletic program. This is particularly important considering that 53% of the 14.8 million high school students participated in some form of athletics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016; National Federation of High School Sports, 2015). These high participation rates are an opportunity for educational leaders to counteract the win at all cost mentality that is pervasive in sports culture (Ruud, 2005). Given this information, it is incumbent upon educational leaders to provide athletes with effective programs that assist with their moral development.

Increasingly, schools are called on to provide an education that attends to the academic and social development of students (deMarrais and LeCompte, 1995; Best, 2000). One component of social development is moral development. A common belief is that sports can provide opportunities for personal growth and social development (Ewing, 1997). However, recent research has suggested there is a growing trend to the contrary. Researchers have found that student-athletes engaged in cheating, trying to injure opponents, arguing with officials, and poor sportsmanship (Shields, Bredemeier, LaVoi, & Power, 2005; Martin, Gould, Ewing, 2017). Due to the nature of competition in sport, antisocial behavior may be encouraged if coaches, parents, or athletes value winning above sportsmanship and fair play (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Kvalnes and Hemmestad (2010) suggest that negative trends in the moral development of athletes could be attributed to the moral structures surrounding athletics. These structures have athletes caught between a rules-based approach where moral action is limited to the stated rules and an Aristotelian approach, which honors sportsmanship and the intent of the rules. By having a rules-based approach in athletics, organizations can create a loophole mentality (Kvalnes and Hemmestad, 2010). Findings from Rudd, Stoll, Beller, and Hahm (2009) support these findings and note that the environment of athletics has not been supportive of teaching and modeling moral knowing, moral valuing, and moral action due to limited consequences for immoral behaviors in the sport environment. To counteract this growing trend, some researchers recommend exposing athletes to explicit morality training and researching interventions to ensure that youth sport is a positive environment for all participants (Turnnidge, Cote, & Hancock, 2014; Martin, Gould, and Ewing, 2015). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of one school's effort to provide such tools through targeted workshops focused on developing student-athletes' level of moral knowing.

Review of Literature

Moral Development

Leaders select and shape the formal curriculum of educational institutions. While formal character education programs are frequently utilized in schools, an opportunity exists for moral development utilizing sports. Brunelle, Danish, and Forneris (2007) defend the notion that positive moral experiences exist in athletics when the principles are taught, organized, managed, and led in a manner consistent with those principles. This aligns with Bailey's (2006) assertion that physical activities can support social skills and behaviors when the interactions between students and their teachers, parents, and coaches are positive. Conversely, Beller and Stoll (2004) provide evidence that athletics may have a negative effect on moral development, noting that athletes score lower than their non-athletes peers on moral development and moral reasoning scores for athletic populations steadily decline from ninth grade through university age, whereas scores for non-

athletes tend to increase. Eitzen (1988) brought these competing forces together, discussing ethical principles that should guide sports along with the ethical dilemmas and structural sources that exacerbate unethical behavior. These ethical dilemmas and sources are explained at a psychological level by Kavussanu (2007), who posits that moral thought and moral action can be explained by the work of Bandura (1991) on moral disengagement. Specifically, the eight mechanisms of disengagement include moral justification, euphemistic labeling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distortion of consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame. To counteract moral disengagement and the negative forces which reinforce them, implicit and explicit approaches are useful (Turnnidge, Cote, & Hancock, 2014). One explicit approach to moral development is a formal curricular effort (O’Flaherty & McGarr, 2014).

The goal of moral development is to assist in the development of a person’s moral decision-making process (Nucci & Turiel, 2009). Licona (1983) suggests the decision-making process has three concepts that should be understood: moral knowing, moral valuing, and moral action. Moral knowing is the understanding of moral issues and how to make moral decisions. Moral valuing is individualized and is based on self-control, empathy, and consciousness. Moral action is behavior based on moral knowing and valuing. Moral knowing directly effects moral valuing and moral actions (Kohlberg, 1969; Rest, 1979). This study examines the effectiveness of a formal curriculum and an implicit approach to improving moral decision making by focusing on moral knowing.

