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Spring 2015 Edition

Welcome to Volume 26 of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development: The Journal of the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration (CAPEA).* This year the editors accepted contributions from a variety of perspectives concerning the profession of school leadership and school leadership preparation. This year's journal is organized into three areas**.** Section One continues the CAPEA focus of centering leadership preparation on racialized as well as social class discourses. The papers in this section include a critical analysis of discourse, the consequences of presumed incompetence from preschool to the professoriate and the use of autoethnography as an alternate epistemology for understanding leadership from a race and class perspective. Section Two reports on various preparation programs as a way to disseminate knowledge to the field about program design. Included here are articles on a university/school district partnership, online leadership programs, technology in leadership and a study on the practical relevance of the curriculum in Ed.D leadership programs. Section Three addresses Praxis. The articles offer baseline knowledge to consider in preparing leaders for schools with English learners as well supports needed for novice principals.

As we go forward, we continue to expand the purview of the journal to incorporate various types of manuscripts. We, the editors, are drafting the Call for Papers for the next edition that will incorporate these types of manuscripts. We expect to release the Call for Papers by summer.

This journal would not have been possible without the efforts of numerous people. We, first, thank all of the authors who contributed manuscripts and encourage you to continue contributing to the journal in the future. A very special thank you is offered to the CAPEA Executive Council and especially to Linda Purrington and Delores Lindsey, CAPEA Co-Presidents for their constant support and encouragement. Lastly, this journal would not exist without the support of NCPEA and NCPEA Publications. Ted Creighton and Brad Bizzell, NCPEA Publications Directors, have been invaluable members of our team and for this we are extremely grateful.

To all readers, we hope that the journal will provide for you an opportunity to expand your insights into the field of school leadership and reflect on your own practice. We, furthermore, hope that this reflection brings you to a deeper commitment to our crucial work for our nation's youth.

Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development

Section 1: Research and Alternate Epistemologies

Section 2: Leadership Preparation

Section 3: Praxis

Critical Discourse Analysis and Leadership

Gilberto Arriaza
California State University, East Bay

This article outlines the need of infusing critical discourse analysis into the preparation and support of prospective school leaders. It argues that in the process of school transformation, the school leader must possess the ability to self-reflect on his/her language and understand the potential power of language as a means that may support or hinder the transformation process. Moreover, the piece contends that language of school transformation needs to be aligned with the actions of school transformation.

In professional preparation programs for school administrators and leaders, a need exists to include discourse analysis as a key strategy to increase capacity to lead reforms that seek to change school culture (Henze, 2001). The assumption here is that when school administrators incorporate critical discourse analysis into their professional repertoire, they will be better positioned to understand, among other things, what happens when they – and school staff -- connect their language to their actions, when they themeselves utter or witness others use hurtful language, when they need to decipher meanings buried in seemingly innocent speech.

Critical discourse analysis contains two dimensions. One dimension consists of one's awarness about the use of discourse as a means to perpetuate inequities; the other dimension refers to the potential transformative function of language; it includes the set of skills to self-monitor one's utterances as well as to aid others to understand how their subordinating communication patters can be disrupted.

Knowing how to understand discursive practices is of crucial value to implementing reforms that stay made. Uncovering the intimate details as to how people establish and cultivate relationships can indeed be studied through the content and form of discourse. Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz (1982), Goffman (1974), Quinn and Holland (1987), Deal and Peterson (1993), just to name a few foundational thinkers, have shown through their studies that if discourse is a signfier of a human organization's culture, then the influence of school leaders' discursive practices should be a fundamental subject for preparation programs. School leaders set the tone of the institution's culture.

The centrality of setting the tone flows from the leader as power broker; this function is carried out via discourse which, as Fairclough (1995) has argued, serves as a means for people to exercise, reproduce and negotiate power relations. Discourse weaves beliefs and values enacted on daily basis. Habermas (1987) noted that a culture can be understood as "patterns of interpretation transmitted in language." (p.125) What and how is being orally said or written, forges, nurtures, reproduces, and often contests the realities (material, subjective, and social) within which individuals and groups interact.

