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NCPEA Handbook of Online Instruction and Programs in Education Leadership (February 2012) is a collaborative effort of 2 editors, 4 associate editors, and 42 authors. Individual chapters describe, challenge, suggest, question, inform, and assess a wide variety of issues related to online teaching and learning. Like the field of educational leadership, the Handbook is broad in scope. Chapters focus upon designing online programs with best practices, preparing faculty to teach in online environments, effectively designing instructional strategies for course content and internship experiences, understanding today's learners, and evaluating program effectiveness. Chapters also venture into areas into which our future P-12 educational leaders will need to be prepared related to their own use of the online environment for collaboration and instruction.

Taking the Mystery Out of Texas School Finance (August 2012) was written by Ralph Marshall, Stephen F. Austin State University, Vance Vaughn, University of Texas at Tyler, and Chuck Holt, Texas A&M Commerce. It is a goal of the authors that the information in this book will assist both educators and non-educators to understand the similarities and differences of school funding programs within Texas various states in this country. We continue to see a national discussion on schools and school finance. This book is designed to assist students and members of the general public to better understand the principles of public school finance and to see why some financial concepts that may seem attractive to one's own state, may not work well in a different state.

The Arizona Education Law Review, (2nd Edition, November 2011) was authored by Gary Emanuel, professor of Educational Leadership at Northern Arizona University. This handbook (updated with current laws in November 2011) should be used as a self-assessment instrument and is designed for use in Educational leadership classes as a part of the requirements for becoming a school administrator. Arizona administrators who wish to stay current with Arizona laws face a daunting variety of hurdles.

Michigan School Finance: A Handbook for Understanding State Funding Policy for Michigan Public School Districts (2nd Edition, Revised and Updated September 2012) was written by William J. Price, professor of Educational Leadership and Counseling at Eastern Michigan University. The purpose of this handbook is to help those interested in public education in Michigan gain an understanding of the system currently used to generate revenue for the support of Michigan's public schools. In addition to describing where the dollars come from, it will also describe the basis on which dollars are distributed to each school district. Such a description would not be complete if it did not also include a discussion of some of the public policy questions that give rise to both support and criticism of the current system. To that end this handbook will briefly describe past problems, how they have been addressed, and what problems still remain.

Taking the Mystery Out of Illinois School Finance (5th Edition, June 2012) was written by Thomas A. Kersten, professor of Educational Leadership at Roosevelt University in Chicago, Illinois. This textbook was developed over several years and is designed to explain the key principles of Illinois school finance in a way that graduate students in educational administration programs, teachers, school board members, parents, building-level school administrators, and other interested citizens can grasp the essential content without getting bogged down in excessive financial detail. Only by understanding the basics of Illinois school finance, can school administrators, board members, and other constituents make informed decisions.

Making Microsoft Word User-Friendly for Dissertations, Theses, and Manuscripts. This book comes as Part I and Part II and shows steps and procedures for formatting the often "troublesome" components of scholarly writing: Tables, Figures, Running Heads, Footers, Bar and Line Graphs, and the APA formatting of References and Citations. This is a must have for graduate students and advisors/committee members.

Writing Tips for Dissertations, Theses, and Manuscripts: Making APA 6th Edition User-Friendly (April 2012) written by John Slate, Ana Rojas-Lebouef, and George Moore.

From years and years of working with master's students on their theses, with doctoral students on their dissertations, and with authors who submitted manuscripts to journals at which we are either editors (John) or reviewers (Ana, George, and John), we have observed authors making the same mistakes time and time again in their academic and scholarly writing. These mistakes negatively influence the ability of authors to communicate their research results to others. In past efforts to provide assistance, we have directed authors to such activities as seeking out editors and taking writing courses. Even with these efforts, we continue to notice the same mistakes occurring over and over. As a result, we have decided to write this book, one in which we provide specific guidance regarding frequently occurring errors and, most importantly, ways to avoid making those errors in future scholarly writing. This book is specifically written for authors who use the American Psychological Association (2010) style of writing. We believe, however, that the information we provide in this book would be useful to anyone who engages in scholarly and academic writing.

Calculating Basic Statistical Procedures in SPSS: A Self-Help and Practical Guide to Preparing Theses, Dissertations, and Manuscripts, is authored by John R. Slate and Ana Rojas-LeBouef from Sam Houston State University. This book is written to assist graduate students and faculty members, as well as undergraduate students, in their use of the Statistical Package of the Social Sciences-PC (SPSS-PC) versions 15-19. Specifically, we have generated a set of steps and screenshots to depict each important step in conducting basic statistical analyses. We believe that this book supplements existing statistical texts in which readers are informed about the statistical underpinnings of basic statistical procedures and in which definitions of terms are provided. Accordingly, other than providing a few basic definitions, we assume that dissertation chairs/thesis directors, students, and/or faculty will obtain their own definition of terms. We hope you find this set of steps and screenshots to be helpful as you use SPSS-PC in conducting basic statistical analyses.

Calculating Advanced Statistics, Part I and Part II. Slate and LeBouef's latest and best work. These two self-help guides display screenshots and explanations to such statistical procedures as: Discriminant Analysis, Multiple Regression Analysis, Factor Analysis, Internal Consistency Analysis, and Multivariate Analysis of Variance.

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Legal Research in the Context of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

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Legal research methodology is not included in the cluster of research and design courses offered to undergraduate and graduate students in education by traditional departments of research and foundations, so it becomes the responsibility of education law faculty to instruct students in legal methodology. This narrow corridor of opportunity for learning how to conduct legal research is sometimes and unnecessarily off-putting to students because they fear this line of inquiry is too obscure. Our purpose is to describe how beginning researchers in education law may approach legal research. The article will assert the critical role legal research plays in education policy and practice and will unmask the supposed mystery that averts many graduate students from conducting legal research.

INTRODUCTION

Legal research is an enigma to most education researchers, whether they are students or professors. Legal research methodology is not included in the cluster of research and design courses offered to undergraduate and graduate students in education by traditional departments of research and foundations, so it becomes the responsibility of education faculty whose course load includes public school, higher education, pupil personnel services, and/or special education law to instruct students in legal methodology. Interestingly, professors of education law usually acquire the knowledge and skills of legal research from their former school law professors or they pursue a J.D. in addition to their Ed.D. or Ph.D degree, during which time they learned how to conduct traditional legal research.

The narrow corridor of opportunity for learning how to conduct legal research is sometimes and unnecessarily off-putting to students because they fear this line of inquiry is too obscure. This situation is unfortunate because legal research, albeit a specialized approach to investigation, plays an important role in (a) explaining government authority and responsibility for education; (b) exposing potential legal vulnerabilities that result from misguided or outdated educational policies and practices; (c) critically analyzing the unintended consequences of education law and policy that may deny educational equity to students or that may infringe on the civil rights of teachers or of students and their families;

(d) providing political and/or historical context to the law affecting education; and (e) informing policy-makers and practitioners of the trends in judicial reasoning and in applied legal principles that determine the legality of law, policy, and practice. More succinctly put, "legal research in education covers those formal acts of government that shape public education, legal cases that involve educational agencies, and the development of legal precedents" (Lee & Adler, 2006, p. 31).

Our purpose is to describe how beginning researchers in education law may approach legal research. The article will assert the critical role legal research plays in education policy and practice and will unmask the supposed mystery that averts many graduate students from conducting legal research.

In particular, the article will summarize the legislative and judicial sources of law and will examine the unique role of case law in producing legal precedents that inform policy and practice. The article will then describe the basics of traditional legal research, and will provide a variety of examples of how legal research combines richly with other methodologies to produce studies that elucidate how government and its agents compel school districts to function, even in light of outcomes that reveal educational inequities and funding disparities.

Legal research can and should be an agent of accountability for those who regulate schooling but remove themselves from its realities. Graduate students can play a pivotal role by conducting legal research and employing their results to better the educational opportunities for all children and for informing their decision-making as educators who lead schools and as citizens who vote.

SOURCES OF LAW

Depending on the subject matter, a legal study may be broadly or narrowly structured to meet the researcher's purpose. A narrowly tailored approach most likely would restrict the study to traditional legal research, while a more in-depth or comprehensive study may supplement traditional legal research with historical, quantitative, and/or qualitative methodologies. Regardless of the formulation of methodologies, the investigation originates with the law, of which there are several sources.

It is essential to first describe the sources of law because they have a direct bearing on the nature of legal research. There are predominately three sources of law within each of the two jurisdictions (federal and state): (a) constitutions, (b) statutes, and (c) case law. Most students in education are well aware that both federal and state constitutions and statutes govern society and its institutions. They are less familiar with the fact that both court systems (federal and state) produce case law, which affects how constitutional and statutory law is interpreted and applied. Case law encompasses the opinions of the court and is produced by judges.

Constitutions and Statutes

The first and foremost sources of law are the federal constitution and the 50 state constitutions. They are the legal instruments that organize government and dictate the expanse of and the restrictions on authority granted to the three branches of government in each jurisdiction (federal and state). It is with this authority and limitations that Congress and state legislatures enact statutes. In other words, Congress and state legislatures have only the power to enact statutes that are within their purview and the statutes must comport with their

respective constitutions. Similarly, federal and state agencies can only promulgate regulations and policies that are authorized by statute or administrative code, and those regulations and policies must align with the intent of the legislation. Finally, if there are discrepancies between federal and state law, the Supremacy Clause in the federal Constitution places federal law over state law.

Legal scholars often use their knowledge of federal and state constitutions and statutes to evaluate the impact of law on schooling within a state. For instance, every state constitution confers some degree of responsibility for a system of public education upon the legislature. Often this responsibility includes defining the characteristics of the public school system, as well as funding it equitably and adequately. Plaintiffs who challenge how a state funds education will often depend on legal and finance researchers to provide expert reports on the plain meaning of the terms of art that comprise the state constitutional (Campaign for Fiscal Equity, 2000; *Rose v. Council for Better Education, Inc.*, 1989) or on the impact of disparate funding on the educational opportunities of the children in school districts that are adversely affected by the funding formula (Verstegen & Driscoll, 2008).

Independent of court cases, legal researchers may analyze constitutional or statutory language to glean meaning and impact for education (Hodges, 2008; Ryan, 1999; Simon-Kerr & Sturm, 2009; Wanza, 2009), and/or they may choose to investigate the politics behind federal or state education legislation (Binggeli, 2001; Hodges, 2008; Ryan, 2004; Vinik, 1996).

Policy to practice research is one of the most common forms of legal research, particularly for graduate students, one in which researchers seek to determine whether policies are legally sound and implemented with fidelity, and if there are unintended consequences from either that deny teachers, children, or families their rights or that create educational inequities or exclusionary practices. Current examples are policies and practices that pertain to zero tolerance (Sughrue, 2003), search and seizure (Cox, Sughrue, Cornelius, & Alexander, 2012), drug testing (Lineburg, 2005; Lineburg & Sughrue, 2009), school resource officers (Cox et al., 2012), migrant children (Murray, R., 2010), English language learners (Rodriguez, 2011), home schooling (Rowland, 2005), graduation rates (Watson, 2009; Watson & Sughrue, in press), and special education (Allen, 2010), to name a few.

Case Law

As previously noted, case law is generated by the federal and state court systems. Broadly speaking, the federal courts litigate federal constitutional and statutory issues and state courts adjudicate state constitutional and statutory issues. To the average person this distinction hardly seems notable; however, states are semi-autonomous governments, so federal courts do not have authority to adjudicate state matters unless there is a conflict between federal and state law or a controversy between states (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). Conversely, state courts may adjudicate federal legal issues that accompany questions of state law in some instances, but they are bound by federal court precedent. In both systems, higher courts often adjudicate issues with similar facts that have been decided differently in subordinate courts in order to articulate legal principles that may have been applied incorrectly or that need refining. What is most relevant to legal research is to understand the jurisdictional reach of the two systems of courts.

Federal court system. The federal court system is basically organized on three levels: (a) courts of original jurisdiction, which are the federal district courts; (b) intermediate

courts, which are the circuit courts of appeal; and (c) the court of last resort, the U.S. Supreme Court (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). The federal district courts are usually the point of entry for a federal case, the trial court, in other words. There are 11 numbered circuit courts, one circuit for Washington, D.C, and one federal circuit court. There are other federal appellate courts that have limited jurisdictions, but they usually are not relevant to education case law. The U.S. Supreme Court is called the court of last resort because its rulings are final.

Each of the 11 circuits has a defined geographical region over which it has jurisdiction (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). For instance, Virginia, West Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Maryland are under the jurisdiction of the 4th Circuit Court of Appeals. Federal district courts that are located within the jurisdiction of the 4th Circuit must follow the opinions of the 4th Circuit. In other words, federal district courts across the United States may rule differently on a similar point of law, depending on the rulings and principles set forth by the circuit court under which they function. This concept is important to legal research because education laws on similar subjects, such as random drug testing, are upheld or struck down, depending upon which district or circuit court is hearing the case. It was not until the U.S. Supreme Court reviewed this particular issue in two cases, *Vernonia School District 47J v. Acton* (1995) and *Board of Education of Independent School District No. 92 of Pottawatomie County v. Earls* (2002), that unifying standards of review for laws and policies on random drug testing in schools were attached to all lower courts. However, until such time as the Supreme Court agrees to hear a case for which it has not determined precedent, it is the circuit courts that guide the district courts.

That is why the U.S. Supreme Court is referred to as the court of last resort. Its decision is final on a particular point of law, unless the Court itself overturns it in a future case. The standards or legal principles it posits in the ruling are binding on all other courts, including state courts, if they are adjudicating cases that implicate federal law.

State court systems. State court systems are generally organized in the same way, with courts of original jurisdiction, intermediate courts, and a court of last resort. However, each state, by virtue of its constitution, may have a variety of courts with limited jurisdiction, may have separate criminal and civil courts, and may identify their courts differently, such as the Court of Common Pleas instead of a district court or the Superior Court instead of the Supreme Court. As with the federal system, trial courts are bound by the legal principles set forth by the appellate courts and the appellate courts are bound by the principles set forth by the court of last resort. Importantly, when two states pass similar legislation and the laws are challenged, the courts in the two states may arrive at different conclusions, depending on the state's constitution and judicial precedent in the respective state.

CASE LAW PRECEDENTS

The primary functions of the courts are to (a) interpret statutes, (b) determine the constitutionality of statutes, and, in doing so, (c) apply principles of law to the set of facts before them (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). Necessarily, the constitutions themselves are interpreted as justices' attempt to understand the meaning of the words and phrases contained within the constitutions that describe the authority, responsibility, and limitations they bestow on the three branches of government and the protections constitutions provide citizens. These determinations, as explained previously, create case law, which provide guidance to those

who enact and execute statutory law, and case law produces precedents, which provide guidance to lower courts that will adjudicate the legal issue in the future.

The most common form of litigation involving education requires the courts to interpret statutes, such as the ample body of case law concerning the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The federal courts were encumbered with the responsibility of deciphering Congress' intent when it employed phraseology such as *free appropriate public education* (FAPE). What is the nature of a free appropriate public education (*Board of Education of Hendrick Hudson Central School District v. Rowley*, 1982)? Does it require schools to maximize the potential of students with disabilities (*Fort Zumwalt School District v. Clynes*, 1997; *Rowley*, 1982)? These are only two examples of hundreds of questions on IDEA that have been brought before the courts.

The accumulation of case law provides precedents so that future litigation that addresses similar points of law will be evaluated along similar lines of reasoning. These lines of reasoning are referred to judicial standards, tests, or principles. For instance, depending on their purpose, laws and policies that govern the role of religion in *public* schools are adjudicated using the *Lemon* test (*Lemon v. Kurtzman*, 1971). The *Lemon* test is a tripartite standard that asks three questions, the answers to which help judges determine if an educational law or policy is constitutional under one or both of the religious clauses in the First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. The three questions are: (1) Does the law have a secular purpose? (2) Does the law have the primary purpose of promoting or inhibiting religion? (3) Does the law result in excessive government entangle with religion? If the set of facts before the court indicate the law does not have a secular purpose, then the law is constitutionally invalid and the court need not proceed further with the other two questions. If the first answer is yes, then the court proceeds to the second question. If the facts reveal that the law or policy prohibits *or* promotes religion, then the law will be struck down. If not, then the third question is addressed. If there is an indication that the law will require too much government intrusion into the business of the religious organization, then the law will be declared unconstitutional. If there is no conflict with the *Lemon* test, then the legislation or policy would pass constitutional muster. This sequential consideration of the tripartite standard is the line of reasoning that any court would follow if the circumstances of the case were similar.

As the courts struggle with these questions and many more, Congress can determine whether the courts properly understood its intent and whether there were unintended consequences that were unnecessarily harmful or prejudicial. Congress then can modify, repeal, or enact new legislation to further elucidate its purpose.

This begs the question, why is it important for a legal researcher to follow case law and be aware of precedents? First, precedents provide a foundation on which the researcher may analyze and summarize the potential outcome of a challenge to educational laws, policies, and practices that have not yet been adjudicated. Sometimes through their systematic analysis of case law, legal scholars try to advise Congress or state legislatures on weaknesses or conflicts within the laws or policies. For example, a legal analysis of the administrative exhaustion requirements for special education law could advance some proposals for Congressional action (Wasserman, 2009). Second, as new laws are passed or new circumstances (sets of facts) arise, these precedents may be modified or replaced by new standards (*Agostini v. Feldman*, 1997; *Lee v. Weisman*, 1992, *Mitchell v. Helms*, 2000). This provides the researcher with analytical tools with which to anticipate the implications to

existing policies and practices. Finally, the decisions reveal the ideological and theoretical perspectives of the justices who hear these cases, which is particularly relevant in the courts of last resort. This allows the researcher to contextualize the majority and dissenting justices' opinions (Noonan, 2007; Powell, 2008).

In summary, there is a hierarchy to constitutional and statutory law, between federal and state law, among the three levels of courts in the federal and state judiciary, and between the federal and state courts. Regulations and policies are the "how to" of statutory law and statutory law is an expression of legislative will that is authorized by the constitution. The judiciary acts independently to interpret Congressional and state legislation with regard to their intent and to determine the constitutionality of statutes. However, it is restricted to adjudicating true controversies (not hypothetical questions of law) and for which plaintiffs have standing (they are the injured party) (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). The court is to assume that the legislature acted in good faith and that the statute in question is constitutional; it is the burden of the plaintiff to prove otherwise. What is important is that this check and balance works on behalf of citizens to protect them from unwarranted government intrusion. See Figure 1.