Strategic Intervention Background

The strategic intervention workshop utilized in this study approaches the development of adolescent sports culture by training leaders, parents, coaches, and athletes (Thompson, 2014). Triple-Impact Competitor Workshops are multimedia presentations that last between 45-60 minutes and focus on the moral development of athletes. During these interactive presentations, a certified trainer provides information on three general principles; the ELM Tree of Mastery, Filling Emotional Tanks, and Honoring the Game through ROOTS. The ELM Tree of Mastery stands for **E**ffort, **L**earning/ Improvement and bouncing back from **M**istakes (Thompson, 2011). This concept was developed based on Carol Dweck’s (2006) concept of a growth mindset, which suggests that people can change their mental and physical abilities through effort. Learning is addressed in the strategic workshops via the WAG Approach. WAG stands for watch, ask and get coaching. This approach encourages athletes to adopt a “teachable spirit” (Thompson, 2011) through observation of those around them, asking questions and getting coaching when need be to assist them in the learning process. All three of these concepts are connected to the moral development of athletes. An athlete with a growth mindset will be more willing to hear and absorb the moral lessons that are taught.

The second principle that assists in the moral development of athletes is an approach to honoring the game through ROOTS (Thompson, 2011). The goal of using this acronym is to provide athletes a sense that it is their individual duty to honor the game by respecting the rules, their opponents, officials, their teammates and themselves. In essence, this workshop reinforces the Deontological philosophy that people have a duty to make the correct moral decision.

Methodology

This quantitative study evaluated the effectiveness of workshops given to secondary-level athletes.

Research Question

The overarching research question for this study was: What impact, if any, do strategic intervention workshops that focus on moral development have on moral knowing as measured by the Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm (RSBH) Value Judgment Inventory?

1. To what degree, if any, was there a statistically significant change in moral knowing for ninth-graders who attended a strategic intervention workshop that focused on moral development?
2. To what degree, if any, was there a statistically significant change in the Social Character or Moral Character components for ninth-graders who attended a strategic intervention workshop that focused on moral development?

Population and Setting

The primary data used for this research was from a secondary school (Grades 9-12) in the southeast United States. This secondary school had 454 students (240 males and 214 females). For the school year 2015-2016, the tuition was \$20,790.00. Twenty-two percent of the total student population received financial aid. The racial demographics of the total population were 74% Caucasian, 10% Latino, 8% Black, 8% Asian, Indian, or other.

Participants

The ninth-grade population in this study included 115 students, of which 111 participated in the survey. Therefore, the response rate for the survey was 96.5%. Fifty-two percent of the respondents were females, and 48% were males. Two respondents were removed from the study due to not passing the consistency check process during the ninth-grade pre-test. Eleven respondents did not participate fully (pre- and post-test), which led to their removal from the study. Ninety-eight ($n=98$) ninth-grade respondents' responses were analyzed for this research.

Data Collection

These data were collected as part of the school's efforts to assess the efficacy of a program that had been implemented for three years. Therefore, all students in the ninth grade were required to complete the instrument. One hundred and eleven ninth-graders were administered the RSBH instrument as a pre-test. During the pre-test, the group was split into two groups. Each group had forty-five minutes to complete the survey. Because there was no Wifi available for the pre-test, Scantron sheets were used to collect responses (A = Strongly Disagree, B = Disagree, C = Neutral, D = Agree and E = Strongly Agree); the demographic information was collected using a separate document, and the RSBH questions were provided via a printout of the instrument questions. To ensure both sheets (Scantron and Demographic Questionnaire) associated with each study participant were able to be tracked together, the students labeled each with the last three letters of their last name and the first three letters of their first name. The proctor read each question aloud

and provided 10 seconds after the question had been read for the participant to indicate an answer on the Scantron sheet. After the initial administration of the instrument, all ninth-grade athletes ($n = 30$) participating in sports during that season participated in a workshop. A post-test for all ninth graders was then conducted one month after the pre-test (two weeks after the conclusion of the workshop). The post-test was conducted en masse utilizing the students' individually owned iPads. Students were provided a link to access a Google Form®. This Google Form® contained the demographic questions, as well as the questions from the instrument. Again, the proctor read each question and allowed 10 seconds for participants to indicate their answers on their iPad.

Instrument

The Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm (RSBH) Value Judgment Inventory from The Center for Ethics at the University of Idaho was the instrument used to measure adolescent athletes' moral knowing for this research. The RSBH is designed to measure social and moral character within a sport context. RSBH and HBVCI measure cognitive knowing and do not predict or measure moral action (Rudd, Stoll, Beller, & Hahm, 2009). RSBH questions are derived from two components: The Hahm-Beller Value Choice Inventory- HBVCI (Hahm, Beller, & Stoll, 1989) and the Social Reasoning Index- SRI (Rudd, Mulane, & Stoll, 2010). Through a process of four pilot studies in 1999, the authors of the RSBH developed the 24-question instrument that was utilized for this study. There are 20 questions that are related to social and moral concepts, plus four consistency check questions. Questions 1-5 and 7-10 use a five-point Likert Scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree to achieve a final score on the RSBH. These questions are from the SRI and are based on the values of loyalty, teamwork, and self-sacrifice. The social component of the RSBH is about weighing a social value against a moral value and which is more important. Also, Questions 12-16, 18-22, and 24 on the RSBH use a five-point Likert Scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree to achieve a final score on HBVCI. The HBVCI is based on three values: honesty, responsibility, and justice. Because this instrument relies on the participants to self-identify which answer best describes their feelings on the question; consistency checks are aimed to ensure that the participant is fully engaged and providing an honest answer. Question numbers 6, 11, 17, and 23 act as consistency checks (Rudd, Stoll, Beller, & Hahm, 2009). To ensure the internal consistency of the instrument's questions, Cronbach Alphas were conducted. The Cronbach alpha's for the social character index ($\alpha = .72$) and moral character index ($\alpha = .88$) met acceptable levels for validity, as defined by Kline (2013).

Data Analysis

Minitab statistical software and Google Sheets® were the primary software packages used to analyze the survey data in this research. The scores for each series of questions on the social index and moral index of the instrument ranged from 5-50 combining for a total score of 50-100 for the entire instrument. When interpreting the instrument scores, a higher mean score will indicate a more Deontic approach is used when making moral decisions.

The first step in data analysis began with the scoring of the consistency check questions in Google Sheets. The Google Sheet, with all student data, was formatted using the RSBH Scoring Rubric to determine if the students passed the consistency check process. After the consistency check answers were scored and a determination had been reached, whether to include the participant's answers in the study, the data of those students who passed the consistency checks

were imported into Minitab for further analysis based on this study's research questions. Once the data was imported in Minitab, the data for both the ninth-grade were analyzed using a Welch Test followed by a Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison.

The Welch Test is a conservative style of ANOVA that assumes that each group's standard deviation (*SD*) is different as opposed to a traditional ANOVA that averages the *SD* of the multiple groups being compared. This statistical test was chosen due to the differing sample size of each group being compared and the ninth-grade group comparing more than two groups; athletes, students involved in service clubs, and students who reported not being involved in any extra-curricular activity.

The statistical significance (α) was set at 5%. For each Welch Test conducted, the null hypothesis was (H_0) = all means are equal with the alternative hypothesis (H_1) = at least one mean is different. Once the p-Value was determined, a Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison was conducted to determine if the change was positive or negative in nature. The Games-Howell was utilized due to the *N* for each group varied in size.

Limitations

The limitations of this study include a small sample size, self-reported data, and additional factors that may influence moral decision making. Based on the small sample size, the results of this study may not be generalizable. Due to the self-reporting nature of the instrument, unknown biases may affect outcomes. Finally, additional contextual factors that may influence moral knowing, such as religious beliefs, socioeconomic background, other educational experiences, or other demographic characteristics were not controlled for in this study. As such, these untested variables may have influenced the moral knowing of respondents.

Results

The following section will report the findings of the Welch Test and subsequent post hoc procedure, Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison, for each of the research questions of this study. For each Welch Test conducted, the null hypothesis was (H_0) = all means are equal with the alternative hypothesis (H_1) = at least one mean is different. The significance level (α) was 0.05.

Research Question 1

The first research question guiding this study was: To what degree, if any, was there a statistically significant change in moral knowing for ninth- graders that attended a strategic intervention workshop that focused on moral development? To answer this research question, a Welch Test analysis of variance of the mean difference between the pre and post instrument scores of ninth grade athletes, non-athletes, and service club participants took place to determine if there were any differences between the mean scores of the three groups. Results of this ANOVA can be seen in Table 1. With a $F(2, 56.543) = 5.340$ and $p = 0.007$, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was statistically significant evidence that the mean score is different among the groups.

Table 1: Welch Test analysis of variance of the mean difference between the pre and post instrument scores of ninth grade athletes, non-athletes, and service club participants.