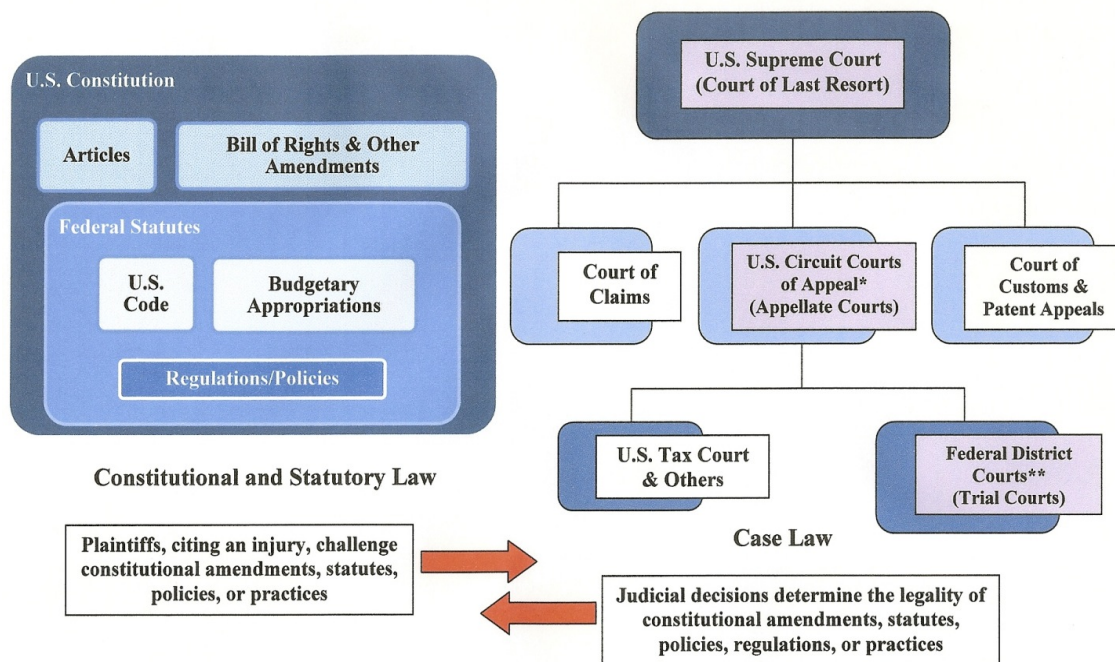


Figure 1. This is a generalized overview illustrating the relationship among the various sources of federal law and to the federal court system. As the left side of the schema suggests, statutes must be authorized by the Constitution and regulations and policies must be authorized by statute. Not all federal courts are displayed. Those courts with primary relevance to educational law research are shaded. Sources of state law are similarly situated, particularly in relation to constitutional and statutory law. The state court systems vary in name and number, but function fairly similarly to the federal system. Importantly, when there are discrepancies between federal law and state law, assuming both are constitutionally legal, federal law is supreme. Likewise, U.S. Supreme Court is the highest court and, therefore, all lower courts, including state courts, must abide by its precedents.

* There are 11 federal appellate courts, a D.C. Circuit Court, and a Federal Circuit Court.

** There are federal district courts with only federal jurisdiction and federal district courts with both federal and local jurisdiction. U.S. territories and protectorates are assigned to specific federal district courts, as well.

TRADITIONAL LEGAL RESEARCH

Most students or professors who are unfamiliar with the rudiments of legal research attempt to characterize them as either qualitative or quantitative. They are neither. Traditional legal research is best described "as a form of historical-legal research . . . [that involves] the interpretation and explanation of the law" (Russo, 2006, p. 6). It is a systematic investigation into a question of law that requires the researcher to trace the issue from its origin to its current status and application.

In its simplest form, traditional legal research entails identifying a legal concern, say liability for a particular administrative practice in education, and then determining the legal authority for statutes, policies, and practices that are associated with that practice. First, the researcher must consider all the sources of law that are associated with that practice or issue generally, in schools, and with that issue in context, specifically. The researcher would access one or more of the electronic databases that makes available the breadth of legal materials (constitutions, statutes, administrative codes, case law, briefs, law reviews, and more) or would visit a law or university library that holds hard copies of these documents. Then s/he can apply the acquired knowledge to the set of facts and arrive at a reasoned conclusion as to the legality or illegality of the policy or practice and the consequences of continuing that practice.

Applying Traditional Legal Research

For example, researching the liability for illegal strip searches in schools might look something like this: First, the researcher would start with the Fourth Amendment of the federal Constitution. The Fourth Amendment asserts

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

In simpler language, people are protected from searches of their bodies, their homes, and their things by government agents, i.e., law enforcement. Prior to conducting a search for evidence of a suspected crime, the government agent must have probable cause and must obtain a court-issued search warrant.

Second, the researcher would want to learn what the U.S. Supreme Court has said about searches in Fourth Amendment jurisprudence. Within this body of case law, the research would learn that there is precedent that provides for an implied right of privacy. An illegal search by a government agent would be a violation of a constitutional right. This would result in litigation in which the plaintiff would allege her/his civil rights were violated, for which an individual or local education agency could be held liable, depending on the specific circumstances.

Next, the researcher would want to uncover the statutes and case law that have addressed the expense of student searches in schools. If the researcher is concerned with a particular state's policy or practice, s/he also would examine that state's constitution, laws, and

state jurisprudence. (In some instances, a state's constitution may guarantee more robust protections of civil liberties than the federal constitution.)

From this line of inquiry, the researcher would learn that the U.S. Supreme Court, in *New Jersey v. T.L.O.* (1985), concluded that school officials should not be constrained by probable cause and search warrants because students had a lesser expectation of privacy in schools than citizens in society at large. It further opined that schools are unique because of the role of school officials to ensure the safety and wellbeing of students and staff. This is referred to as the *special needs* doctrine. However, the government's interest in maintaining a safe and secure educational environment has to be balanced against the student's expectation of privacy, even though it is a diminished expectation in schools.

Ultimately, the Court constructed a judicial test that defined the characteristics of a legal search: (a) prior to conducting a search, the school official must have reasonable suspicion that a *particular* student is in possession of something that is in violation of school rules and then (b) the search must be reasonable in *nature and scope*, in light of the suspected violation and the age and sex of the student.

The researcher would also learn that there is a substantial body of case law in the circuit courts that covers a wide range of searches, including searches of lockers, book bags, and cars, and that random searches have been ruled constitutional in under certain circumstances. This would include metal detectors, canine searches, and drug testing. As mentioned previously, the Supreme Court ruled on the question of random drug testing in two cases (*Pottawatomie*, 2002; *Vernonia*, 1995), both of which reiterated the judicial standard of reasonableness posited in *T.L.O.* (1985) and emphasized the *special needs* doctrine to justify a random search.

The researcher would soon uncover the most current Supreme Court search and seizure case, *Safford Unified School District v. Redding* (2009). Until this case was adjudicated before the Supreme Court, the decisions from federal appellate courts were mixed on the subject, so there was no clear direction given to education policy makers and practitioners. School leaders were left with the idea that it could be employed if it could be justified as a safety measure to ensure that a student was not concealing something that created a danger to the student or to others.

But, strip searches were being conducted for a host of reasons, many of them having nothing to do with a suspected egregious offense. When these searches were challenged in court, found to be constitutionally infirm, and, thereby, in violation of the students' civil rights, the defendants were often granted qualified immunity because "the law was not well settled." This meant that a government actor could not be held liable for committing an offense because it was unclear at the time if the state actor would have known that the search was illegal.

In *Safford*, the Supreme Court ruled that this particular strip search was a violation of the student's right to privacy under the Fourth Amendment. In the opinion of the Court, the circumstances were not sufficiently compelling to justify such an intrusive search as a strip search. As a result of its decision, school officials were warned that only when there is imminent danger for the safety and security of a student or others would a strip search of a student be considered legal.

Now that the Supreme Court has addressed the question of strip searches in schools, government agents, such as school officials, may be held liable for a violation of a student's constitutional right of privacy and of protection against unreasonable searches. No longer will

defendants in such cases enjoy qualified immunity because the question is now "well settled law."

At this point the researcher has all the source material s/he needs to apply to the set of facts that was the impetus for the legal study. Applying the Fourth Amendment and the legal principles that were established under *T.L.O.*, *Vernonia*, *Earls*, and *Safford*, the researcher can draw reasoned conclusions as to the legality of the search under review and the potential for liability to a school official or to an education agency.

Summary

Traditional legal research is the pursuit for legal authority that governs the question of law at hand. Precedent directs the researcher through the evolution of judicial principles that guide the determination of constitutionality, the interpretation of statutes, and the resolution of controversies. Other methodologies may complement legal research to provide data that empirically illustrate the impact of laws, policies, and practices on the educational enterprise, some examples of which follow.

LEGAL RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

Graduate students are most often concerned with laws, policies, and practices that directly impact their schools and districts, and so much of the legal research they conduct is supplemented with quantitative and qualitative methodologies. For instance, a student may be aware that her/his state authorizes school districts to develop and implement policies on random drug tests, but is curious to learn if school districts have taken on this responsibility, if the policies and practices are aligned with judicial principles that define legal random drug testing procedures, and if the testing regime is producing the desired effect, decreasing student drug use (Lineburg, 2005). The student may extend this study and use interviews to learn why some districts chose to implement drug testing while others did not. Another direction that this topic may take would be to combine traditional legal research with quantitative methods (perhaps a trend analysis of how many students, how many positive tests, and/or measures of effectiveness, or perhaps a cost effectiveness or cost benefit analysis) and qualitative methods (a single or multiple case study design, using document analysis, shadowing, and interviews).

There are legal studies that may incorporate historical methods with traditional legal research. A researcher may be interested in understanding the historical context and process of desegregation in a school (Hedrick, 2002) or a district (Mickelson, 2003) or what a school district did to successfully have a desegregation court order lifted. Or, there may be an interest in tracking a political/social response to a court decision, such as the Movement of Mass Resistance, or the fiscal progress on a remedy fashioned per a finance litigation suit, and its impact on a particular school district and on its students (Rolle, Houck, & McColl, 2008).

Some researchers are interested in the politics of education law and policy and may choose to use a combination of historical, qualitative, and traditional legal research to trace the politics of passing a particular law (Binggeli, 2001) or to uncover the impact of a particular piece of legislation (Rowland, 2005; Wanza, 2009) on school districts and schools. Motivated by educational equity, a student may choose to decipher a revised education clause in the state constitution in order to understand the legislature's intended meaning of the terms of art and how the modified wording in the new clause might change the nature of the

responsibility the legislature has for providing for a high quality public education (Hodges, 2008). All these examples may involve document and content analysis, discourse analysis, and interviews. Finally, a good use of legal research in combination with other methods is to demonstrate to law and policy makers and to the public the unintended consequences of legislation and/or policy on children and schooling. It could be uncovering the disparate impact on students of color or students with disabilities of particular promotion and retention policies (Murray, M., 2010). Research on disciplinary practices has brought attention to some law makers and many educational leaders that zero tolerance policies have not produce the desired results of decreasing serious crime in schools diminishing the disproportionate suspension and expulsion of black males (Rausch & Skiba, 2004). There are a number of studies that have investigated the impact of having law enforcement personnel involved in school discipline that goes beyond addressing serious crime in schools, resulting in examples of "school to prison pipelines" (Hirschfield, 2008; Majd, 2011; NYCLU & ACLU, 2007).

While these examples do not cover the full depth and breadth of what legal research can produce, they are representative of the substantial and critical contribution legal studies, including doctoral dissertations, can make to improving the conditions of education and to protecting the interests of society and the rights of school personnel and students. It is imperative that studies of school law be encouraged to grow in graduate schools of education in order that transparency and democracy flourish in schools, in district and school board offices, and in legislative chambers.

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Possibilities for Future Leadership: Thoughts from an Academic Blogosphere Community

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In this dialogic essay we present an extremely important subject—the future of educational leadership and education more broadly. Given the uncertainty over and anxiety about the future of K–12 education and higher education, our goal for this article is to have currency and importance. We forged a scholarly community to discuss mid-21st-century leadership and education. Our research blogosphere arose out of a blog series and qualitative analyses of the data collected, which support the arguments we make.

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CONCEPTUAL UNDERGIRDING

Wanting leadership preparation to become uniformly social justice oriented, we legitimate innovative and “alternative discourses” and new “ways to imagine possibilities for schools and school leadership” (Bogotch 2011, p. 131; Donmoyer & Kos, 1993; English, 2011). Some education researchers encourage speculation on databased trends to support social justice advocacy (e.g., English, Papa, Mullen, & Creighton, 2012). Hackmann and McCarthy’s (2011) empirical study of U.S.-based educational leadership programs urges professors to take back our profession from external entities.

Our essay builds on a conceptual platform that projects the future of the educational leadership field, backed by databased trends (i.e., English et al., 2012). Our future-minded perspectives and beliefs are grounded in the knowledge base and experiences of scholar-practitioners. We incorporate the views of junior professors with recent school/district leadership experience.

Because the term *blogosphere* might be unfamiliar, in this case it simply refers to the Internet environment in which bloggers communicate with one another. Blogging is a form of computer-mediated communication and online research (Adamic & Glance, 2005; Hookway, 2008) that arises out of research in a nontraditional way. Blogging is a revolutionary venue for constructing meaning out of everyday experiences; the blogosphere platform is a research toolkit (Hookway, 2008). Adamic and Glance (2005) used the blogosphere to link discussions of political bloggers over 40 days before the 2004 U.S. election, generating a single-day snapshot of over 1,000 political blogs.

We believe, perhaps owing to our rational training about education, that possibilities may have greater scholarly credibility when rooted in evidence-based trends (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hackmann and McCarthy, 2011). Beyond this, we believe that the future world of research will allow for greater possibilities for participatory meaning making between senior faculty and junior faculty whose consensual brainstorming can support in-depth discourse about education (Ylimaki & Brunner, 2011). About the shaping influences of rational discourse, we recognize the need for engaging in the messy, elusive work of imagining the future of education. Britzman’s (2009) take is that “the very thought of education is difficult to think” (p. 2). We are attempting to think this thought.

For this blog-based research, we asked what schools and universities might look like midcentury. Thus, we front-load the topic of the futurity of education. Our strategy for communicating with a broader constituency of educational leaders involved reaching out via the Internet to learn what people might express in writing about education and schools several decades from now. We shared among ourselves our bias toward revitalizing public schooling as the premier form of education and democracy available to citizens. Socialized to be analytic thinkers, we mull over educational and global trends and the evidence-based predictions that forecast significant challenges—justice, technology, innovation, marketization, accountability, globalization, competition, and poverty.

A current trend in education research is technology, specifically the delivery of leadership curriculum through online instruction and, by way of extension, research. While the utilization of technology is espoused as a strong value across public institutions, the resources provided for propelling 21st-century learning and faculty development are insufficient. We see exciting innovations described in the literature but also undeniable plights. Future directions that have democratic underpinnings include directing the capacity of

innovative technologies for professional development, for enabling access to students at different levels, and for creating competent, accessible systems that foster communication worldwide (Hewitt, Lashley, Mullen, & Davis, 2012; King & Griggs, 2006; Tareilo & Bizzell, 2012).

Because public schools and university systems have to compete vigorously just to stay in business, leaders must foster democratic agendas of equity and fairness, not only innovation and creativity (Tareilo & Bizzell, 2012). Leading researchers caution that innovation and responsiveness in schools must not compromise equity, access, and the ability of students “to a common democratic society” (Darling-Hammond, 2010, p. 270; Ladson-Billings, 2006). Many school populations struggle without adequate access to resources, including high-quality teachers—let alone the support of advocates.

Offsetting the simplistic bravado around the remedy for countries and people to be entrepreneurial in a fallen economy is the very real problem of poverty and academic failure. “Educational opportunity” neither is the same for all students nor for schools, nor is it equally distributed across race, class, and culture (Ladson-Billings, 2006). Students’ willingness “to commit to school and their own futures” (p. 30), as Darling-Hammond (2010) explains, needs scrutiny because teachers influence whether students think they are “worthwhile investments” (p. 30), which can affect their achievement. Advocates are influencers who see a viable future for disadvantaged students (Tough, 2012).

Instructive lessons derived from research underscore the importance of imagining the future in order to influence it. This way, we have a better chance of making positive changes in the present that shape the future. Some philosophers, futurists, technologists, and popularists think about the future. Educational researchers and school leaders need to weigh in and exert influence in the schooling, global, and policymaking arenas—the future of schools and universities midcentury needs study.

Exploring the future of education is unusual in leadership studies. Physicist Kaku’s (2012) forecasting anticipates advances in science and technology but very little in the way of education. In his worldview, U.S. universities will be delivering education mostly via face-to-face (f2f). Yet 42 researchers (see Tareilo and Bizzell, 2012) of online programming in educational leadership, in addition to our respondents and us, see differently. We collectively envision a vigorous shift toward online curriculum and hybrid programs.

Moreover, Kaku (2012) described an “archaic, sclerotic education system” (p. 373) in the American public education system. It is no wonder that such a bleak vision of education has no place in the technological innovations he imagines. We do not accept the glaring omission of education in any vision of the future. Favoring future-minded possibilities for education, we engage in a discourse that is open ended and debatable. We invite readers to contribute their views of midcentury leadership to add value to the literature and profession.

INNOVATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The junior faculty coauthors were invited to join the senior faculty’s future-focused study, enabling the beginning professors to perform as researcher, collaborator, and respondent. As collaborators, we designed a research blogosphere community for bloggers and ourselves to reflect on what schools and universities might look like midcentury. We undergirded our research with social justice advocacy and action-informed theory. Educational leaders’ written commentaries informed our thoughts about the future of education and leadership.

The five junior faculty dialogued within an immersive e-learning context about the future of education, aspiring to think deeply and meaningfully. The group read about databased trends impacting education and educational leadership (e.g., English et al., 2012) and social justice treatments of texts (e.g., Charmaz, 2005), and we analyzed responses to the blog post about the future.