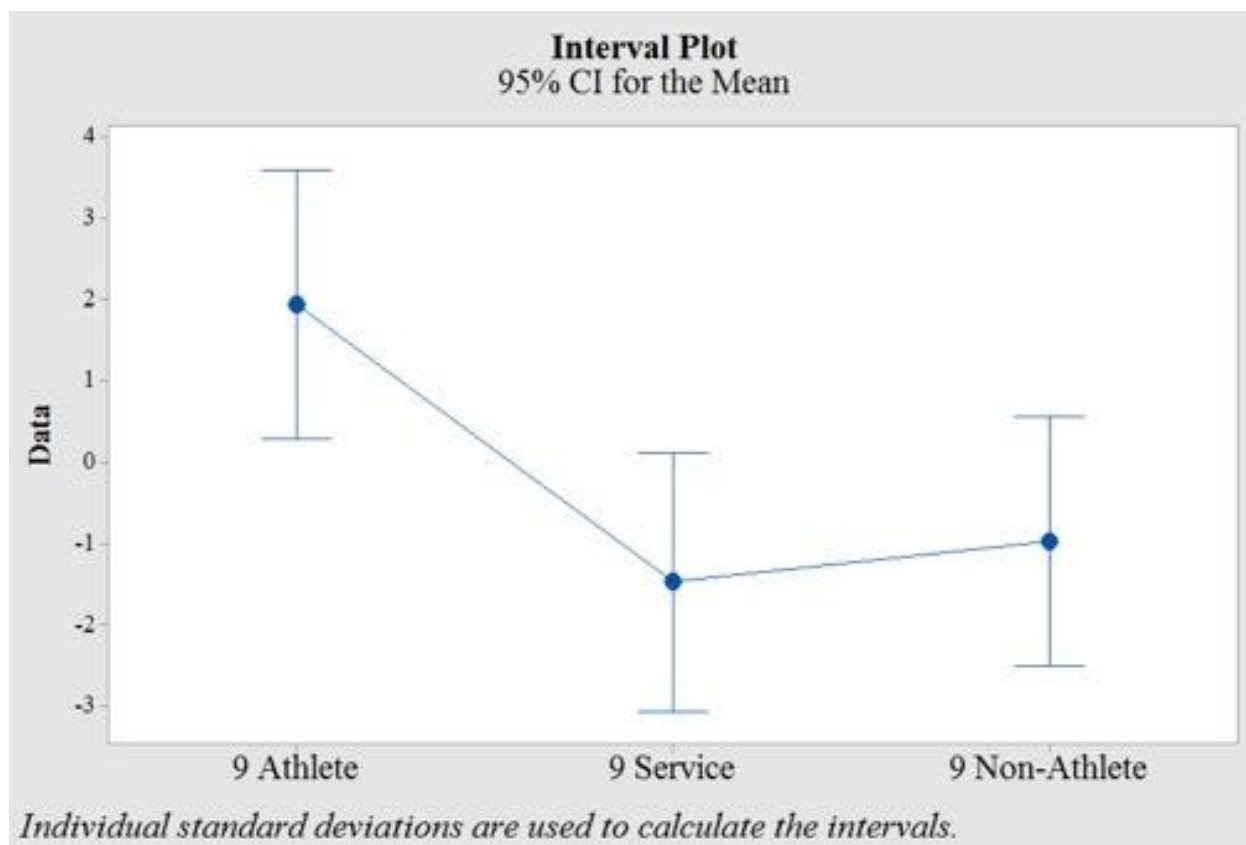
Source	DF Number	DF Den	F-Value	P-Value
9 th Pre and Post All	2	56.543	5.340	0.007*

* Denotes a statistically significant difference at .05.

After determining the results of the ANOVA, a Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison of the mean difference between the pre and post instrument scores of ninth grade athletes, non-athletes, and service club participants took place to determine which groups, in fact, differed between pre and post-test scores. Results of this post hoc procedure can be found in Table 2 and in Graph 1. The group that included athletes ($n = 30$) ($M = 1.933$, $SD = 4.425$) who attended a workshop had a positive difference in mean scores from pre-test to post-test, while the other two groups, service club members ($n = 21$) ($M = -1.476$, $SD = 5.231$) and non-athletes ($n = 47$) ($M = -0.979$, $SD = 3.487$) had lower scores on average.

Table 2: Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison of the mean difference between the pre and post instrument scores of ninth grade athletes, non-athletes, and service club participants.

Factor	n	Mean	SD	Grouping
9 th All Athlete	30	1.933	4.425	Attended workshop.
9 th All Service	21	-1.476	5.231	Did not attend workshop.
9 th All Non-Athlete	47	-0.979	3.487	Did not attend workshop.



Graph 1: Mean difference of all three ninth-grade groups' pre and post-test scores.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: To what degree, if any, was there a statistically significant change in the Social Character or Moral Character components for ninth graders that attended a strategic intervention workshop that focused on moral development? To answer this research question, a Welch Test analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre and post-test results of the social character index questions and moral index questions took place to determine if there was a statistically significant difference among the ninth-grade mean scores on the two series of questions. Results of this ANOVA can be seen in Table 4 (Social Index Questions) and Table 5 (Moral Index Questions). With a $F(2, 56.635) = 0.220$ and $p = 0.807$, the null hypothesis was not rejected thus there was no statistically significant evidence that the mean scores on the social index questions is different among the groups. With a $F(2, 54.2141) = 1.650$ and $p = 0.201$, the null hypothesis was not rejected, and there was no statistically significant evidence that the mean score on the moral index questions was different among the groups.

Table 4: Welch Test analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre and post-test results of the social character index questions.

Source	DF Number	DF Den	F-Value	P-Value
9 th Social Index All	2	56.635	0.220	0.807*

* Denotes no statistically significant difference at .05.

Table 5: Welch Test analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre and post-test results of the ninth-grade moral character index questions.

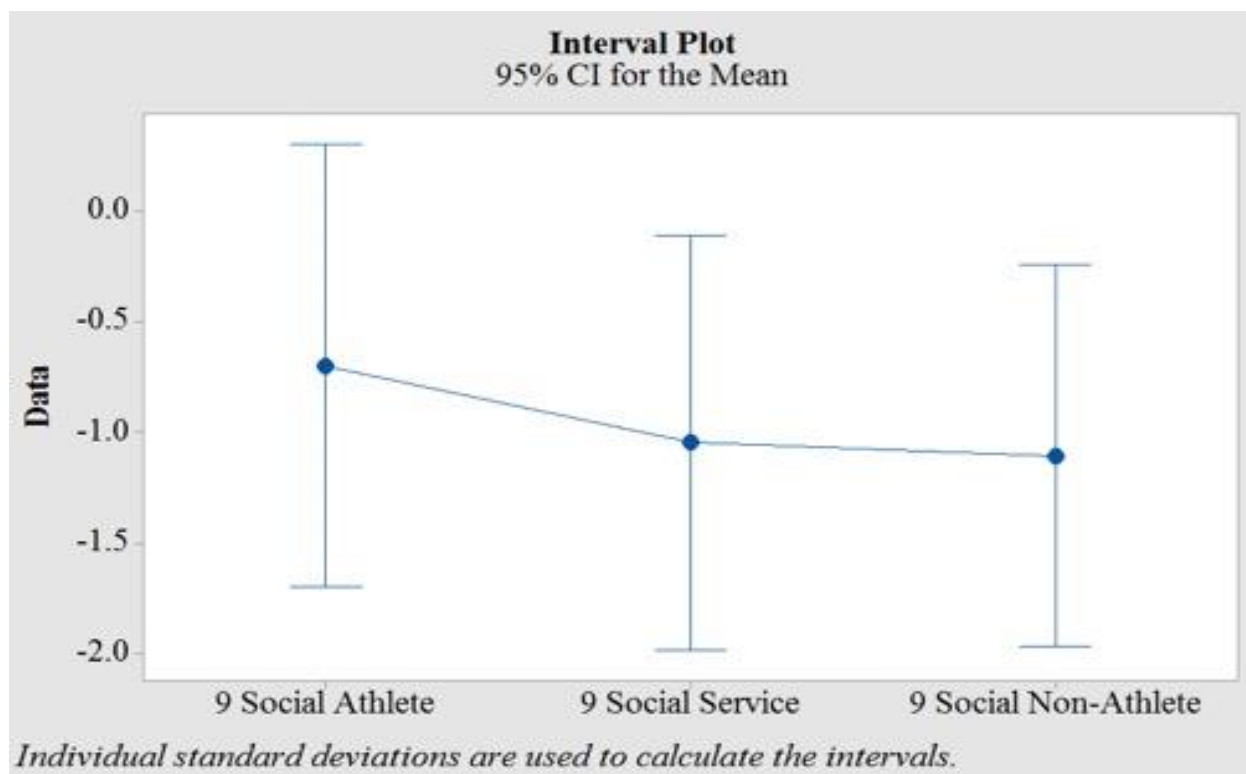
Source	DF Number	DF Den	F-Value	P-Value
9 th Moral Index All	2	54.214	1.650	0.201*

* Denotes no statistically significant difference at 0.05.