Carol Mullen, the first author, created and disseminated the blog via the open-access website of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA, 2011). Junior faculty working in educational leadership programs from across the U.S. (seven total)—referred to henceforth as “bloggers”—posted extensive comments known as “blog responses.”

Our scholarly team analyzed the collection of blog responses. Facilitating consensus building, power-sharing approaches to this project (see Ylimaki & Brunner, 2011), the coauthors generated themes from the blog posts. Then, the senior authors did an independent analysis, eventually consolidating the seven themes while making connections among them to education and leadership. They also made the social justice ideas more explicit.

Although our treatment of the blog comments was informal, engaging more formally in data analysis with social justice lenses also supports Charmaz’s (2005) view of advocacy. Data do not speak for themselves, so we felt free to make sociopolitical interpretations and adopt positions guided by our beliefs about issues needing serious attention. Deliberative agendas support “democratic decision making” (Howe & Ashcraft, 2005, p. 2275) and stakeholder participation. For us, this meant involving junior faculty in formulating ideas and sense making across power, rank, gender, and experience.

In the second phase, which transpired 2 months later in 2012, we reintroduced the senior faculty in a direct working relationship with the coauthors, conversing as a whole team via Wimba. In the third phase, the senior authors worked alone, writing conceptually and refining the analysis of the blog responses. All phases were group-based decisions.

To analyze the blog responses, we used Crocodoc, a digital tool for real-time collaborative spaces that allows for responding to documents posted online.

Blog Prompts

Our writing team dialogued using these six prompts:

1. What do you think schools and universities might look like midcentury?
2. What trends and forces currently impacting preparation and practice will be strongly influential by 2050? (Example: technological transformation of the world.)
3. What warning signs do we need to heed in the educational leadership field? (Example: deprofessionalization of educational leadership preparation.)
4. Who are midcentury leaders? (Example: developing human agency.)
5. What sociopolitical conditions will midcentury leaders face? (Example: developing social justice consciousness.)
6. What technology zeitgeist will prevail midcentury?

FRAMES OF MIDCENTURY LEADERSHIP ISSUES

We identified six educational frames for thinking about midcentury leadership: (1) sociopolitical–economic frame (subthemes: equity and democratic principles and sustainability); (2) technology frame; (3) 21st-century skills frame (subtheme: innovation); (4)

accountability frame; (5) globalization frame (subthemes: partnership and collaboration); and (6) change frame. While the themes overlapped, the nexus of sociopolitical–economic issues, technology, and leadership preparation dominated the blog responses.

1. Sociopolitical–Economic Nexus With Education

The sociopolitical–economic nexus with education was the most salient issue suggested in the blog posts. Myriad political, economic, and social issues that affect PK–12 and higher education were raised.

External political forces have a palpable impact on PK–12 schooling and higher education. The first decade of the new millennium has been marked by “sweeping changes” in education, largely due to the No Child Left Behind (PL107-110, 2001) act and the Race to the Top act (HR6244, 2010). One blogger lamented:

The great divide currently existing in the U.S. political system [yearning for a] more moderate climate that would allow educational leaders to engage with the community and school boards around legitimate educational issues rather than ideology and dogma.

Another felt that too much professional policy and practice is steeped in tradition and politics, not reflective decision making. While PK–12 education is the source of much of this concern, a foreboding sense is that federal and state regulations, along with pay for performance, are infiltrating higher education.

The corporate influence on education—a prevailing force in contemporary America—was seen as misguided, even bankrupt. One blogger declared that “the marketization of education” has posed these threats to schools in the first half of the 21st century: the decline and potential demise of public schooling; overly narrow and unresponsive accountability systems; and unethical and inappropriate uses of data. Another saw the government’s education initiatives as a function of the corporate sector’s “tremendous sociopolitical pressure.”

The bloggers viewed the corporate takeover of education as a warning sign of what will happen if power blocs assume complete control, as in:

With the sly guise of benefitting our students arise corporate education reformers with self-interest in hand, but the harvest doesn’t benefit the students. They advocate policies that aid big corporations with profits from public education while diverting attention from antipoverty economics and breaking teacher unions that prevent their agenda.

There is an increasing influence and prominence of multinational corporations and the power and influence [is being] exercised by corporations and lobbyists, especially from the financial sector, over government.

While there was recognition of “education’s direct link to the economy,” resistance was expressed in response to the “trend demanding a business model responsive to market forces” in leadership preparation programs, compounded by “programming that is convenient to the consumer regardless of whether there is evidence of effectiveness.”

Market-driven, corporate pressures force many leaders to “market themselves and their schools” without concern for relevance or need. More neutrally, this “marketing” was seen as advocacy for education leaders. Threats to public education are disconcerting. One blogger indicted corporate reformers for attacking public education to promote their own agenda:

Under the guise of a national education crisis, the legitimacy and utility of public schooling will continue to be challenged, and public schooling itself will be threatened.

Another decried the “public relations assault on public education.” Attempts to destroy teachers unions and cut budgets also endanger public education, depleting its sustainability. These trends require that education leaders “articulate to the public the critical role of public education in maintaining democratic ideals.”

Leaders must be more politically active, articulate advocates of public education. Gone are the days when leaders’ concerns lay entirely within their campus. Instead, the leadership role

will continue to seep into more sociopolitical responsibilities, expanding their scope beyond the school building.

With greater force, “leaders must be actively engaged, expert participants in national policy debates” and stand up for what they believe is just.

The bloggers asserted that midcentury educators must influence the policies they believe affect their contexts. The requirement that future leaders be policy-driven and knowledgeable is important for leadership preparation. Faculty must cultivate—in our students—a proactive activist orientation.

2. Technology Nexus With Education

Unsurprisingly, all bloggers identified technology as a change catalyst in leadership. However, they did not connect to the sociopolitical–economic domain, although all wrote to both prompts. Not unlike the education literature itself, education leaders may be struggling to connect sociocultural and technology issues. To provoke thought on this disconnect, we placed technology here, juxtaposing it to the sociopolitical–economic theme.

Some bloggers commented on the fast evolution of technology and the digitization of their work environments. Heading toward 2050, technology will proliferate in unexpected forms as new markets and innovations spring up (Tareilo & Bizzell, 2012). The bloggers are witnessing virtual learning as a rapid growth market in education. By midcentury, these will be ubiquitous.

As time passes, students “in” our programs may be located at great distances; they will expect immediacy of contact and feedback. They will “meet” as if in the same room. Sophisticated translation technology will allow students to be taught in their native tongues and for Spanish to be widespread. As technology advances, the curriculum offered will drastically change, along with instructional strategies and modalities. “Metaverses, such as Second Life¹ [software allowing users to create virtual objects and digitally interact within an online world], will become sophisticated. Educators, the bloggers all thought, will develop ways “to incorporate the potential of the virtual dimension to provide currently unimaginable opportunities” for learning. A blogger shared,

I predict that by 2050 successful educators will be highly skilled research-practitioners. Our leadership preparation and practice must emphasize research-based, innovative, cost-effective educational approaches.

Bloggers referenced the “many forces currently impacting preparation and practice” they think will be strongly influential by 2050. One drew attention to the

Revolutionary effects of the information age as the most dramatic because they undergird most of these trends in education as a catalyst for change in policy and practice.

Blog examples include the green movement and evidence-based practice.

The bloggers and the coauthors all expressed concern that while education has been transformed since the first computer, many U.S. schools are stuck in the industrial era (Tough, 2012). Outdated practices are traditional lecture styles and top-down ways of leading. Perhaps consequently,

Too much of the nation's professional policy and practice is based on tradition or politics rather than reflective, data-based decision making.

3. 21st-Century Skills Nexus With Education

Leaders must try to discern what the future will bring and emphasize 21st-century learning. They will need to cultivate new thinking for students, be a role model for others, and use the expected knowledge and skills for thriving by “reflecting the changes in our world.” Leaders will perform across platforms of leading, teaching, and modeling, as they will be

Responsible for helping practicing teachers not only to learn these 21st-century competencies but also how to teach and model them.

This is no small charge, requiring that leaders be “nimble problem solvers” and “strong communicators, consensus builders, and team builders.” As such, leadership preparation must be about—quoting the bloggers—“modeling, embodying, and intentionally teaching 21st-century skills.”

Innovation. Innovation values creativity, imagination, and entrepreneurship development in people and institutions. The bloggers believe that we must use innovative approaches to teach practitioners to be innovative.

Innovation is inextricably linked to economic well-being and cost-effective educational approaches.

Additionally, leaders are

Responsible for developing more entrepreneurs and future CEOs by teaching them to create and develop ideas.

Thus, leaders have responsibility for the economic future of the U.S. and the development of business leaders. The potential tension between an anticorporate sentiment in the blog responses, which prevailed, and a pro cultivation of business leaders’ argument within the education leadership arena, fleetingly mentioned, was not addressed.

Innovation is vital for anticipating rapid change—it can be leveraged to alleviate significant problems in education (e.g., tracking, dropout). The bloggers gave alternative courses of action for how educators do schooling: upending “traditional track high school curricular programs”; providing flexible alternatives for students so they stay in school; offering “mini-sessions and hybrid courses” in PK–12 and higher education; and “shaping delivery techniques” as well as “preparation and practice.”

Indeed, the bloggers communicated optimism, hoping that positive changes will manifest in how people experience schools and how systems evolve:

We are likely to see more of these same kinds of changes in education structures and functions as well as other rapid avant-garde approaches to learning.

A strong caveat of the bloggers is that not all avant-garde approaches are good and that complications ensue from changing outdated systems:

In the coming decades, we will continue to grapple with the promise and pitfalls of innovation in education systems, including issues of quality and equity, especially around so-called school choice, for-profit schools and universities, and online learning.

The pathway of innovation will conjure up the very past being left behind:

We will stumble and falter between playing fast and loose with students' futures in the name of innovation and holding blindly to anachronistic institutions.

Good judgment will guide innovation and avoid actions that jeopardize student learning and entrench failure in impoverished schools. Additionally, issues of not only quality but also fairness factor into discernment about innovative change. Supported schools can make gains as idea generators, connectors, and resource attractors.

4. Accountability Nexus With Education

Blog commentaries ranged from bleak to optimistic.

Accountability systems that are too narrowly focused on reading and math standardized test results and penalties will plague and constrain schools, especially high-need schools.

We will develop tests that offer more 'stretch,' that respond dynamically to student responses, and that more accurately and reliably identify student strengths and needs.

Moving forward, another urged attention on "the call to serve the whole child."

While most bloggers considered high-stakes standardized testing in PK–12, a few referenced accountability in universities, concerned that

accountability, oversight, and federal and state regulations, along with pay for performance, are coming to higher education.

Accountability was connected to equity and democratic principles, suggesting benefits for well-being from an education that fosters social action. Bloggers envisioned that

We will reaffirm our commitment to a system of public schooling focused on excellence, equity, and caring. We will replace current accountability systems with more nuanced, responsive approaches.

Data used for accountability purposes was viewed as potentially consistent with a justice orientation, together with effective educational practices:

We will recognize both the promise and limitations of data and use them judiciously and ethically to inform practice.

5. Globalization Nexus With Education

Globalization was understood as a major sociopolitical–economic trend affecting American education. The bloggers expressed compatible values, such as ensuring that non-U.S. citizens and non-mainstream cultures have equal opportunities in life.

Bloggers gave weight to student achievement comparisons on an international scale. They referenced countries that have high-quality education and no high-stakes testing, such as Finland's educational system in which teachers are revered. A positive prediction relative to international relations was that

our students will collaborate with one another across cultures in ways that nurture profound growth.

International collaborations between virtual strangers are becoming commonplace and will likely be normative in higher education. One blogger signaled the possibility of leadership faculty as international researchers:

We will conduct empirical and theoretical research with people across the globe whom we have never 'met.'

Such global trends suggest that not just the university culture could get better. When leadership supports educationally centered globalization, schools benefit:

Educational systems around the globe have flourished directly due to education leaders responsibly encouraging facets of globalization with new ideas, connections, and resources.

Partnership and collaboration. Partnerships and collaboration are essential for producing a more global interface for schools that attract resource specialists for supporting the learning of all children. About who midcentury leaders are, one blogger wrote

They will be able to spot trends and build collaborative partnerships across communities and institutions.

They will be adept at partnering:

Schools will be centers for social services and social workers, medical professionals, and educators will collaboratively work to support family needs.

Regarding higher education, another blogger conceived of the need to *cultivate collaborations with communities, districts, and our colleagues [with a resulting] synergy from these connections [that] will help us be responsive and help students foster connections.*

6. Change Nexus With Education

As the U.S. moves toward 2050, leaders must change to remain viable:

Leaps in thinking are desperately needed to ensure that a sustainable and reliable education will be available that citizens may count on for their children and grandchildren's quality of life.

The technological methods connected to social justice thinking from the blog responses exemplify

How our professional practice has evolved dramatically and quickly, and how that practice will continue to change at a geometric pace. Educators are indeed expected to be adaptive and technologically savvy, computer literate, and highly skilled information users.

An all-consuming development in the 21st century is the “increasing influence and prominence of multinational corporations” and their capability for reducing the authority of nation-states. As the pace of change escalates, “Midcentury leaders will be those with skills that transcend rapid change.” The hope is that future leaders will perpetuate the change they want to see.

RELEVANCE FOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION MIDCENTURY

As leadership programs change, the implications for our field in preparing tomorrow's leaders abound. Those able to market themselves and their schools in diverse cultures and malleable networks broadly will have influence. Successful leaders in 2050 will be charismatic, dynamic, and adaptive change agents who possess a resounding belief structure. They will likely be confident, visionary, courageous, humble, and service-oriented. Advocates may draw inspiration from the community and attract the influence of unofficial leaders. Midcentury leaders may have less of a proclivity for acquiescing to authority figures whose power is strictly role based (English et al., 2012).

Whether human relations has an enduring foothold in leadership preparation is unknown. The radical shift in core values expressed by the bloggers as numerical indicators of student outcomes that bypass real learning elicited deep discontent. Amidst this conflict, a drastically rewired, market-driven education system is here to stay. A blogger's lament is that

The current trend of demanding a business model responsive to market forces will continue to exert influence on preparation programs.

Decisions faculty make today could significantly affect midcentury leadership and schooling. How faculties choose to address trends in their programs by dealing with the human relations–market demands tension suggests different opportunities. The bloggers warned of negative fallout from heaping accountability demands on schools. Real student learning could be lost in aggregated test score profiles. Qualified leaders could abandon education in droves (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007).

The quality of leadership preparation programs will be affected by the disproportionate hiring of part-time faculty (Hackman & McCarthy, 2011). Administrators who hold licensure but from outside education may infiltrate distance delivery programs. As the years advance, insistence may escalate that school leaders do not require teaching or administration backgrounds. Leadership credentialing in education already accommodates corporate and military backgrounds. Leadership training does not necessarily translate to the education field or qualify professionals to educate future leaders.

Based on the blog responses, we are more aware that as we prepare leaders for tomorrow, these priorities will need to be better addressed and connections made. These issues require thoughtful integration into how we prepare leaders and how future professors might develop prospective leaders. Thus a question we pose to researchers is, how might faculty leaders better integrate sociopolitical goals with other prevalent trends, such as in the technology and accountability, with positive momentum for leadership preparation?

Some leadership preparation programs lack vision. Overusing temporary staff and misusing courses are problems. Because many professors are invested in a total-program approach to preparing school leaders, we advocate for more such hires. A challenge is how to accomplish this goal with fewer full-time faculty members covering more of the core course content. One of us teaches a course on the organizational management of schools. This overstuffed bushel contains *all* the content to be taught in the program and accreditation standards.

Another point is that collaboration in higher education (e.g., coteaching, coauthoring) is said to be highly valued but many work in silos. Whether professional isolation can be overcome is crucial for the viability of schools ((Johnson & Donaldson, 2007) and leadership preparation. About our institutional lives, we wonder why it has proven difficult to collaboratively work on our practice even though community-building is what we urge our school counterparts to do. In the future, faculty must act on our own messages. As a model, our scholarly community, consisting of new and senior professors, offers a unique and innovative approach, which has value in itself.

Another tension is that while many leadership students want online learning options, others believe that quality learning necessitates face-to-face (f2f) contact. Superintendents are influential; consequently, many U.S. programs are hybrids that enable interaction and career networking. Hybrid delivery may continue, highlighting technology use, alternative scheduling, and creative options. A goal is for courses to be amenable to transcontinental online platforms.

The breadth of diversity for leadership programs includes the emerging role of nontraditional leadership candidates. Tapping people from diverse backgrounds will help foster equitable education more broadly (Shah, 2010).

FUTURE RESEARCH AND ACTIONABLE DIRECTIONS

We have been good at dreaming in the U.S. and valuing intellectual freedom and innovation. One such dream for educational leadership is to restore human agency by taking back our institutions and ownership over our livelihoods.

It is time to exercise the potency of dreaming even as impending forces of corporate takeover besiege us. Ironically, we gain more of a foothold by learning how opponents wield power. Attacks on public education prevail: The managerial class pushes for centralized control and more tests that are rigorous and neoliberal corporations try to shut down public education while spreading seductive discourses of competition, freedom, and choice (Kumashiro, 2008). Instead, we must reflexively consider what we see as the future for leadership preparation, juxtapose it with what we believe education preparation should be, and then with conviction work to enact our desired future.

Because of the corporatization of leadership preparation, there is a strong sense that online leadership preparation programs *are* the future. While we are skeptical about the quality of online programs, we are testing that direction through a fully online statewide cohort that models socially just leadership and curricular innovation (Hewitt, et al., 2012).

Because how we think about the future informs what we do, and what we do reinforces that expected future, we must consciously move toward the future we want. A reliable role for senior faculty is to help junior faculty research ideas about the future and what we believe that future should be and how we can work to bring about our desires.

Finally, we encourage researchers to experience blogosphere communities first-hand. Research about the future of education and leadership preparation will propel intentionality about where we *are* heading and where we believe we *should be* heading. Consider that this is the first time the junior faculty authors have participated in a blogosphere study. They cite numerous benefits, validating core values about education, collaboration, practice, and advocacy. Takeaways from this project as future-minded collaborators reinforce stepping out of one's routines and theorizing about a subject that shapes our practices. They have learned to think about the future and affirmed that they can affect the future. Having unpacked ideas from different perspectives, they are more attuned to their generative capacities. They feel empowered to create a similar type of collegiality within their own domains.