Although there were no statistically significant changes as determined by the ANOVA run for this research question, a Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre- and post-test results of the social and moral character index questions took place as part of the pre-programmed procedures for the statistical software used for the research. Results of this post hoc procedure can be found in Table 6 and Graph 2 (Social Index Questions) and Table 7 and Graph 3 (Moral Index Questions). On the Social Index Questions, athletes ($n = 30$) had a mean score difference of ($M = -0.700$, $SD = 2.68$), service club members ($n = 21$) had a mean score difference of ($M = -1.048$, $SD = 2.061$) and non-athletes ($n = 47$) had a mean score difference of ($M = -1.106$, $SD = 2.928$). On the Moral Index Questions, athletes ($n = 30$) had a mean score difference of ($M = -1.567$, $SD = 4.584$), service club members ($n = 21$) had a mean score difference of ($M = -0.952$, $SD = 3.413$) and non-athletes ($n = 47$) had a mean score difference of ($M = 0.277$, $SD = 4.5$).

Table 6: Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre and post-test results of the social character index questions.

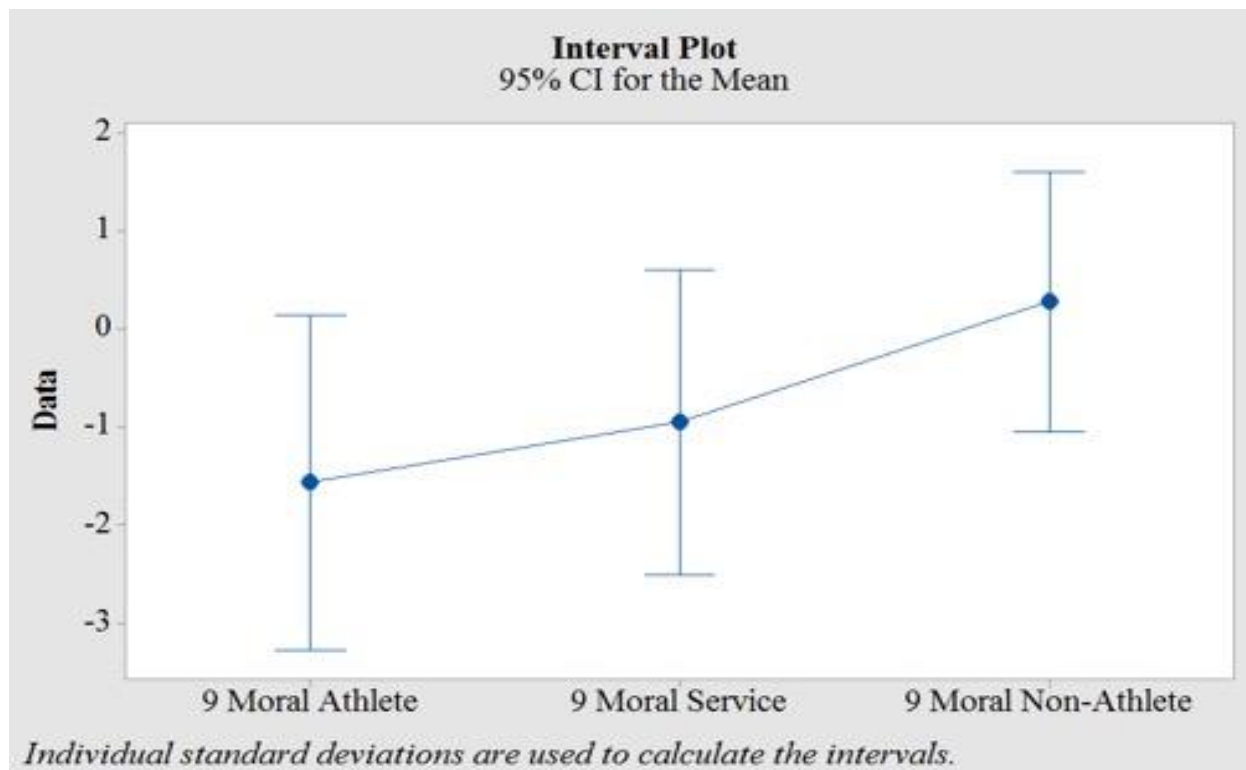
Factor	n	Mean	SD	Grouping
9 th Social Index Athlete	30	-0.700	2.68	Attended workshop.
9 th Social Index Service	21	-1.048	2.061	Did not attend workshop.
9 th Social Index Non-Athlete	47	-1.106	2.928	Did not attend workshop.