These roadmaps for future research underscore that other researchers can participate in blog-based discussion about their thoughts and experiences and share outcomes at technological or f2f associations. Forethought and positively influencing education for future generations is our collective responsibility and binding commitment.

Endnotes

¹Second Life. [Online Metaverse software]. San Francisco, CA: Linden Research.

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The Relationship between Student Perceptions of School Safety and their Performance on Standardized Examinations in Alabama's Public Secondary Schools

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This quantitative study used data from the 2009-2010 PRIDE Surveys completed by students in 738 Alabama public schools serving students in grades 6 through 12. It found moderate positive relationships between student perceptions of their school's safety and their performance on the SAT10 reading and math tests at the eighth grade level, but only low positive relationships with their performance on the reading and math portions of the Alabama High School Graduation Exam. Students in urban schools perceived higher levels of violence and lower levels of positive influences and school safety than did students in non-urban districts. The factors of school violence, positive influences and negative influences showed no relationships with student performance on standardized exams at either the 8th or 11th grade levels.

According to the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (2011), in Alabama, 5.8% of the students felt unsafe to go to school, 10.9% reported having carried a weapon on school property, 7.5% reported having been threatened or injured with a weapon, 14.1% reported having been in a physical fight on school property, and 30.5% reported having had property stolen or deliberately damaged on school property. These figures closely approximate the national norms published by the Center. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of Alabama's sixth through twelfth grade students regarding the safety of their schools and the relationship of these perceptions to student performance on standardized examinations in math and reading.

SCHOOL SAFETY

Kochenderfer-Ladd and Skinner (2002) estimated that 10 to 20% of all school-aged children are the targets of relentless bullying. This victimization appears to peak during middle school and to gradually decrease in high school (National Center for Education Statistics, 1995). If all age groups are considered, violent episodes are 60% higher in city schools than in suburban schools and 30% higher than in rural schools (Nieman & Devoe, 2009). Schwab-Stone, Cohn, Greenberger, Silver, Lichtman, and Voyce (1999) also found urban students to be particularly at risk to victimization.

However, “demographics are not destiny when it comes to school safety” (Steinberg, Allensworth, & Johnson, 2011, p. 30). Students’ level of academic performance plays a bigger role in school safety than the school’s neighborhood. Once social and organizational structures and the school’s achievement levels are accounted for, the relationship of socioeconomic context and students’ perceptions of their school’s safety is less than half its original size (42%). For teacher perceptions, it is only 17% (Steinberg et al., p. 38).

SCHOOL SAFETY AND STUDENT ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

School safety issues influence the quality of what occurs in classrooms (Lintott, 2004); they disrupt and rob the teacher of and students of learning time (Aleem & Moles, 1993; Dinkes, Cataldi, & Lin-Kelly, 2007; Gottfredson, Gottfredson, Czeh, Cantor, Crosse, & Hantman, 2000). Gottfredson and Gottfredson (1989), Gresham (2008), and Roney, Coleman, and Schlichting (2007) found that school safety and personal security correlated positively with student academic outcomes. However, Tramaglioni (2010) found only a minimal relationship between school safety and student achievement and Gronna and Chin-Chance (1999) found no statistically significant relationships between students’ math and reading scores on the SAT9 examination and student safety, when controlling for student background characteristics and differences in school conditions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the relationships between secondary students’ academic performance on standardized exams in reading and mathematics and their self-reported perceptions of their school’s *safety*, *violence*, *positive influence*, and *negative influence* factors?
2. To what extent do student perceptions of these factors vary by the locale code (city, suburban, town, or rural) of the school?
3. What are the relationships among students’ self-reported perceptions of their school’s *safety*, *violence*, *positive influence factors*, *negative influence factors*, the percentage of students in the school qualifying for free or reduced price lunch, and the average daily membership of the school?

RESEARCH DESIGN

Being based wholly on pre-existing, quantitative data, the researchers chose a causal-comparative (ex-post-facto) design for the study. IBM SPSS19[®] software was used for all analyses, with alpha set at .05.

SAMPLE

All of the 1,042 Alabama public schools serving grades 6 through 12 were invited to participate in the *PRIDE Survey*. From this population, 738 schools did and were included in this study. Of these, 534 served students in grades six through nine; these students took the SAT10 examinations in reading and math. Three hundred and two schools served students in the eleventh grade; these students took the reading and math portions of the Alabama High

School Graduation Examination. Because the size of this sample was approximately three times larger than was required to have a 95% confidence level, it was considered to be adequate. However, because it was not a random sample, this was considered a limitation of the study. Examination of which schools and districts chose not to participate did not reveal any bias related to socio-economic levels of students served or district locale codes. For this study, the school was the unit of analysis. Because the surveys were completed by students during school classes, the return rate was well in excess of 80% in each school.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The data base on school safety was developed using International Survey Associates' *PRIDE Survey*. These paper-and-pencil student surveys were conducted statewide in Alabama during the 2009-2010 school year, under the aegis of the Alabama Department of Education. The mean percentage of respondents answering each item with a positive response was recorded for each school.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE DATA

International Survey Associates has conducted validity and reliability studies of their *Pride Surveys* since 1980, with strong results. The *PRIDE Surveys* have been adopted by the U. S. Department of Education and Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools, further attesting to the validity of the questions.

Following the advice of Skiba , Simmons, Peterson, McKelvey, Ford, and Gallini (2004), the researchers further explored the data using factor analyses and internal consistency analyses, with the intent of identifying clusters of survey items that loaded as factors. The factor analysis showed that the survey items essentially loaded on three components: *safety* (Cronbach alpha = .988), *violence* (Cronbach alpha = .748), and influences on the students, e.g., parents, teachers, peers, or the church. Although these influence items loaded on a single component, because they conceptually fell into two groups, *positive* (Cronbach alpha = .857) and *negative influences* (Cronbach alpha = .849), they were divided and analyzed separately to facilitate a better conceptual understanding of the findings. These very high coefficients were judged to substantiate the internal consistency (reliability) of each of the four factors. The items comprising the four factors identified are presented in Appendix A.

The percentage of students qualifying for free or reduced price lunch was retrieved from the Alabama Department of Education website. The school locale code data were downloaded from the National Center for Education Statistics' Common Core of Data (2009); these data are aggregated at the district, not school site, level.

The percentage of students scoring in the seventh, eighth, or ninth stanines on the 8th grade 2010-2011 SAT-10 mathematics and reading tests and the percentage of 11th grade students meeting or exceeding content standards (Levels III and IV) on the reading and mathematics portions of the Alabama High School Graduation Examination were downloaded from the Alabama Department of Education website.

The Stanford Achievement Test-10 (SAT-10) is a nationally recognized test used for the past eight decades and is considered a standard for assessing student progress. The reading section of the SAT-10 received an alpha reliability rating of .87 and the math section received ratings between .80 and .87 (Statistic solutions, n.d.).

The Alabama Department of Education sponsored the development of the Alabama High School Graduation Examination (AHSGE). Because of the extensive educator involvement in the development of this test, it is generally assumed to be valid. However, the Department does not release any data on its reliability. This is viewed as a limitation of this study.

Findings

To answer Research Question 1, on the relationships of the school safety factors to student performance on standardized exams, the researchers examined these relationships by using the curve fitting function of the software. Each relationship was examined using the linear, logarithmic, quadratic, and exponential curve fits, with a constant included in each equation. Very little difference in results was found among the four forms of correlation for any relationship, and the patterns displayed in the scattergram did not discernably fit any curve better than another. Consequently, the linear form was used and reported on throughout this study. Although all student perception variables had statistically significant relationships with student performance on the reading and math portions of the eighth grade SAT10 examination, only student perceptions of safety had statistically significant relationships with eleventh grade students' performance on the reading and math portions of the Alabama High School Graduation Examination (see Table 1). These correlations were only .057 and .072, respectively.

To answer Research Question 2, on the variation of student perceptions of school safety by their school's locale code, the researchers used Analysis of Variance to compare the means of the variables *violence*, *positive influences*, *negative influences*, and *school safety* by the locale codes of the National Center for Education Statistics (2009) Common Core of Data. First, the data were examined via Levene's statistic to determine homogeneity of variance. Only weapons ($\text{sig} = .046$) revealed violations of this assumption. As this factor did not appear to have problems of kurtosis or skew, the researchers decided to proceed, as Analysis of Variance is relatively robust in regard to the assumption of equality variances (George & Mallery, 2007). Because group sizes among the four locale codes were not equal, the harmonic mean of the group sizes was examined, which admittedly does not guarantee the Type I error level. Significant differences between locale groups were found for *school safety*, *violence*, and *positive influences*, but not for *negative influences*. Both Tukey and Scheffe tests were run on these three factors. For all three factors, significant differences were found between city schools and all other locale codes. No other differences between locales were statistically significant. For *weapons*, urban schools had a higher mean than any of the other locale codes. For both *school safety* and *positive influences*, urban schools had a lower mean than the other categories. Plotting the means substantiated the strong differences between urban schools and those in other locales.

Table 1
Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	ADM	FR	Safety	Violence	Positive Influence	Neg. Influence
	R Sig.	R Sig.	R Sig.	R Sig.	R Sig.	R Sig.
ADM		-.405 .000	-.048 .196	.069 .061	-.310 .000	.298 .000
Free/Reduced Lunch			-.232 .000	.276 .000	-.046 .210	-.120 .001
Safety				-.227 .000	.148 .000	-.048 .195
Violence					-.581 .000	.590 .000
Positive Influences						-.825 .000
SAT10 Math	.227 .000	-.647 .000	.170 .001	-.440 .000	.415 .000	-.287 .000
SAT10 Reading	.256 .000	-.736 .000	.231 .000	-.473 .000	.418 .000	-.253 .000
AHSGE Math	.100 .084	-.214 .000	.268 .000	-.028 .631	-.009 .870	.106 .067
AHSGE Reading	.128 .026	-.264 .000	.238 .000	-.046 .429	-.003 .956	.062 .282

To answer Research Question 3, on the relationships among the school safety factors, the percentage of students qualifying for either free or reduced price lunch, and the average daily membership of the school, the researchers calculated Pearson Product Moment correlations among the variables: *school safety*, *violence*, *positive influences*, *negative influences*, the percentage of students in the school qualifying for free or reduced price lunch, and the average daily membership of the school (see Table 1). Only moderate and strong correlations are reported and discussed. Correlations were considered *moderate* if they were in the .4 to .6 range and *strong* if above .6. Because of the large data set, all moderate and strong correlations were significant at the pre-established alpha level of .05.

As could be anticipated, a strong negative correlation ($r = -.825$) was found between the positive and negative influences. Also as anticipated, a moderate negative correlation ($r = -.477$) was found between the factors of *violence* and *positive influences*, whereas a similar,

but positive, correlation was found between *violence* and *negative influences* ($r = .590$). All other relevant correlations were low, indicating that student perceptions of safety, violence, and influences are relatively independent of the size or socio-economic level of their school. The percentage of students qualifying for free or reduced price lunch in a school had strong negative correlations with that school's performance on the SAT10 exams, but only low correlations with scores on the AHSGE.

CONCLUSIONS

Caution must be exercised in interpreting the findings of this research, primarily because the relationships among the variables were not clearly linear. With that caution taken, the findings of this study on school safety in Alabama's public secondary schools find some support in the knowledge base. For example, the finding that student perceptions of safety, violence, and influences in their schools were positively correlated to performance on standardized tests at the 8th grade level agrees with the findings of Gottfredson & Gottfredson (1989), Gresham (2008), and Roney et al (2007). The lack of relationship between perceptions of school safety and performance on standardized tests at the 11th grade level finds support in the works of Gronna and Chin-Chance (1999) and Tramalini (2010). One possible explanation of why these relationships differ so significantly may be partially explained by Kochenderfer-Ladd and Skinner's (2002) finding that bullying peaks in the middle school and drops off somewhat in high school. Furthermore, the high percentage of students who pass the 11th grade Alabama High School Graduation Exam, a criterion-referenced exam rather than a norm-referenced exam like the SAT10, may distort this relationship. The findings revealed that although student perceptions of safety, violence, and influences were not strongly related to the size of their school or its socio-economic level, those in urban schools rated their schools lower in all regards than did their non-urban peers.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Based on the findings of this study, recommendations for practice include:

1. Because student perceptions of *school safety* are significantly related to their performance on standardized examinations, at least at the middle school level, school leaders should constantly monitor student concerns with safety and take appropriate actions based on those concerns.
2. Because student perceptions of *school safety*, at least at the middle school level, appear to have a more direct and pronounced relationship with academic performance than do actual violence-related behaviors, school leaders should focus on building a positive climate and culture around school safety.
3. Because student awareness of school rules on drugs and bullying were strongly, positively related to student perceptions of safety in the critical areas of the classroom, bathrooms, and cafeteria, school leaders should inform students of these rules and enforce them consistently.
4. Because parental rules on their children's behavior, and their enforcement, are strongly negatively related to students having friends who use alcohol, marijuana, or tobacco, as well as with students carrying a knife at school and skipping school, school

leaders should encourage, and perhaps help to train, parents to develop and enforce appropriate rules.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of this study, the following are recommendations for further research:

1. Because the factors of *violence*, *positive influences*, and *negative influences* did not demonstrate much relationship with either academic performance or student perceptions of *school safety*, and because the relationships among these variables did not appear to conform well to either the linear, logarithmic, quadratic, or exponential curves, more sophisticated studies, e.g., successive, dummy-coded approximations, are needed to help to explain how those factors function in schools.
2. Because no significant relationships were found between any of the four factors and student performance on the Alabama High School Graduation Examination, similar studies to this one should be conducted in states using high school exams on which there is greater variation in student performance.
3. Because student perceptions of *school safety* showed such a significant relationship with academic performance, at least at the middle school level, qualitative studies should be conducted with students to investigate how they construct their perceptions of school safety.
4. Because school safety is a contextualized phenomenon, i.e., the student's home environment and neighborhood may well influence how students interact with school safety and violence, both quantitative and qualitative research should be conducted to investigate these dynamics.

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Catalysts for Change? Examining the Roles of Teacher Leaders and Learning Communities in Externally Created Professional Development Programs

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School administrators and program developers continue to struggle with how promising innovations can be absorbed into a school's professional culture and substantively transform individual practice. Drawing on case study data, this article examines the use of professional learning communities (PLCs) facilitated by teacher leaders to implement a formative assessment professional development program in the departments of an American high school. This approach created a promising scenario for engaging teachers. There was ongoing pressure, however, to prioritize departmental needs at the expense of fully exploring the content. To navigate these challenges, leaders needed additional content knowledge and a range of strategies and supports to deepen colleagues' understanding.

INTRODUCTION

School administrators and program developers continue to struggle with how promising teaching and learning innovations can be absorbed into a school's culture and substantively transform individual practice. Solutions lie, in part, with understanding and engaging a school's social dynamics and internal expertise. Two strategies that access this milieu are professional learning communities (PLCs) and teacher leadership. Such strategies recognize and engage the rich experiences and knowledge of teachers. Furthermore, those individuals most impacted are actively involved—thus enabling construction of an initiative in ways that are meaningful and relevant.

Much has been written about what constitutes a learning community and teacher leadership as well as anticipated benefits (Firestone & Martinez, 2007; Hord, 2004; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; Murphy, 2005; Stoll & Louis, 2007). Yet these teacher-led processes remain difficult to fully enact and sustain. It also remains somewhat unclear what is actually learned within such communities and how teacher leaders facilitate learning. Program developers need this information to strengthen programs. Schools need this information to create the necessary conditions to maximize the potential of such strategies.

This study offers a window into these challenges and highlights the core tension between attending to a program's content and the process created to support that content (Lieberman & Miller, 2008). Between 2007 and 2008, the author conducted a case study to examine how an externally developed formative assessment program was enacted in a suburban high school. This article asks: How do PLCs led by teacher leaders foster reflection

and use of formative assessment strategies? The article examines how PLCs and the teacher leader role were understood and crafted by teachers, teacher leaders, and school administrators in the school, and factors that contribute to the ways in which these strategies were enacted.

IMPLEMENTING EXTERNALLY CREATED PROGRAMS

Decades of research indicate that programs are altered by the individuals who interpret and implement them (Datnow, Hubbard & Mehan, 2002; McLaughlin, 1990; Supovitz & Weinbaum, 2008). A primary tension lies in implementing an initiative in a manner that reflects local needs and priorities without compromising fidelity to the core facets that make the initiative both viable and true to underlying goals. This tension is of particular concern for externally created designs developed by national or international organizations. Such designs are essentially templates and not created for a specific school.

PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Definitions of learning communities in schools center on notions of collaboration among colleagues, a focus on teaching and learning, deprivatized practice, reflection and conversation, and the intent to improve outcomes for all students (Hord, 2004; Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Such communities can support an innovation by providing opportunities for faculty to build a shared understanding, discuss classroom-based experiences, and develop ways to integrate new knowledge into their practice. However, to authentically engage teachers' expertise and judgment means to acknowledge teachers' authority (Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008) to alter or even reject a particular initiative.

Key components of building PLCs include the presence of shared work supported by a well-planned and facilitated process; leadership at the system, school, and teacher levels; and focused time allotted to the endeavour (Harris, 2010; Harris & Jones, 2010; Lieberman & Miller, 2008; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Learning communities possess both content and process dimensions (Lieberman & Miller, 2008). The challenge lies in finding a balance. Too little attention to content risks a superficial examination of new knowledge. Too little attention to process risks weakening the structures that support and sustain exploration of the content. Attention to content is of particular concern for externally created initiatives that have a strong theoretical base but depend on the school's internal social dynamics to uncover, embrace, and act from this complex foundation (McLaughlin & Mitra, 2002).

When a high school department is designated a PLC, as in this case study, it is important to consider the nature of these social units. Departments serve as the primary social and political space in which faculty work occurs, and provide important contexts for faculty exploration, support, and collegiality that facilitate or inhibit change (Harris, 2010; Little, 1995; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Siskin, 1994). The academic discipline is a defining element of the department context (Stodolsky & Grossman, 1995). Faculty members are trained to think and teach within a particular disciplinary frame and then work with content, priorities, and guidelines specific to their discipline.

TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Teacher leadership holds the promise of generating greater participation and ownership among the faculty around a particular initiative (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Yet teachers and schools face challenges when introducing a hierarchical relationship in a profession with strong norms of equality and autonomy (Little, 1995; Smylie, 1992; Smylie & Denny, 1990). Leading colleagues relies on teacher leaders' interpersonal skills—communication acumen, the ability to establish rapport and trust, and capacity to incur peer recognition and respect (Firestone & Martinez, 2007; Frost & Harris, 2003; Lieberman, Saxl, & Miles, 2007; Little, 1995; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Understanding and managing organizational change is important. These leadership characteristics center on capacities to read and navigate situations, school contexts, change processes, and colleagues' attitudes; abilities to identify and secure needed resources; and a willingness to take risks (Frost & Harris, 2003; Fullan, 2001; Heller & Firestone, 1995; Lieberman, Saxl, & Miles, 2007; Supovitz & Weinbaum, 2008).

School conditions influence teacher leader effectiveness. One must consider the existing culture of professional autonomy, the presumption of subject area expertise among high school faculty, and the level of trust among teacher leaders and colleagues to support change (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Siskin, 1994; Smylie, 1992). Time and opportunity for teacher leaders to interact with those they lead is vital (Firestone & Martinez, 2007; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). The principal's role is also critical. He or she places particular individuals in these positions, signals the importance of the role to the school community, distributes the authority to lead others, and directs needed resources to support the teacher leaders' work (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2008; Murphy, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The content of the externally created program implemented in this study is grounded in a strong theoretical and research base in formative assessment. In terms of process, teachers organize into PLCs facilitated by a colleague and meet on a regular basis over the course of two to three years. The designated teacher leader guides teachers through scripted modules during the PLC sessions. The teacher leaders receive program materials and training to prepare for their role. Teacher leaders are not intended to be formative assessment experts.

METHODS

Between 2007 and 2008, the author conducted a single embedded case study (Yin, 1994) to examine teacher understanding and use of the formative assessment content, and how PLCs led by teacher leaders foster reflection and use of this content.¹ The site, PLCs, and individual teachers were purposefully selected (Patton, 2002). Willard High School² was chosen from one of several secondary schools piloting the program because it was in the early stages of implementation. Three out of five PLCs were identified for focused examination. The math

¹ The research was supported by a National Science Foundation-funded non-profit organization that seeks to strengthen K-12 math and science instruction.

² A pseudonym.

and science PLCs were targeted based on the interests of the organization providing outside training to schools and funding this study. The social studies PLC was identified by the school administration. Within each selected PLC, interviews were requested from the two teacher leaders and three additional teachers who represented a range of interest in the program. Additional interviews were conducted with school leaders.

Data included interviews, observations, and documents. During the second year of implementation, 28 interviews were conducted with 17 teachers and administrators. The interviews explored perceptions of the 'PLC facilitated by teacher leader' structure and how it supported understanding and use of the content. Interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. The researcher conducted observations during two days of PLC sessions and two teacher leader training sessions. The researcher reviewed documents including the scripted modules, teacher-created activities, and papers authored by the program's designers outlining the intent and rationale for the program.

Data analysis focused on identifying and describing patterns that emerged from the data regarding the development of and value ascribed to PLCs facilitated by teacher leaders. The framework for analysis was guided by the literature, prior research conducted by the author and colleagues, and themes that emerged during data collection and analysis. Two primary analytic techniques were employed to identify patterns: constant comparison of the data and triangulation of data sources (multiple informants) and methods (interviews, observations, and documents).

FINDINGS

Willard High School serves a small, relatively affluent, suburban school district. Faculty culture is characterized by a strong sense of autonomy and professional pride. Growing disparities in student achievement and federal accountability prompted school leaders to place greater emphasis on improving outcomes for all students and, as the principal phrased it, "meeting students where they are." For two years, the school allotted its limited professional development days to the formative assessment initiative in support of this school wide focus. During this same period, the administration also began to foster greater faculty ownership over professional development.

The formative assessment implementation encountered several common challenges. Five PLC sessions were held over a two-year period, falling far short of the monthly meetings detailed in the program design. The administrator with oversight over the program left and was replaced by an administrator with limited knowledge of the program. Teacher leadership changed between the first and second years. Competing school priorities posed ongoing challenges to faculty focus on formative assessment.

Despite these challenges, there was strong support for PLCs facilitated by a teacher leader as a model for professional development. The format offered faculty a greater sense of ownership over their professional development during the PLC sessions. This provided a starting point from which to build teacher engagement in the initiative.

Departmental Contexts Matter for PLCs

Early in the study, it became clear that to understand how the program unfolded it was necessary to understand the nature of the departments. Each Willard department comprised a distinct social group with an identity and history, established patterns of interaction, and

common work. These departmental characteristics provided the backdrop against which teachers explained how the program was evolving.

The status of the curriculum strongly influenced department priorities for the formative assessment program. The social studies department was struggling to create a more cohesive curriculum that encompassed a wide range of disciplines. There was a strong sense that this discussion needed to precede exploration of formative assessment. During the PLC sessions, the scripted modules frequently served as a jumping off point for these conversations.

The veering off in my opinion is very helpful because we talk about teaching. So I look at it as a vehicle to help us do that as a department. It wasn't something that we normally would do as a department.

While this practice served departmental needs and reflected many of the goals of a learning community including deprivatizing practice, focusing on teaching and learning, and encouraging reflection and conversation, it was not necessarily a PLC designed to further the goals of this particular initiative.

Tension between department and program priorities also manifested itself in the math PLC. The math department had a cohesive curriculum developed over several years through a prior reform effort that involved extensive faculty collaboration. The math department reflected many characteristics identified in advanced PLCs including a focus on improved practice, shared accountability, and—perhaps most significantly for this study—“ownership of reform work” (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006, p. 36). Some of the more senior faculty concluded that their department's work had evolved beyond what the formative assessment program offered—an assessment not shared by outside trainers and teachers more familiar with the program. Thus, while some individual math teachers were deeply engaged in experimenting with formative assessment in their classrooms (with encouragement from their math colleagues), formative assessment was not the overriding focus of collective inquiry within this PLC.

Finding Time

Adequate time is consistently identified as a key condition for implementing an initiative as well as for fostering strong learning communities and teacher leadership. At Willard, professional development days were extremely limited. Monthly departmental meetings allowed little room for deeper discussions of pedagogy. Thus, the PLC sessions became rare spaces in the schedule for focused departmental conversations. There was intense pressure among the faculty to use the PLC time in ways that would best serve the priorities of the department rather than the formative assessment program.

Delicate Dance of Leading Colleagues

Leading peers to adopt an outside initiative is a complex undertaking. A teacher leader is a member of his or her department but is also tasked by the administration and program to introduce the initiative to colleagues. This requires a delicate dance of communicating content and facilitating meaningful discussions that push understanding of that content forward, while retaining membership within one's peer group.

At Willard, teachers appreciated that peers led the initiative. These leaders were familiar with the school and department, and adapted the content to local priorities. However, teachers did not view them as formative assessment experts. Furthermore, teacher leaders who were enthusiastic about formative assessment seemed to deliberately de-emphasize their role in implementing the program. This enabled them to sublimate their authority over colleagues and, if necessary, dissociate themselves from the initiative. “I said that from the beginning, that I wasn’t a [program] expert. That I just had the information and I was handing the information on, that I wasn’t by any means the guru of [the program] or anything like that.” Several members of this department appreciated this approach. “It is also good... not feeling like it was personal—it wasn’t [this teacher leader’s] program.” This facilitative rather than expert approach was consistent with the program’s premise that teacher leaders share the learning experience with colleagues.

However, the fellow traveller stance left the program without strong advocates in key positions and posed significant challenges for moving conversations about formative assessment to a deeper level. Here both process and content dimensions of the program were challenged. All teacher leaders needed additional training in a range of strategies and supports to foster collective reflection and engage those resisting program ideas. Those teacher leaders with limited background in formative assessment also needed more content knowledge to guide their colleagues’ exploration to a deeper level.

Like But Competing Priorities for Teacher-Led Change

While the formative assessment program’s expectations for teacher leaders were consistent with school objectives, the school focus was oriented towards general leadership development rather than meeting specific leadership needs for this initiative. Selection of new teacher leaders in the second implementation year was based on leadership potential and ability to garner respect rather than knowledge of, or commitment to, formative assessment practices. This created challenges. With constricted time allotted to the program, these new teacher leaders had limited opportunities to learn about and buy-in to the program’s approach to formative assessment, let alone hone facilitation strategies. Thus, these individuals were not well positioned to advocate for or make adaptation decisions that supported core goals of the program.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Learning communities led by teacher leaders are intuitively appealing. They tap into conceptions of democratic participation in the life of schools and engage those who work most directly with students. Yet—as was demonstrated in this case—realizing the promise of PLCs and teacher leaders to support exploration and use of externally created professional development is complex. The balance between content and process (Lieberman & Miller, 2008) is a fundamental one for such programs. To authentically engage teachers’ professional expertise and judgment, PLCs and teacher leaders must have the authority to adapt or even reject content. At the same time, this can undermine exploration and use of the program’s content if that authority is not accompanied by the presence of someone with a deep grasp of the content to help guide decisions to adapt or reject content.

At this school, a key contributor to faculty enthusiasm for PLCs facilitated by a teacher leader was the use of the department as the organizing structure. This raises important

implementation questions. On the one hand, a department-based structure can jumpstart development of a learning community oriented towards a particular initiative because these organizational units possess building blocks of community including shared identity, work, and social norms. This might offer an attractive strategy when faced with severe time constraints. However, departments have unique priorities and ways of operating that impact how an outside initiative is engaged. The challenge for program designers and schools lies in analyzing how these contexts shape encounters with the program content and then tailoring supports accordingly. How does a mature learning community oriented towards a prior effort shift gears to focus on a new externally imposed initiative? How do the supports needed to make such a shift differ from those of a community in the early stages of collective inquiry? And, how can an externally created effort be linked to the fundamental work of a department? Answers may call for a greater investment of resources on the part of the school and/or the program.

The teacher leader role involves exerting influence over peers in a profession with strong norms of equality and autonomy (Little, 1995; Smylie & Denny, 1990). Teacher leaders need time, facilitation strategies, content knowledge, and a clear message that the initiative is a priority for the school (Frost & Harris, 2003; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2008; Murphy, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This study highlights the fact that a school's generalized support for teacher leadership is only a starting point. School administrators and program designers need to pay careful attention to the particular needs of the teacher leader role created to facilitate a specific initiative.

Willard's experience implementing the formative assessment program and its supporting mechanisms reflects common challenges. However, faculty enthusiasm for such teacher-led initiatives poses a powerful argument for continued exploration and use of these strategies. Growing understanding of these strategies and the conditions under which they are enacted informs those developing and seeking to implement initiatives in ways that engage teachers' expertise and commitment.

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Understanding School Administrator Influence on Co-Taught Classrooms in the Middle School

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Co-teaching is a service delivery model that usually involves a general education teacher paired with a special education teacher in the mainstream classroom setting. Both teachers can coordinate instruction to meet the needs of a heterogeneous class of students that includes students with special needs. This study examined how teachers understood their experiences in co-taught classrooms as they worked to meet the needs of all students and how administrators understood their roles to administer the model. This included examining their perspectives about the co-teaching model and the relationships that are formed between co-teachers. We conducted a descriptive study that used qualitative research methods to understand the perspectives of school administrators and teachers involved in co-taught settings. The data collection method was semi-structured interviews. Participants consisted of administrators and teachers in order to develop a cross section of perspectives. The site for this study was John H. Brown Middle School located in a culturally diverse urban neighborhood.

INTRODUCTION

In response to legislation that mandated inclusive special education settings, school district personnel turned increasingly to co-teaching as a method to comply with various federal and state special education laws. Co-teaching is a structural arrangement in which a special education teacher is paired with a general education teacher in the same classroom, as a means of supporting students with special needs in the general education environment. The literature on co-teaching and the analysis of the data suggests that administrative support influences the arrangement and harmony of co-teaching situations. Although the empirical literature suggests that the actions of school administrators can influence the efficacy of the co-teaching model, there are no requirements from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), or from other regulatory bodies that education administration preparation programs address the topic.

PURPOSE AND QUESTIONS

There exists some anecdotal information on the influence of school administrator actions on the efficacy of the co-teaching model, however there were few qualitative descriptive studies from the perspective of teachers and school administrators. Hence there is little literature for in-service and pre-service administrators to access to learn more about the

topic. Taking into account this contextual element, there was a need for a descriptive qualitative study that used teacher and school administrator testimonies as the primary avenue for investigating co-teaching and the influence of administrative support on how the model functions in the middle school.

We used the following questions to guide our inquiry:

1. What are co-teachers' perspectives on administrative support for co-teaching?
2. How do co-teachers' understandings of co-teaching roles and responsibilities differ from the school administration's understanding?
3. How do school administrators influence co-teaching teams?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature on co-teaching suggests that it is a service delivery model used to meet the demands for the placement of students with special needs in the least restrictive environment (Friend, 2007). In some ways, it seems as though the co-teaching model appeared as a pragmatic response to legislation and not from instructional theory or research. In a number of studies investigators determined that educators used co-teaching because it was the most practical method to comply with special education laws. This perspective of co-teaching is one reason why we argue that the theoretical framework of co-teaching rests upon the assumptions of productivity theory, which comes from the world of operations management (Heizer, 2003).

Productivity theory is grounded in the idea that a given amount of inputs will yield a desired output. In the case of co-teaching, the theory is that two certified teachers are better than one and that two teachers will be able to effectively manage and educate more students with special needs in the general education setting. Thus, co-teaching can theoretically drive down the costs associated with educating students with special needs (Salend, 1999).

Throughout the literature several studies suggested that labor specialization or division of labor, ala Mintzberg (1979), is a lynchpin within effective co-teaching relationships. Labor specialization means that every person on a team has specific tasks that he or she must complete. Specialization requires a clear definition of roles and responsibilities. Based on the existing literature, co-teaching is most effective and most efficient when the teachers perceive clear roles and responsibilities for their colleagues and collaborate to meet the expectations of those roles and responsibilities (Friend and Bursuck, 2008).

METHODS

This qualitative study was conducted at one public middle school, John H. Brown (Grades 6-8) located in a large urban school district situated in the Northeast United States. The school had a diverse instructional staff. There were 113 instructional staff members (29 males, 84 females): Almost 50% were non-white. There were three school administrators (2 male, 1 female): 1 Black and 2 White.

We purposefully sampled teachers and administrators from the middle school based on their experiences with co-teaching in order to develop a cross section of multiple perspectives. We wanted to decrease the chances of having a sample of "like minded" individuals. The

participants consisted of three administrators, four general education teachers, and six special education teachers (n=13).

Data Collection

We conducted two semi-structured interviews with each the participants. Each interview lasted approximately 60 minutes. The initial interview used 25 questions followed by a second interview four weeks later with approximately 10 questions driven by the research questions and responses from the participants to the initial set of questions. Interview questions were open-ended to generate rich data.

Analysis

Analysis of the data was an ongoing process. We used a two-stage analysis strategy: single-case analysis followed by cross-case analyses. During the analysis process, each participant was treated initially as a case. The purpose of the single-case analysis was to summarize individual participant experiences and understandings to create initial personal narratives for each participant. After we developed an understanding of each participant we used a cross-case analysis to identify themes across the sample. We re-analyzed each transcript and constructed final personal narratives from participant interviews. We used the personal narratives to highlight relationships, trends and contradictions in the data. Multiple perspectives and related themes emerged from the data. We focused our inferences and conclusions on the influence of administrative support on the co-teaching arrangement.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study are generalizable to other urban middle schools with similar staff and student demographics and that use a similar approach to co-teaching. One theme that emerged from the data was a lack of administrative support and that lack of support resulted in role ambiguity and role conflict on the part of teachers. We present specific themes below.

YOYO (You're On Your Own)

Administrators at John H. Brown suggested that they created an environment in which teachers could ask for help. In other words, the school administrators perceived that they provided teachers with as much support as they could for the teachers to succeed in co-teaching. Overall, the administration was supportive of the individual needs of the teachers. However, they were not supportive of the interpersonal and organizational needs of co-taught classrooms based on the perspectives offered by the teachers and the responses of the school administrators.

Teachers suggested that they were free to ask the school administration for help regarding a number of issues, including classroom materials, leaving work early, or changing classrooms. Teachers at John H. Brown were very happy with the administration with regards to these aspects of work. Conversely, teachers felt alone when they needed help with their co-teaching partner. The overall opinion of the administration, as described by the co-teaching pairs, was "figure it out on your own." Teachers at John H. Brown were insulted by this stance and assumed that the administration was supposed to be the leaders of the building; therefore, they should be able to assist with co-teaching problems.

The administration stated that many of the teacher's complaints were unfair. They stated that they saw their jobs to be the instructional leaders of the building, not to be relationship counselors. The teachers felt that they needed someone with formal authority to adjudicate interpersonal and structural conflicts related to co-teaching. However, the administration suggested that both co-teachers should be professional and "work it out" amongst themselves.

Teachers at John H. Brown continued to report their problems to the administration. They stated that their problems were not trivial interpersonal problems of two teachers not "liking" each other. The teachers described problems that were organizational and structural in nature that lead to interpersonal problems of role conflict and feelings of inadequacy. Many of the problems that the teachers presented to the administration clustered around pairing of teachers and unclear roles in the co-teaching model. Teachers at John H. Brown stated they became increasingly frustrated because the administration would not step in and help problem-solve.

Usually, general education teachers asked to be paired with a special education teacher who had a similar educational background. The pairs felt they would be able to each use their professional strengths in terms of content and pedagogical expertise to produce a model that worked for the students and teachers. In essence, the teachers understood the power of appropriate labor specialization (Mintzberg, 1979). The teachers stated that the school administration never acknowledged requests for specific pairings. Instead the school administration often paired teachers with different pedagogical backgrounds or philosophies. The teachers described situations in which the administration teamed someone who was teacher-centered with a special education teacher who attempted to actualize progressive, student-centered approaches to teaching. The mismatch in pedagogical approaches resulted in acrimonious feelings between the teachers and a limited role for the special education teacher.