Graph 2: Mean difference of all three ninth-grade groups' pre and post-test scores on the RSBH social index questions.

Table 7: Games-Howell Pairwise Comparison analysis of variance of the ninth-grade mean difference between the pre and post-test results of the moral character index questions.

Factor	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Grouping
9 th Moral Index Athlete	30	-1.567	4.584	Attended workshop.
9 th Moral Index Service	21	-0.952	3.413	Did not attend workshop.
9 th Moral Index Non-Athlete	47	0.277	4.5	Did not attend workshop.



Graph 3: Mean difference of all ninth-grade groups' pre and post-test scores on the RSBH moral index questions.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate the effectiveness of workshops given to secondary athletes. This task was undertaken to determine to what degree, if any, such strategic intervention efforts are effective so that educators can better apply strategies that are effective. Results of this study indicated a statistically significant difference in ninth-graders' overall moral knowing as measured by the Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm (RSBH) Value Judgment Inventory. Specifically, results show that a statistically significant change, $F(2, 56.543) = 5.340$ and $p = 0.007$, took place. The group that included athletes ($n = 30$) who attended had a positive difference in mean scores ($M = 1.933$, $SD = 4.425$) from pre-test to post-test, while the other two groups that did not attend workshops, service club members ($n = 21$, $M = -1.476$, $SD = 5.231$) and non-athletes ($n = 47$, $M = -0.979$, $SD = 3.487$) had lower scores on average. These findings support previous research that suggests that explicit instruction can facilitate positive developmental outcomes (Turnnidge, Cote, & Hancock, 2014).

It is likely that the reason for the workshop's positive effect on the moral knowing of the ninth-grade athletes was due to the workshop directly addressing the win-at-all-cost mentality so prevalent in athletics today (Ruud, 2005). This mentality suggests athletes should put aside their morality for the sake of winning. The RSBH tests the respondents' moral resolve when it comes to making moral decisions of this nature (Rudd, Stoll, Beller, & Hahm, 2009). The construction of the RSBH and its questions is such that it requires the respondent to choose whether winning or being moral is more important to them. Because the athletes in this study were taught how to navigate moral dilemmas at the workshop, it makes sense they would have a higher level of moral knowing, as suggested by Thompson (2014). Conversely, service club members and non-athletes

did not receive the moral reinforcement that is present in the workshop, and their level of moral knowing did not have a positive change.

While the athletes' mean scores in moral knowing increased after their attendance in the strategic intervention workshop, it is important for school leaders to continue with reinforcing key moral decision-making strategies since the decision-making process has three concepts that should be understood: moral knowing, moral valuing, and moral action (Likona, 1983). As Kohlberg (1969) and Rest (1979) noted, improved moral knowing is only an initial step in moral valuing and moral actions. If a significant long-lasting life skill transfer of this morality is to take place, coaches and those who are in direct contact with these athletes should utilize both implicit and explicit approaches as outlined by Turnnidge, Cote, and Hancock (2014).

The results of Research Question 2 suggest that attending a strategic intervention workshop focused on moral development had no statistical effect on a ninth-grader's moral knowing regarding the values evaluated by the social (loyalty, teamwork, and self-sacrifice) or moral (honesty, responsibility and justice) index questions. While not statistically significant, the results do suggest, however, that a ninth-grade athlete's moral knowing of the concepts of loyalty, teamwork, and self-sacrifice were higher than that of the other ninth-grade groups studied. The results also suggest that pressure of not failing their teammates and winning may affect a ninth-grade athlete's prioritizing of the concepts of honesty, responsibly, and justice.

A deeper dive into each series of questions revealed some interesting items which may provide clarity into these results. First, the ninth-grade athletes' scores on the social index questions were evaluated. The social index questions evaluated the level of moral knowing on the concepts of loyalty, teamwork, and self-sacrifice. While no statistically significant change occurred for this index of questions, the ninth-grade athletes ($M = -0.700$, $SD = 2.68$) scored the closest to a positive change out of all three groups (non-athletes $M = -1.048$, $SD = 2.928$, service club members $M = -1.106$, $SD = 2.061$). Athletes are coached, both implicitly and explicitly, as Turnnidge et al. (2014) suggest, daily on loyalty, teamwork, and self-sacrifice. Examples of how these values are taught can be found in pre-game speeches and mottos on team t-shirts. While a specific result of the findings cannot be statistically supported, the findings may demonstrate that these ninth-grade athletes have learned these values at a higher rate than their peers.