One special education teacher described a situation in which she was paired with a general education teacher who "did not believe in inclusion" and did not want to modify assignments and lessons to meet the needs of students with special needs. Another special education described a situation in which the general education co-teacher did not want to use hands-on methods because he felt those were elementary school strategies. The school administration created a forced marriage in which the general education teacher was the lead teacher and controlled the situation and it lead to a reduced teaching role for the special education teacher.

Participants' responses reflected an array of different types of support or lack of support. Teachers' and administrators' answers to the question of support varied considerably. However, teachers' responses clustered around one central disposition displayed by the school administration; "You on your own" (YOYO). Seven teachers stated that the support provided by the administration was lackluster and ornamental at best.

Teacher participants noted that one aspect of support was the way in which the administration helped teachers solve their differences in terms of roles and teaching duties. The teachers were aware of how the school administration dealt with co-teaching role conflicts that arose in the building but the school administration did not seem to be aware of or understand the perspectives of the teachers. The teachers wanted structure and role clarity. The administrators took a hands-off stance and wanted the teachers to determine those aspects. A special education teacher explained, "You're...tossed into [a classroom], two people who never worked with each other are put together and then in a matter of a couple

days they are supposed to develop this type of bond and teach these kids.” Another teacher remarked that the school administrators told him, “You’ve got to solve your own problems. Come to me if it’s very important.”

One of the general education teachers described the administration’s stance on co-teacher support as flawed. He thought that if two people have difficulty with co-teaching it is the administration’s responsibility to at least assist them with repairing their partnership. He thought that if the co-teachers had the skills to solve their own problems they wouldn’t be at war in the first place. He stated that if there are problems “...between the two [teachers], that means they don’t have the skills to solve it [on their own]. There has to be a third party [administration] to come in to solve it.” He concluded this thought by stating, “But no, you didn’t do that. You don’t send the third party to solve it; you just leave them in there.”

Another teacher explained that, “Once you start your day, the administrators pay no attention to you and you’re pretty much left to your own resolve.” She later stated, “When you’re thrown into a co-teaching situation without knowing the various co-teaching models [e.g. parallel teaching, station teaching], it would be helpful to know that there are different models you can choose from, we don’t even get that.”

When asked how the administration helped teachers solve their problems, one of the school administrators of John H. Brown stated that the teachers were encouraged to try and solve co-teaching problems on their own, before bringing it to the attention of the administration. The administrator said that the approach taken by the administration was primarily due to the fact that the administration’s solution will always be in the best interest of the students, not the teachers, and that in the administrator’s opinion sometimes the solutions did not sit well with the teachers. The administrator went on to say, “They (the teachers) usually bring it (a problem) to an administrator, then we tell them, ‘Make it work,’ because you’re not going to like the suggestion that we give you.”

Role Ambiguity and Second-Class Citizens?

Throughout the interviews, teacher participants discussed the roles they adopted within the classroom. There was one main role that special education teachers described: second-class citizen. The term second-class citizen is usually defined as being less than or lower than one’s counterpart. This term also suggests that there is a hierarchical system that exists within an organization. At the John H. Brown School, staff members were part of an informal hierarchical system. At the top of the system were the general education teachers with at least 10 years of classroom experience. The novice general education teachers with five or less years of experience occupied the next rung. The special education teachers occupied the bottom rung of the ladder regardless of teaching experience.

At the John H. Brown School, teachers and administrators described the position of special education teacher as being less than that of a general education teacher. They were viewed as a type of uncertified teacher aide. Special education teachers stated that being thought of as an “aide” made them feel like a second-class citizen. Special education teachers suggested that they perceived their positions as less important than the general education teacher’s position because of how the other teachers perceived the job of special education teacher. A special education teacher stated, “There’s definitely a couple of kids last year and this year who look at me with less authority because I travel around with them.” The feeling of inadequacy was confirmed by a general education teacher when he said, “I just feel like

they get [are thought as] the low man on the totem pole.” Another general education teacher admitted, “The general education teachers always consider themselves the lead teacher.”

The school administrators’ perceptions of the hierarchy between general and special education teachers were similar. One administrator commented, “In some rooms the special education teacher’s desk is in the corner and the general education teacher’s [desk] faces the class. Right away you’re showing me the general education teacher is in charge. You’re [special education] just in the back.” A second administrator explained, “The general education teachers take the lead because they are in the same classroom all day, teaching the same subject. The general education teacher is used to running their own show, used to having the classroom to themselves.” A third administrator seemed to echo the perceptions of the special education teachers when he said, “I’m sure they feel like a glorified substitute...I think they feel like an overused or an abused resource.”

To add perceived insult to perceived injury, the special education teachers explained that many of the decisions the school administrators made with regards to curriculum development, planning, and instruction did not involve special education teachers. On any given school day the administration required a special education teacher to act as a substitute teacher and cover classes in the building due to a lack of traditional substitutes. This was a common practice, usually weekly, and created tension between the administration and the special education teachers. According to the special education teachers, the data suggested that it was an unconscious decision when the administration assigned a special education teacher to act as a substitute teacher. It was part of the way things were done in the building. Conversations with special education teachers revealed that this was their greatest challenge. Many of them said things like, “That’s why I’m taking the Praxis in math ... to get out of special education,” or “Next year I got to get a new gig ... out of special education.” The reassignment of special education teachers to act as substitute teachers was a common practice at this school and reinforced the feeling of second-class citizens.

Overall, the general education teachers agreed with the notion that special education teachers were required to substitute teach more than they thought they should. The general education teachers insinuated that this practice was unfair to both parties. One teacher stated, “When the special education teacher is called to substitute, he or she and does not know what is being taught the next day in the general education classroom.”

A number of co-teaching teams in the building indicated they felt challenged to meet the needs of their students due to the special education teachers being called to substitute. As a result, the general education teacher became frustrated with his/her partner and slowly began to exclude the special education teacher from the lesson planning and classroom activities.

The administration presented diverging opinions with regards to this issue. One administrator suggested that he/she did not require special education teachers to substitute often, whereas another school administrator suggested that it happened all of the time. The data suggest that either the administrators did not collaborate on substitute staffing decisions or they had differing viewpoints about what constitutes “often” in terms of the use of special education teachers as substitutes.

The special education teachers suggested that the students at this school observed the special education teachers moving from class to class with them and assumed that the special education teachers were not as important as the general education teachers. The special education teachers said they heard students saying things like, “You’re not a real teacher ... you’re always with us and you must be some type of bootleg teacher.” This is another factor

that contributed to the special education teachers perceived as second-class citizens. The nomadic nature of the special education teachers added to their role as a second-class citizen.

In addition to being nomadic, special education teachers lacked a workstation that was equivalent to their general education counterparts' workstations. In the realm of education, a workstation is any place where a teacher can place his or her instructional materials. In most of the classrooms the teachers each received a desk to work at. However, the general education classroom teacher usually placed the special education teachers' desk off to the side or in the rear of the classroom. Special education teachers stated that this practice was another example of how they were treated like second-class citizens.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major finding from this study is that a lack of administrative support and clarity for the co-teaching structure leads to the breakdown of the co-teaching process. A lack of administrative support drives three destructive themes in co-taught classrooms. These themes include, (a) lack of a formal structure (b) role ambiguity and (c) role conflict. Several of the issues related to role ambiguity stemmed from a lack of organizational structure. School administrators must provide a framework for teachers to operate in co-taught classrooms. This includes a detailed description of roles and responsibilities. The work of economist and sociologist Max Weber (as cited in Bolman & Dean, 2003) provides a basic blueprint for what administrators should incorporate in co-taught classrooms. Within his work on organizational bureaucracy, he highlighted the fact that jobs need detailed rights, obligations, responsibilities and scope of authority (Bolman & Deal, 2003). In order to develop a sense of understanding within co-taught classrooms, school administrators could do some or all of the following (a) clearly delineate expectations for roles and responsibilities of co-teaching partners, (b) provide co-teaching partners opportunities to participate in role reversal activities (Muney, 1968), and (c) limit the use of special education co-teachers as emergency substitute teachers. School administrators need to socialize co-teaching partners, through professional development and articulation activities, to establish co-teaching structures and specialization of labor routines and responsibilities. This can be accomplished through the process of collaborative leadership and creating a list of common professional goals.

Practice Collaborative Leadership

One of the issues discussed was the lack of support that the administration provides co-teachers. Several teachers stated that they would like to see the administration get more involved in the components of co-teaching such as team meetings, team building, collaboratively scheduling with the teachers, collaboratively developing co-teaching pairs, and providing information about the various structures for co-teaching such as teaming, station teaching, or one teach / one assist. Using collaborative leadership as a guide, administrators can become more equipped to meet the everyday demands of co-teaching.

Collaborative leadership is a more democratic approach to governance in which all stakeholders are involved in the decision making process. Collaborative leadership with stakeholder input aligns with Productivity Theory in that the inputs and the process matter greatly on the effect of the output. Collaboration during the formation of co-teaching teams (input) and then after formation through collaborative problem-solving and professional

development (process) should help to alleviate some of the issues raised by the teachers in this study.

Collaborative leadership can be accomplished without reducing the administrator's formal authority. According to Hallinger & Heck, (2010) "collaborative leadership focuses on strategic school-wide actions that are directed toward school improvement and shared among the principal, teachers, administrators and others" (p.97). When implemented properly, collaborative leadership uses several governance structures and organizational practices that empower staff members and support broad participation in decision-making. Participation in the decision-making process is often in the form of inquiry. Staff members become interested with how the school is organized and begin to understand the reasoning behind certain decisions. According to Hallinger, (2003) "the collaborative process inherent to the enquiry approach to school improvement offer the opportunity for teachers to study, learn about, to share and to enact leadership" (p.340).

IMPLICATIONS FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION PREPARATION PROGRAMS

The existing literature and results from our study suggest a need exists for professors of education administration to at least address the issue of how to lead and administer co-teaching structures and thus, better meet the needs of students with special needs. We do not propose an entire course on the subject, as there is certainly no room left in the curriculum after satisfying the various regulatory requirements (e.g. NCATE standard 1). However, we do propose that professors include a section of study in a leadership or supervision of instruction course about the influence of administrative leadership on the efficacy of the co-teaching model and how it influences meeting the needs of special education students. Because inclusionary practices are mandated by state and federal law, and special education is an area that creates many potential legal issues for school administrators, it stands to reason that the topic deserves at least an honorable mention in the preparation curriculum.

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Developing the Dispositions of Future Educational Leaders: A Focus on Social Justice

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The effects of a social justice curriculum on the development of positive dispositions of future educational leaders were examined. Students enrolled in an online, advanced level Foundations of Educational Leadership course for pre-service principals completed a Likert-style survey both at the beginning and at the end of the course. This survey was based on the 43 preparation standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). Results indicated that at the end of the course scores on the survey were significantly higher than at the beginning. This study provides evidence, therefore, of a significant impact of a social justice curriculum on the development of positive dispositions.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of our study was to explore the effects of a social justice curriculum on the self-reported dispositions of students in an advanced level Foundations of Educational Leadership online course for pre-service principals. The course was part of the curriculum in an educational leadership principal preparation graduate program. Gaining a reputation in the program as the “social justice” course, some students looked forward to the experience as an opportunity to learn how to become social justice leaders while others only minimally engaged in the work. Even though we knew from previous experiences that students’ responses to social justice issues can be polarizing and sometimes contentious, we set out in a deliberate attempt to positively impact the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of our students in order to prepare them for the difficult work they will face whether or not they choose to be advocates and leaders for social justice. We understood this to be a challenging and complex task, but “failure to prepare administrators to engage in difficult work that requires a shift in values, attitudes, and behaviors within the school community severely limits their ability to address fundamental social justice issues” (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005, p. 204) once they become principals. This becomes even more problematic for many students “who do not come to do social justice work. Many potential leaders have not seen a different or a better way, and though many state their desire to do this type of work, they require particular dispositions to become inclusive school leaders” (Theoharis & Causton-Theoharis, 2008, p. 242).

During the course, students engaged in many required readings on social justice leadership including Marshall and Oliva’s (2006) book, *Leadership for Social Justice*:

Making Revolutions in Education. In response to readings, students participated in several threaded discussion boards, and wrote two scholarly critical self-reflective essays on social justice issues related to race, gender, class, and sexuality. We believe that such critical self-reflection is a method for students to “identify and come to grips with their prejudices and assumptions arising from their cultural backgrounds” (Furman, 2012, p. 197) prior to becoming principals. Additionally, students completed one survey at the start of the course and one at the end of the course where they rated their values, beliefs, and commitment to the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium’s (ISLLC) set of 43 dispositions (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996³). According to ISLLC, dispositions are the statements that principal candidates are supposed to believe in, value, and be committed to within the context of the broader standards (e.g., “the principal candidate believes in, values, and is committed to the inclusion of all members of the school community”) (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Assessment of dispositions has been widely studied in the field of teacher education for many years (Diez & Murrell, 2010; Harrison, McAfee, Smithy, & Weiner, 2006; Phelps, 2006; Taylor & Wasicsko, 2000; Wasicsko, 2002; Wasicsko, Callahan, & Wirtz, 2004) and more recently in the field of educational leadership (Brown, Herron, & King, 2008; Green, Chirichello, Mallory, Melton, & Lindahl, 2011; McKerrow, Crawford, & Cornell, 2006; Melton, Tysinger, Mallory, & Green, 2011). As an integral part of ongoing program approval, whether under state or the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) review, all principal preparation programs must demonstrate how well their graduates have the knowledge and skills to lead present day schools. Although all schools are required to collect such content knowledge data, schools seeking NCATE accreditation are also required to assess candidate dispositions. Assessing dispositions for principal candidates is an important process, not only for accreditation purposes, but also because “dispositions are the proclivities that lead us in one direction rather than another within the freedom of action that we have” (Perkins, as cited in Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996).

Research on the assessment of dispositions of both pre-service and in-service educational leaders has been limited at best partly due to the fact that assessing what people value or believe in can be difficult. Of the studies that have been conducted, many have incorporated elements of the dispositions as outlined by ISLLC. Three recent studies, summarized below, all focused on the ISLLC dispositions in general and included to some degree issues of social justice.

In an attempt to understand the relationship between the ISLLC dispositions and principals’ decision-making capabilities, sixteen principals were interviewed and asked to respond to vignettes requiring decision-making (Hutton, 2007). The purpose of the study was to determine whether or not these principals made decisions that reflected any of the 43 ISLLC dispositions, which were categorized as social justice, democratic leadership, school improvement, and courage/risk-taking. Results indicated that all four areas were represented

³ In 2008, the Council of Chief State School Officers issued a revised set of ISLLC standards. The Educational Leadership Program had adopted the 1996 standards and dispositions, and for that reason we opted to base our research on those dispositional elements.

in the decision-making of the principals to some degree. Specifically related to issues of social justice, most of the principals believed that the “inclusion of all members of the school community” and having a “caring school community” were extremely important. Moreover, it was noted that, in fact, “all 12 dispositions listed under the heading of social justice were addressed in some manner by the interviewed principals...and the totality of the decisions made by the principals reflected all the social justice dispositions though expressed in many different ways” (Hutton, 2007, p. 118).

McKerrow, Crawford, and Cornell (2006) examined the importance of the ISLLC standards and dispositions to principal licensure programs and the professional development and practice of current administrators. In this study, a sample of practicing principals was surveyed on the “importance” and the “degree to which each disposition was emphasized” in their principal preparation programs. General findings indicated that these principals believed that the ISLLC standards and dispositions were very important or important to their practice, and they agreed that the strongest emphasis in their programs was on the disposition related to school improvement. The study also compared principals who were exposed to ISLLC standards and dispositions and those who were not (those in preparation programs prior to the adoption of the ISLLC standards). Findings suggest that principals who were in principal licensure programs that emphasized ISLLC “perceived collaboration, ethics, social justice and school improvement as more important” than their counterparts. One conclusion, although not significant, was that younger principals who were exposed to ISLLC standards and dispositions placed a greater emphasis on the importance of collaboration, ethics, social justice, and school improvement.

Finally, in an exploratory qualitative study, Lindahl (2008) interviewed 35 educational leadership faculty members from across the United States to examine to what extent and how dispositions are taught and assessed in their principal preparation programs. Findings indicated that most, if not all faculty members “make at least some attempt to teach and evaluate student acquisition of these dispositions...and in some classes dispositions are taught better than others” (Lindahl, 2008, p. 24). It was noted that dispositions are most commonly assessed during the internship experience through mentoring by supervising principals. In the conclusion, he discussed the importance of furthering the exploration of and finding appropriate roles for dispositions in principal preparation programs. “If a role is to be socially just and if dispositions are to have consequential validity, the questions posed must be addressed to the full ability of our institutions and of our profession” (Lindahl, 2008, p. 32).

PERSPECTIVE

Because the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a social justice curriculum on the development of attitudes and dispositions of students in our leadership preparation program, our perspective comes from Marshall and Oliva’s (2010) work on leadership for social justice. This framework is both theoretical and practical in terms of understanding a more realized ideal of leadership where principals would not be “disinterested managers of their environments and contexts, but astute activists, ready with strategies and the sense of responsibility to intervene to make schools equitable” (Marshall & Oliva, 2010, p. 1). It was our hope to better understand our research in terms of developing strategies for “rethinking and taking leadership for school practices to better meet diverse students’ needs” (Marshall & Oliva, 2010, p. 4).

METHODOLOGY

As stated previously, we recently conducted a study in an advanced level Foundations of Educational Leadership online course that represented part of the curriculum of a leadership preparation program. We have attempted to explore the possible effects of a social justice curriculum on the self-reported dispositions of students in a five-week course.

Research Design

For purposes of this study, we developed a Likert-scale survey instrument, which included 43 questions based on the dispositional elements of the preparation standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). We administered the survey twice—once at the beginning of the course and once at the end—in order to determine the possible effects of the curriculum on dispositional beliefs and values.

We then reduced, for purposes of this analysis, the original question set of 43 items to include only those questions related to dispositions around issues of social justice. This resulted in 14 questions to be analyzed per individual participant (See Appendix). In order to treat the Likert-scale responses as continuous rather than ordinal data, we created two composite variables per individual by summing the results by individual for all 14 questions, first for the pre-test and then again for the post-test. These composite variables thereby created more variability and more properly approximated a normal distribution. A paired-samples *t* test was then conducted to evaluate whether the course curriculum had a significant effect on the participants' dispositions towards social justice.