The results of the moral index questions (on the values of honesty, responsibility, and justice) unveiled a telling trend. The athletes' scores demonstrated the least moral knowing of these values ($M = -1.567$, $SD = 4.584$) of all three groups (non-athletes $M = 0.277$, $SD = 4.5$, service club members $M = -0.952$, $SD = 3.413$) on these questions. A deeper look at the construction of the questions in this index can provide some insight into why this may have occurred. The basic premise of these questions was this: answer one way, and you will be morally wrong, but your team will win; answer the other way, and you will be morally correct, but your team will lose. This is a unique moral dilemma to athletes and is aligned with the suggestion by Shields and Bredemeier (1995) and Eitzen (1988) that competition in sport may cause winning to supersede positive behaviors if coaches, parents, or athletes value winning above sportsmanship and fair play. It also supports the research by Nucci and Turiel (2009) which states that educators often underestimate the complexity of interactions between development in students' social and moral understandings and their applications in social contexts. While the other two peer groups may have been in similar moral dilemmas, this adds to the surrounding moral decision-making pressure that athletes face. Athletes scoring the lowest may also be attributed to them justifying their choices using Banduras' Eight Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement as suggested by Kavussanu (2007). Kavussanu (2007) stated that that the athletes may value winning and not disappointing their teammates, thereby

creating a justification for selecting a morality.

Recommendations for Practice

While considering the results of this study, along with the body of research on moral development and the importance of leadership in developing school culture, the authors have three recommendations for practice. As school leaders make curricular decisions, it is essential that they be well-versed in the nuances of preparing students to make moral decisions. As such, the first recommendation is for school leaders to work collaboratively with teachers and athletic coaches to develop the explicit and hidden components of the curriculum to align with moral decision making. This can be achieved through an increased focus on professional learning for educators that emphasizes moral decision making and committing to developing a uniform expectation throughout the school. A second recommendation for practice is that a strategic, explicit, and ongoing efforts to develop moral knowing, specifically and as a corollary, moral decision making may be developed and implemented. This plan should include strategic intervention workshops and professional learning that highlights moral development as part of the formal curriculum for all ninth-grade students, including student-athletes. The third recommendation is for this plan to include hidden curricular approaches to ensure that the moral life skill transfer developed via the workshop is long-lasting. This should include schoolwide expectations for moral decisions and behaviors in the classroom and on sports fields that are modeled by the school's leadership. In addition to the recommendations for practice, the authors have recommendations for future researchers.

Recommendations for Further Study

While this study adds to the emerging body of research on the moral development of student-athletes, additional research in this area would be beneficial. As such, the researchers recommend four areas for future research. Two of the limitations of this study were the small sample size and not controlling for variables, which may have influenced moral knowing. Therefore, the first recommendation for future research is to conduct research with larger sample sizes utilizing the Rudd-Stoll-Beller-Hahm (RSBH) Value Judgment Inventory. This would add to the data set that has been collected utilizing this instrument and would provide further insight into how to best help students develop moral knowing. Second, further studies should be conducted to evaluate the efficacy of specific programs that target moral knowing while controlling for contextual variables. Context plays a large role in moral development and the decision-making process. Because this study was conducted in a private school with students from a relatively high socioeconomic status, additional research in other settings (charter schools, public schools) and with students from a variety of socio-economic backgrounds would be beneficial. In addition to these recommendations related to the limitations of this study, it would be beneficial to conduct a longitudinal study for students that participated in a series of workshops to measure the impact over time. Also, the population should be expanded to include students from younger ages because, when students reach ninth grade, many factors may have already influenced their moral knowing. Therefore, additional research on the effectiveness of strategic intervention workshops that focus on moral development of younger students and student-athletes should be studied.

Conclusion

Moral decision-making is at the core of a stable and successful society. Often the development of moral decision making and the foundational components of those decisions are learned in schools and through participation in sports. In this study, we explored the impact explicit instruction through intervention workshops had on the moral knowing, social character, and moral character of ninth-grade student-athletes. While the results of this study suggest that strategic intervention workshops had a statistically significant, positive impact on the moral knowing of the students who participated, there is much work that needs to be done. It is essential that educational leaders take a proactive and intentional approach to moral development.

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