Participants

Of the 188 students enrolled in the course, 117 granted consent to participate in the study, 9 opted not to participate, and 62 failed to respond to our request. Of the 117 students who agreed to participate in the study, 5 did not complete one or both of the tests, thereby leaving a total of 112 students who provided complete data for both tests. In the final analysis, one of these was eliminated from our analysis as an outlier.

Demographic characteristics were collected regarding gender (female or male), race (White, African American, or Other), level of school at which they teach (elementary, middle, high, or other), and whether they lived in an urban or a non-urban environment. The group included 73 women and 38 men; 95 Whites, 11 African Americans, and 3 Others⁴; 34 elementary school teachers, 31 middle school teachers, 32 high school teachers, and 14 others; and 87 urban participants and 24 non-urban participants.

RESULTS

A paired-samples *t* test was conducted to determine whether or not the social justice curriculum overall had an effect on the self-reported dispositions of the participants. The results indicated that at the end of the course the composite score ($M = 93.19$, $SD = 5.14$) was significantly higher than the composite score at the beginning of the course ($M = 91.67$, $SD = 5.21$), $t(110) = 3.63$, $p < .01$.

⁴ Two participants did not disclose their race.

Additional tests were run to determine if the means of the composite scores at the end of the course were significantly higher than those at the beginning of the course when taking into account gender, race, school level, or urban vs. non-urban environment. These tests indicated no significant differences based on these demographic variables.

This study, therefore, provides evidence of a significant impact of a social justice curriculum on the development of positive dispositions. Our findings indicate indeed that an appropriately designed curriculum may well produce positive effects in an online environment even over a short period of time. Given that “dispositions are the soul of intelligence, without which the understanding and know-how do little good” (Perkins, as cited in Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996), this might be some of the most important work of Educational Leadership preparation programs.

DISCUSSION

We began this project with the hypothesis that a well-designed curriculum in a five-week, online advanced level Foundations of Educational Leadership course for pre-service principals could positively impact the dispositions of our students. The evidence of this study clearly indicates that even in such a short time attitudes and beliefs regarding issues of social justice can indeed be significantly changed.

Although prior research on the assessment of dispositions has focused on the impact of ISLLC standards on the decision-making process (Hutton, 2007), the importance of the ISLLC standards in leadership preparation programs (McKerrow, Crawford, & Cornell, 2006), and the manner in which dispositions are taught and assessed in principal preparation programs (Lindahl, 2008), the findings of our study lend support to the idea that leadership preparation programs can make a difference in the development of positive dispositions. Because (1) we value social justice concerns as a professional community, (2) ISLLC standards and dispositions have been found to be important in the practice of school leaders, and (3) we *can* have an impact on the development of dispositions, we believe wholeheartedly that it is our responsibility to continue to design curricula and activities that will help our students to become excellent and effective leaders of social justice.

Certainly, further work is required in order to determine the most effective pedagogies and curricula for advancing the development of positive dispositions. Given the scarcity of research on the impact of leadership preparation programs on this development, we hope that this study will encourage others to explore new ways to assess the effects of social justice curricula on the dispositions of future educational leaders. We hope, additionally, that the positive findings of this study will begin to lay to rest the idea that the intangibility of dispositions and the difficulties involved in measuring them somehow render them less important than the other knowledge and skills we require of our candidates.

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Appendix: ISLLC Dispositions (1996) Related to Social Justice Issues⁵

As a future principal, I believe in, value, and am committed to:

- The educability of all
- The inclusion of all members of the school community
- A willingness to continuously examine one's own assumptions, beliefs, and practices
- The proposition that all students can learn
- The benefits that diversity brings to the school community
- A safe and supportive learning environment
- A safe environment
- The proposition that diversity enriches the school
- The ideal of the common good
- Bringing ethical principles to the decision making process
- Subordinating one's own interest to the good of the school community
- The development of a caring school community
- Recognizing a variety of ideas, values, and cultures
- Using legal systems to protect student rights and improve student opportunities

⁵ It is important to point out that the dispositional elements listed here are not identified by the Council of Chief State School Officers as related to issues of social justice. Both authors independently reviewed the set of 43 dispositional elements to select which of them related to social justice concerns, and we unanimously agreed on this selection.

Effects of Using a Rubric during the Assessment of the Principal Internship

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This study investigated the outcomes of three assessments for an education leadership program internship: 1) Principal Internship Mentors Assessment (PIMA), 2) University Supervisor Assessment (USA), and 3) Intern's Self-Assessment (ISA). The mentor, university supervisor, and intern ratings from the three assessments were compared to determine if the use of a rubric substantially improved the alignment of the assessors compared to a previous study where a rubric was not used. The analysis for each of the three internship assessments (PIMA, USA and ISA) demonstrated no significant differences in the means for ISLLC Standards 3, 4 or 6. There were significant differences in responses for ISLLC Standards 1, 2 and 5. In each of the cases where significant means were identified, the responses of the university supervisors were involved.

INTRODUCTION

This study describes the continuation of a 2011 study by these authors conducted in which three common assessments were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the Principal Internship program at a University in the Southeast region of the United States (Koonce & Kelly, 2011). The three assessments include (a) the Principal Internship Mentors Assessment (PIMA); (b) The University Supervisor Assessment (USA); and (c) The Intern's Self-Assessment (ISA). All items on each of the three assessments are identical. This study seeks greater alignment between the three assessment scores through the use of a rubric.

BACKGROUND

The PIMA, USA, and ISA contain 24 items derived from the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards that define the elements of appropriate practice for principal preparation (Hessell & Holloway, 2002). A study conducted in 2011 revealed several statistically significant differences in scoring between the mentoring principals, the

university supervisors and the interns themselves (Koonce & Kelly, 2011). In an effort to gain greater alignment in the scoring of the three instruments, a rubric was developed to assist in the scoring of the interns. The researchers investigated the outcomes of the three assessments and compared the ratings between the three respondents to determine if the use of the rubric substantially improved the alignment of the assessors compared to the previous study when a rubric was not utilized. The authors hypothesize that using a rubric applied to three common assessments will assist in evaluating the Principal Internship program.

RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A review of the literature resulted in finding few resources where the principal internship was assessed with a rubric. In addition, only a couple of studies were found using three instruments to assess the principal internship. The investigation described in this paper will use outcome data for making program improvement recommendations.

Research Questions

Three research questions have emerged that focus on outcomes for evaluating principal internships with a rubric:

RQ1: Are there significant differences in assessment outcomes for the PIMA, USA, and ISA utilizing a common rubric?

RQ2: If there are significant differences in assessment outcomes for the PIMA, USA, and ISA, what are they, how do they compare to data from the 2011 previous study?

RQ3: What meaning does assessment outcome data have for program improvement?

Null Hypothesis

There will be no significant difference in the means of the three assessments, PIMA, USA, and ISA for a university school leadership preparation program internship.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study's design is a result of a recommendation from a previous research study (Koonce & Kelly, 2011) to use a rubric for providing more consistent evidence for principal internship outcomes. Rubrics are a "type of authentic assessment that can be used for data collection" (Johnson, 2012, p. 278). This study utilizes rubrics to identify specific performance traits of interns in the field working with school principals.

Instruction in the 21st Century should be standards driven and the principal internship was designed in this study's educational leadership preparation program utilizing the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards. The ISLLC standards "provide a set of common expectations for the knowledge, skill, and dispositions of school leaders grounded in principles of effective teaching and learning" (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010, p. 13). Many states incorporate the ISLLC standards for training future school leaders.

One example found in the literature is the University of South Dakota's (2012) Superintendent/Central Office Assessment, where the field base supervisor and intern have separate assessment forms. Rating data is the same for both superintendent and central office interns. Although a separate rubric is not used, there are brief descriptors under each ISLLC

standard that provides some meaning for each item (four per ISLLC standard, 24 items total). There was no similar assessment found for principal internships from the University of South Dakota.

The University of Illinois utilizes a defined rubric for their Principal Preparation Program Redesign Internship Assessment Scoring Rubric (Pacha, 2011). The document reviewed was in a draft stage. This instrument is required for all Illinois principal preparation programs, ensuring a level of standardization, but also allowing programs to customize according to program needs. The rubric is not ISLLC based, but has its own assessment items and focus areas. Scoring is either 1 or 0 points as defined by either “Meets the standard” or “Does not meet the standard” respectively. To demonstrate mastery, the student must meet all the competencies in a section.

Although a separate set of rubrics were not located in the University of Wyoming’s (2011) Intern Self Evaluation (Pre or Post) or in their Mentor/Supervisor Evaluation for the building level internship, there were brief descriptors for their levels of evaluation. The assessment used a Likert type score of 1 (not prepared) to 5 (very prepared). The instruments were derived from the ISLLC standards and included a section for comments. Not as defined as the rubric designed in this study, they were stated as indicators for the standards. The University of Wyoming was selected for review in this study because they did provide a clear set of rubrics for the internship activities notebook required of students for the final grade. The “Principal Internship Activities Grading Rubric” (p. 23) clearly identified each ISLLC standard and the expected artifact required in the rubric description.

In the Principal Internship Handbook developed by the Department of Educational Leadership at Idaho State University (2005), there is a two page “Administrator’s Evaluation Instrument” (p. 31). The first page includes two items: 1) a list of six performance indicators, and 2) the six ISLLC standards. Both performance indicators and standards have their own Likert type scale. Page two of the document has open space for comments. In the next section (pgs. 33-36), there is a more specific rubric not connected with the “Administrator’s Evaluation Instrument”, but rated by the Coordinator of the internship. These rubrics are divided into categories, i.e. “Problem Solving Rubric” (p. 35) and “Standards Rubric” (p. 36). Although not directly connected with the field administrator’s assessment as far as providing a rubric for scoring the instrument, it does show another tool to use rubrics in evaluating the principal internship. The items utilized in these rubrics were designed using the ISLLC standards.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE RUBRIC

Included in the internship rubric are requirements from the state department of education. The rubric defines the concepts found in the three assessments and provide for more consistent scoring from the three different evaluators. Greater consistency, validity and reliability were goals for reviewing assessment outcomes in program improvement.

The rubric for the internship is linked directly with the program’s learning outcomes (ISLLC standards) and identifies levels of quality, from excellent to poor. The rubric provides feedback from all stakeholders (mentors, university supervisors, and students). In addition, internship outcomes are used to provide evidence for the final evaluation and a course grade.

Two features were important in designing the rubric: a) a list of what counts in evaluating intern success, and b) graduations of quality with descriptions of performance

levels. The rubric design must be easily read and reviewed by mentoring principals, university supervisors and each student intern. Time constraints of busy practicing principals were taken into account in designing a concise scoring tool.

The assessments (PIMA, USA, and ISA) for the program internship were derived from the work of Hessell and Holloway (2002). It was logical to review this book in greater detail while designing the rubric. Hessell and Holloway describe a “common language for defining and focusing the role of school leaders in the framework that can help school leaders articulate their role, and can serve as a standards-based approach to describe various school leaders’ level of performance” (p. Vi). The logic stems from using Hessell and Holloway’s work for both the assessments and the rubric. The rubric indicators identify and explain the assessment items so that a common language can be utilized for more valid and reliable responses in the evaluation of the internship experience.

The instruments (PIMA, USA & ISA) were reviewed by a team of practitioners for validity and two studies have been completed for validity and reliability. As a result, 56 items were revised and the final rubric utilized for the study completed.

METHODS

To test the null-hypothesis that there was no difference between the means for the three internship assessments, a Repeated Measures Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) was used (Pyrczak, 2010). The researchers first determined sphericity using Mauchly's Test of Sphericity prior to conducting each Repeated Measures ANOVA, as ANOVAs with repeated measures are particularly susceptible to the violation of the assumption of sphericity. A violation of sphericity can cause the test to become too liberal (i.e., an increase in the Type I error rate). A 0.05 level of significance was used for all omnibus tests.

When sphericity could be assumed, a univariate test was used to analyze the within subjects effect (i.e., to test the ANOVA null hypothesis); if sphericity could not be assumed, the Wilks’ Lambda multivariate test was then applied. If the multivariate test revealed a difference significant at the 0.05 level, paired samples *t* tests were then run as a post hoc analysis. To reduce the possibility of a Type I error, the Bonferroni correction to α was applied to the post hoc analysis.

FINDINGS

Through the statistical analysis of the data, it was determined that there were no significant differences between the means in three of the six ISLLC standards with regard to the assessments completed by the mentors (PIMA), university supervisors (USA), and the students themselves (ISA). For these three standards (ISLLC 3, 4 and 6), the researchers failed to reject the null hypothesis that there will be no significant difference in the means of three assessments.

General Linear Model comparing responses for ISLLC Standard 1

In the analysis of ISLLC Standard 1 responses, results of Mauchly’s Test of Sphericity on the covariance matrix indicated a significant difference of less than 0.05 ($p = .000$). As such, sphericity could not be assumed for this standard and multivariate testing was required. The

Wilks' Lambda multivariate test revealed a level of significance less than 0.05 ($p = .004$); the null hypothesis was rejected and paired t- tests were then used as a post hoc analysis.

Three paired samples t-tests (Table 1) were run to make post hoc comparisons between the means. The Bonferroni correction to α was applied, using a 0.017 level of significance. The first paired samples t-test indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores for PIMA ISLLC 1 responses ($M = 3.47, p = 0.001$) and USA ISLLC 1 responses ($M = 3.277, p = 0.001$). There was no significant difference in the scores for PIMA ISLLC 1 responses ($M = 3.47, p = 0.378$) and ISA ISLLC 1 responses ($M = 3.378, p = 0.378$) or for USA responses ($M = 3.277, p = 0.256$) and ISA responses ($M = 3.378, p = 0.256$). The post hoc analysis revealed a significant difference only in responses between the mentors and the university supervisors under ISLLC Standard 1.

Table 1
Paired Samples Test for ISLLC 1

Pairing	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Sig (2-tailed)
USA - Mentor	-.1905	.3935	.0562	.001*
Mentor-Student	.0901	.7091	.1013	.378
Student - USA	.1003	.6107	.0872	.256

General Linear Model comparing responses for ISLLC Standard 2

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity on the covariance matrix for responses to ISLLC Standard 2 indicated a significant difference of less than 0.05 ($p = .000$). Sphericity once again could not be assumed for this standard and multivariate testing was needed. The Wilks' Lambda multivariate test revealed a level of significance less than 0.05 ($p = .002$); the null hypothesis was rejected and paired t- tests were then run as a post hoc analysis.

Table 2
Paired Samples Test for ISLLC 2

Pairing	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Sig (2-tailed)
USA - Mentor	.06633	.37422	.05346	.221
Mentor-Student	.22959	.68074	.09725	.022
Student - USA	-.29592	.57081	.08154	.001*

General Linear Model comparing responses for ISLLC Standard 5

ISLLC Standard 5 response results on the covariance matrix indicated a significant difference of less than 0.05 ($p = .000$). Sphericity could not be assumed for this standard either, and multivariate testing was again needed. Multivariate testing using Wilks' Lambda under ISLLC Standard 5 revealed a level of significance less than 0.05 ($p = .000$) so the null hypothesis was rejected and paired t- tests were then used as a post hoc analysis.

The paired samples t-test comparison of means demonstrated significant differences between mentor responses ($M = 3.75$, $p = 0.000$) and university supervisor responses ($M = 3.95$, $p = 0.000$) as well as between university supervisors ($M = 3.95$, $p = 0.000$) and student self-assessments ($M = 3.5663$, $p = 0.000$) for ISLLC standard 5. The responses revealed no significant difference in the scores for mentors ($M = 3.75$, $p = 0.062$) and student self-assessments ($M = 3.5663$, $p = 0.062$).

Table 3
Paired Samples Test for ISLLC 5

Pairing	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Sig (2-tailed)
USA - Mentor	.206	.360	.051	.000
Mentor-Student	.18197	.66551	.09507	.062
Student - USA	-.38776	.61462	.08780	.000

CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the variance for each of the three internship assessments (PIMA, USA and ISA) demonstrated no significant differences in the means for ISLLC Standards 3, 4 or 6. There were significant differences in responses for ISLLC Standards 1, 2 and 5.

In each of the cases where significant means were identified, the responses of the university supervisors were involved. ISLLC standard 1 responses showed differences between the mentor responses and the university supervisors. ISLLC 2 responses demonstrated significant differences between the student responses and the university supervisors. Standard 5 revealed differences between mentor responses and the university supervisors, as well as student responses and the university supervisors as well.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this study indicate that there discrepancies in scoring the students on the end of the experience internship assessments even with the addition of a rubric to guide evaluators during the process. The researchers make the following recommendations in order to try to eliminate the significant differences in scoring for future years:

- Develop a purposeful process for training all three groups (mentors, interns and supervisors) on the scoring of the assessments based on the newly developed rubric.
- The training would include:
 - a. An online manual for easy reference to all scorers
 - b. A PowerPoint presentation also online that outlines the scoring process in easy steps.
 - c. A streaming video demonstration of how to score the assessment using the rubric as well.
- All groups should be required to undergo the identical training process to ensure consistency.
- Finally, an in depth review of the scores from university professors should be undertaken to identify if the differences in scores are occurring across the board for all faculty involved, or if the discrepancies are limited to an individual or small group of supervising professors.

Through the implementation of these recommendations it is hoped that the scoring from all three assessments (PIMA, ISA and USA) would better align for each intern, providing a more representative evaluation of each intern's experience, thus improving the program.

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Society, Standards, and Technology Leadership Preparation

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Abraham Maslow is credited with stating, “If the only tool you have is a hammer, you tend to see every problem as a nail.” This statement rings true today. The vast array of technological tools available provides a greater variety of options for educators than ever before. The challenge that arises is determining which tools to select and how to most effectively use them. A number of factors suggest that technology skills are becoming essential for school leaders. These factors included increased use of technology for administrative tasks, continued growth of online and blended learning, and federal and state policies that support technology utilization in K - 12 schools. To support leaders and leadership preparation programs in the increasingly technological world, the National Educational Technology Standards for Administrators (NETS-A) exist. This article provides an overview of technology leadership preparation against the backdrop of the national trends and policies in K-12 schools and the current standards for integrating technology in K-12 schools.

INTRODUCTION

Technology advancement in society has infused new energy into educational reform. These societal changes are evident in the globalization of the economy, a new information landscape, transformational technologies, and increased hyper-connectivity (McLeod, 2011). In light of these external factors, principals aiming to facilitate school reform should have technological leadership abilities (Anderson & Dexter, 2005). Chang (2012) also notes that schools seeking to excel in the information age need leaders that are well versed in the potential and pitfalls of educational technology. One important reason for having these skills is the changing role of the principal that has evolved from a building manager (Sharp & Walter, 1994) to instructional leader (Glatthorn, 2000) to technological leader (McLeod, 2008). Furthermore, Educational Leadership programs also need to examine curricular decisions as they develop leaders with the necessary knowledge and skills to face these new challenges. The need for this change is highlighted by increasing use of technology in school

and federal and state policies supporting future integration.

NATIONAL TECHNOLOGY TRENDS AND POLICIES IN K-12 SCHOOLS

A scan of federal and state policies regarding technology use and reports on increased technology use in schools provide a strong case for school leaders to have well developed technological skills.

In 2010 the United States Department of Education (USDOE) in 2010 released the National Education Technology Plan (USDOE, 2010). This plan highlighted a vision for transforming American education that included strengthened leadership, innovation in colleges of education, and for engaging and empowering personalized learning experiences. This plan also called leadership to connect technology with core functions of schools, and for institutions to rethink barriers to learning such as seat time and age determined groups. Each of these elements suggest a strong push to utilize technology from federal policymakers. Federal funding for technology such as the Enhancing Education Through Technology (EETT) program, e-Rate, and Race to the Top provide further evidence of federal support for innovative programs that integrate technology. This is important because technology integration requires extensive financial resources to provide an up-to-date network infrastructure, extensive professional development for teachers, and support for staff and students (Halpirn, 2011). Federal policy is also supported at the state level.

In many states there are ongoing legislative changes surrounding technology, digital content, and the elimination of paper textbooks which impacts school operations (Halpirn, 2011). In addition, changes in the law in some states require students to have online learning experiences (Cavanagh, Barbour, & Clark, 2009; Roblyer, 2008; Tucker 2007). Since 2010 fourteen states have enacted laws to initiate or expand online coursework. These states include Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Nevada, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and Washington (Watson, et. al, 2011). Some of these laws allow virtual schools, while others require mandatory online courses for graduation or online offerings at all grade levels. Twenty-six other states have similar laws pending. Students may take these courses online from home or within a classroom setting in a traditional brick or mortar setting. Online learning utilized in conjunction with traditional modes of instructional delivery is called blended learning (Watson et al., 2011). The number of states embracing tech-friendly education reform is noteworthy and important as leadership faculty consider necessary knowledge and skills for future leaders.

In conjunction with increasing federal and state support, technology's impact has continued to increase for instructional and administrative purposes since the 1990's. Adopting technology in the classroom has moved from adapting lessons that occasionally highlight a technology to pervasive use of interactive and handheld devices (Allen, 2011; Black, 2011; Gosmire & Grady, 2007; Prensky, 2010). More recently, technology is a tool educators are turning to so they can engage students, personalize learning, and prepare students for the digital workforce (Leonard & Leonard, 2006; Prensky, 2010; Shattuck 2007). The United States Department of Education (2010) also noted data-driven decision making, electronic communication, and other administrative uses of technology have been widespread in schools for the past three decades.

Numerous reports have also highlighted the increased use of technology in schools and the growth of online learning such as the National Center for Educational Statistics Teachers

Use of Educational Technology in U.S. Public Schools: 2009, the Keeping Pace Report 2011 from the Evergreen Group, and The 2011 Horizon Report from the New Media Consortium (USDOE NCES, 2010; Watson et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2011). As of late 2011, online and blended learning opportunities exist for at least some students in all 50 states plus the District of Columbia. Blended learning also continues to grow at a rapid pace. According to data from the National Center for Education Statistics, more than fifty-five percent of school districts have students enrolled in distance education courses. The total number of enrollments is estimated at 1,816,400 (Queen & Lewis, 2011). Picciano and Seaman (2009) expect this number to reach 5-6 million by 2016 and will keep growing. In an effort to provide guidance in the area of technology leadership, the International Society of Technology Education developed educational technology standards aimed at administrators called NETS-A in 2002 and updated them in 2009 (ISTE, 2009).

STANDARDS FOR TECHNOLOGY LEADERSHIP

One of the most important indicators to tying technology-skill instruction to the curriculum, particularly at the K-12 level, is a firm grounding in technology standards on the part of administrators. If administrators lack the understanding of that scope of what is involved it is unlikely that they will value the technology, align it with the curriculum, or lead successful implementation (McLeod, 2008). NETS-A standards recognize that administrators play a pivotal role in determining how well technology is used in schools. Two critical understandings considered in the development of the standards are that leaders must become comfortable collaborating as co-learners with colleagues and students and in today's digital learning culture administrators must have a vision of technology use to ensure the development of their own technology skills and those of others. The 2009 NETS-A reflect skills and knowledge school administrators and leaders need to lead and sustain a culture that supports digital-age learning, builds a vision for technology infusion, and transforms the instructional landscape (Knezek, 2009).

ISTE recently led a collaborative, international effort to refresh the standards for administrators to address the rapid changes in technology, instruction, and learning environments. Stager (2007) suggested the standards refresh was influenced by the emergence of the digital learning landscape and the slippage in our nation's leadership in innovation. Other researchers felt this update reflected the pervasive role of technology and the need to prepare students for the realities of the 21st century (Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011). The subscales of the new standards are: visionary leadership, digital age learning culture, excellence in professional practice, systemic improvement, and digital citizenship (ISTE, 2009). These are similar to empirical literature on the dimensions of technology leadership that include vision, planning, staff development, technological support, evaluation, and communication skills (Chin & Chang, 2006). These standards provide a current framework to inform leader preparation in the area of technology leadership (Knezek, 2009; Miller, 2008).

TECHNOLOGY LEADERSHIP PREPARATION

Many theorists agree that leadership is the most important factor in effective school change (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005; Stronge, Richard, & Catano, 2008), including change brought about by technology (Dexter, 2008; Fletcher, 2009; Gosmire & Grady, 2007; Grey-Bowen,

2010; Macaulay, 2009; Redish & Chan, 2007). Specifically, the principal's role in visionary leadership, modeling best practices, and support for instructional technology is key to successful technology integration (Gosmire & Grady 2007). Therefore, how principals are prepared has never been more important. Recent studies have detailed the external environment and curriculum for traditional leader preparation (Levine, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007). These studies suggest that although the educational environment is quickly changing, leader preparation is not keeping pace. Levine noted only 34% of the programs included technology leadership while Hess and Kelly noted that less than 5% of leader preparation instruction focused on school improvement via technology. In addition, both studies point out that the curriculum has not kept up with the changing environment of schools, leaving principals unprepared for new responsibilities. Leonard and Leonard (2006) also identified a lack of leadership needed to address the wide-scale integration of technology for instructional and learning purposes. Dexter (2008), Dugger (2007), Lebaron (2009), and Prensky (2010) also express concern about leaders' preparation for the emerging technology-rich educational environment. Teachers often look to principals for input about technology uses for teaching and learning since their actions determine the aspects of innovation that are implemented (Dexter, 2007). Leonard and Leonard (2006) concluded that "most of the literature on leadership and technology either explicitly or implicitly places the ultimate responsibility for the use of educational technology in the purview of the principal" (p. 215).

One of the challenges in preparing leaders is determining how to best prepare leaders for the technology age (Ertmer et al., 2002; Macaulay, 2009). According to Langlie (2008), Macaulay (2009), and Redish and Chan (2007), there is a need to incorporate new skills in leadership programs to better prepare for today's technology-rich environment. One challenge for current programs is that technological leadership differs from traditional leadership theory in that it emphasizes that leaders should develop, guide, manage, and apply technology to different organizational operations so as to improve operational performance rather than the characteristics or actions of leaders (Chin, 2010).

Several studies have contributed to the body of knowledge surrounding technology leadership skills (Garcia, 2009; Grey-Bowen, 2011; Langlie, 2008; Macaulay, 2009; Miller, 2008; Redish & Chan, 2007). Studies based on ISTE's 2002 NETS-A examined the skills principals report as present or lacking to lead in a technology-rich environment (Grey-Bowen, 2010; Macaulay, 2009; Redish & Chan, 2007). The research on these skills can be used to inform formal leadership preparation programs and local professional development on how to best prepare leaders (Langlie, 2008). The skills that are suggested include the ability to inspire and facilitate a shared vision of purposeful change that maximizes the use of digital-age resources and the ability to model and promote the frequent and effective use of technology for learning. Additional skills include the ability to promote and model effective communication and collaboration among stakeholders using digital-age tools and the ability to establish and maintain an infrastructure for technology to support management operations, teaching, and learning. Furthermore, technology leaders need to develop the ability to promote, model, and establish policies for safe, legal, and ethical use of digital information and technology. These are a few examples of the skills for effective technology leadership. Having the appropriate knowledge and skills is important because inappropriate integration of technology may result in negative by-products (Flanagan and Jacobsen, 2003). The importance of technological leadership lies not only in the use of technology but also in the development and change of school culture.

Meeting the needs of students in a globally connected society requires specific skills. The literature suggests that many leaders do not have the knowledge or skills and that leadership preparation has yet to adjust to fill this need.

CONCLUSIONS

In this article we examine the literature on technology trends in education, current technology standards for school leaders, and technology leadership preparation. We argue that the need exists for leaders to be prepared to effectively integrate technology based on the federal and state policy change and external conditions. Despite clear evidence of an increasingly technological society and clearly defined standards for effective technological leadership, leadership preparation programs have not kept pace with the needs of schools and the leaders they educate.

This is a concern on multiple levels. First, this is concerning because the needs of leaders we train and the teachers and students they serve are not being met. Few school-based technology programs can succeed without the support and encouragement of school administrators. Without informed leadership, most technology initiatives are fragmented and lack cohesion. A well-established culture that supports digital age learning is necessary for the success of a technology rich curriculum.

Secondly, this is a concern because this need is being filled by other organizations which challenge the existence of University based leadership preparation programs. The need to prepare principals has prompted public school districts, states, and private organizations to develop supplemental leader preparation programs. We recognize that Educational Leadership programs are often driven by standards. Unfortunately, technology skills are sparsely mentioned in widely adopted standards such as the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards. Technology standards such as NETS-A should serve as a guide for Educational Leadership faculty. In the entrepreneurial environment in which we now exist, it is more important than ever to provide relevant experiences to the leaders that we serve or we risk becoming irrelevant.

Educational Leadership faculty should think deeply about the role technology plays in their program as they develop the knowledge and skills of future school leaders. Clearly using one tool such as “Maslow’s hammer” is insufficient to address the complex challenges school leaders face.

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The Call for Manuscripts for the NCPEA Yearbook (2013)

Publication: *NCPEA Yearbook*

NCPEA: Becoming a Global Voice

2013 Yearbook Coeditors: Dr. Carol A. Mullen and Dr. Kenneth E. Lane

The Call has several parts: (I.) General Information and Theme, (II) Submission Process, (III) Deadlines, (IV) Publisher's guidelines for Manuscript Submission, (V) Contact Information of Editors.

I. General Information

A. The theme of the National Council of Educational Administration (NCPEA) Yearbook entitled, *NCPEA: Becoming a Global Voice*, is open and thus not strictly based on the 2013 conference theme "Innovation, Inventiveness, and the Imagination: Leading into the Future." Research papers for submission to the *Yearbook* generally address critical issues, such as leadership for school improvement, social justice, innovation, educational leadership preparation, and school reform.

B. Drafts are *unacceptable* to submit to the *Yearbook*. Please ensure that the manuscript has been *edited sufficiently* prior to submitting.

C. (i) In the review of literature within the manuscript, be certain to include as appropriate: (a) theoretical review, (b) research review, and (c) positional review. In the *research review* of literature, be certain that sufficient information is provided the reader in order to understand the studies you are reporting. It is expected that the author will critique the studies as well—pointing out any weaknesses in the qualitative or quantitative methodological processes and/or results. Positional papers that are included as a part of the review of literature need to be noted as such to be carefully considered.

(ii). Drafts are *unacceptable* to submit to the *Yearbook*. Please ensure that the manuscript has been *edited sufficiently* prior to submitting.

(iii). The submission must be original work that has not been previously published, although it may have been presented. A paper submitted to the *Yearbook* must not be submitted to another journal unless notification is received that the submission has not been accepted to the *Yearbook*.

(iv). The mission of the Yearbook of NCPEA 2013 is to attract the best papers from the 2012 conference and worldwide that address leadership from across the board, which is why there is not a specific conference theme for the issue. This is not a conference proceedings; instead, the publication will reflect the strongest submissions that have been peer reviewed. Papers are solicited from NCPEA and non-NCPEA members alike. Contributions are welcome from all countries that

address issues of educational leadership.

II. Deadlines

A. Deadline for **initial** receipt: **January 15, 2013**. Sooner is better! Deadline for reviews to be returned and responses to the authors is March 1, 2013. Deadline for the final revisions and resubmission will be April 15, 2013.

B. The *Yearbook* will be published online for distribution by August 2013 and it will be made available in electronic form and can be ordered in hard copy through the website.

III. The Submission Process—FastTrack

A. (i) We will use a FastTrack process for submissions. Submissions will be monitored and reviewed for quality, relevance, focus, APA, etc. and sorted into one of five categories: Accept, Accept with minor adjustments (usually technical), Accept with minor revision, Accept with revision, Not accepted. If you have questions, contact one of the editors.

FastTrack is state-of-the art pre-press management software and is considered among the highest quality online manuscript management systems. Designed for the ease of use, this system has critical time saving features that compress the time needed for pre-press document handling and review.

(ii). Registration: To submit your manuscript through FastTrack or to review a document, the user needs to first create an account in the FastTrack system. Once a user completes the registration process s/he is given a user id and a password. The registration process is very simple and can be completed on this website:

<http://ncpea.expressacademic.org/login.php>

As you register, please accept that you may be a reviewer as well as an author.

(iii). Submission: A user can move towards manuscript submission after creating an account on FastTrack. To submit a manuscript visit

<http://ncpea.expressacademic.org/login.php>

(iv). Reviewers: The reviewers are assigned to a manuscript by the editors. A blind copy of the manuscript is uploaded into the FastTrack system by the editor. This non-identifying author copy, a due date, and the criteria for review are made available to the reviewers. Authors may track the progress of their submission through their personal FastTrack account. Reviewers' comments are not accessible until AFTER the Yearbook Editors contact authors with final decisions.

(v). Publishing: Once the reviewers provide their comments, the manuscript is accepted, sent for further revisions, or rejected. If a manuscript is sent for further revisions, it is considered rejected until the manuscript has been cleaned and accepted. The manuscript may be sent out for another review if revisions are requested.

(vi). Editorial guidelines: The majority of references should be within the last five years unless the submission is a historical account or a seminal work is cited.

All references in the body of the paper should be listed in the reference section. The submission should address the conference theme.

If the number of accepted submissions exceed the number that can be included in the *Yearbook*, the editorial team will make the final decisions regarding selection based on the guidelines provided above.

A. Submissions for the manuscript will follow **APA 6th Edition** with the exception of the publisher's requirements as noted in the attached formatting guidelines. Please save your manuscript in the format provided. Your manuscript will be returned to you if it is not in the ***publisher's format*** for initial submission in the FastTrack System.

IV. Publisher's Guidelines

Before you submit your manuscript to the NCPEA Yearbook, make sure you avoid the following common formatting/editorial problems.

1. All references must follow American Psychological Association (APA) 6th edition style, with author year format. Do not use footnotes or endnotes (except footnotes for tables). If you have footnotes, delete them and incorporate them into the text.
2. Documents submitted must be written in Microsoft Word, Times New Roman and size 12 font, double spaced throughout. The maximum page length is 30 pages inclusive of references and any Tables and/or Figures.
3. URLs must be cited as references and should be formatted using WebCite (www.webcitation.org). URLs must also be placed in the reference section.
4. Tables and Figures should appear in the main manuscript file (rather than as separate files) and placed in their intended position. **Tables need to be created with Word Insert Table, rather than created with tabs and spaces.** Manuscript submissions with tables created with tabs and spaces will not be considered for review. Also, avoid placing lists (i.e., 1, 2, 3 or a, b, c) within individual cells of a table.
5. We'd prefer that submitting authors do not include Tables and Figures unless absolutely necessary. In addition to them being somewhat technically problematic with regard to publishing format, tables and figures vary in the significance they have for readers. For these reasons, the NCPEA Yearbook Editors and Publishing Directors reserve the right to make decisions about the inclusion of any tables and/or figures in the works submitted.
6. Do not number your headings. Delete any Running Heads and Footers.
7. Make certain that all components of the submission (i.e., Cover Page, Summary, and Manuscript) are ALL in one Word file. Do not submit as separate files or documents.
8. When uploading a manuscript submission into FastTrack, you will be required to create a user account in FastTrack.

9. Make certain that complete contact information is provided for all authors.

Note: NCPEA Publications is committed to reviewing for plagiarism and cyberplagiarism, the copying of paragraphs and ideas from websites and online articles without providing appropriate references. Though it is acceptable to take direct quotes from websites, references (URLs) must be given and the citation must be placed in quotation marks. If NCPEA Publications discovers plagiarism, NCPEA reserves the right to notify both the author and institutional affiliation of the situation.

V. Contact Information of NCPEA Publications Director and Yearbook Editors

Technical questions about the submission process can be addressed to **Dr. Theodore Creighton** at: tcreigh@vt.edu

Questions about the yearbook project can be addressed to the 2013 Yearbook Co-editors: **Dr. Carol A. Mullen**, The University of North Carolina at Greensboro at: camullen@uncg.edu or **Dr. Kenneth E. Lane** at: kenneth.lane@selu.edu

Dr. Mullen is former editor of the *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning* (published by Routledge of the Taylor & Francis Group, cosponsored by NCPEA);

Dr. Lane is editor of the *Education Leadership Review* (NCPEA Publications).