A great challenge for school leaders may consist of closing the gap between, on one hand, adopting reform language, and believing and acting on it, on the other. Over the last two decades, the school reform movement generated a genre extremely rich in vocabulary, metaphoric expressions, concepts, and even particular ways of talking – implementing equity throughout schools, for instance.   School leaders today often find themselves needing to have competence in this genre.   But from rhetoric to action there is a distance that, in human organizations, usually results in serious tensions, which in turn may affect relationships and collectively cherished values, such as trust.   This is not to say that a direct correlation necessarily exists between" walking the talk", and the lack of trust and the existence of a culture marked by adversarial relationships, but to rather argue that, as Briscoe, Henze and Arriaza (2009) have noted, critical discourse analysis might prove useful for school leaders in their effort to understand, at a micro level, why people relate to each other the ways they do, and to unlock, at a macro level, the ideologies informing school reform and leadership.

One reason that leaders sometimes adopt reform discourses without necessarily practicing or believing in them, might be that using certain discourse might prove useful in attracting badly needed support and resources to their sites. "Reform-speak" may even allow school administrators and leaders to appear cognizant of what is new.

Moreover, the practice of "talking" reform might prevent school administrators from seeing the contradiction between stated purposes of systemic change (as the new jargon offers), and how things are usually done at their sites. Using the word "equity," for instance, does not always translate to creating differentiated approaches to learning, and to the allocation of resources, economic and social, where most needed. In the same way that using the phrase social justice, does not imply the transformation of the institution into a just one.

Nonetheless, language that conveys new perspectives and visions of schooling often embodies a challenge to the status quo.   For instance, an administrator who matches equity rhetoric with action would probably deploy resources in ways contrary to the norm, such as assigning the best prepared, most talented and passionate teachers to work primarily with under-performing students; structure the school schedule to ensure that all students enjoy full access to all school course offerings and programs.. In other words, the disruption of normalizing discourses and the efforts to connect the new language to action risks, to say the least, exposing leaders not only to the resistance of those who benefit the most from the status quo, but even the rejection generated by ingrained practices and beliefs of those same people promoting the change. For a school administrator the latter might be an extremely puzzling and uncomprehensible endeavor.   But here is where critical discourse analysis would be helpful.

Understanding, for example, the distinction between the instrumental and expressive functions of language and its impact on school culture could help a school leader unpack entrenched opposition to change. Troyna and Hetcher (1997) define the instrumental function of an utterance as the ultimate result it seeks and the expressive function as the actual beliefs that inform and nurture what is being said. Hence, what is being expressed (behavior) might or might not reflect true beliefs. Helping opponents to change the contradictory nature of what they say they believe and what they actually do (Argirys,2002) may be a first step. Working persistently to bring closer those two realms of talk (i.e. closing the distance between believes and actions) may prove hard to do, yet invaluable as contribution to changing a school's culture.

In a school reform that places more emphasis on the transformation of culture and the creation of resilient structures, school leaders will certainly need deeper understanding of critical discourse as awarness of the potential power of language as a force of social change, and the necessary skills to do so.

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Presuming Incompetence from Preschool to the Professoriate:
How Leadership Preparation Programs Perpetuate or Prevent Deficit Thinking

Rebeca Burciaga
San Jose State University

This article discusses how deficit thinking is manifested through a presumption of incompetence for people of color from preschool to university levels. Examples are presented as a way to demonstrate that leadership programs can support future leaders in curtailing deficit thinking in our schools and communities.

I spend the bulk of my time as an Assistant Professor in the field of Educational Leadership challenging deficit thinking about people of color. Deficit thinking is the belief that people of color carry inadequacies (e.g. lack of motivation) that are often attributed to poverty and/or inadequate socialization from home (Valencia, 2010). To this end, my research and teaching focuses on interrogating everyday forms of power and privilege that have become rigid standards by which people of color are judged in society and in schools – from preschool to the professoriate (Burciaga, 2007; Burciaga & Erbstein, 2013). Deficit thinking is a cycle. How we – those in leadership preparation programs - think about young students, for example, shapes our ability to see them as having potential for developing competencies as adults. I firmly believe we underestimate the important role we play in shaping mindsets that either perpetuate or prevent deficit thinking.

 "Closing the achievement gap" – namely, the unequal outcomes of educational attainment most often compared between White students and Latina/o and Black students – has become a common phrase in schools. Administrators and teachers are feeling increasing pressure to address this crisis. Their concerns are reflected in the most common questions from some of my students - teachers who are earning their administrative credential: "How do we improve graduation rates?" "How do we transition English Language Learners to general education programs?" "How do we close the achievement gap?" To be clear, these questions are important. These inquiries raise issues about unequal outcomes. What concerns me is that many of our everyday discussions around educational inequities are about *outcomes*. We rarely discuss the cumulative sociohistorical processes that have contributed to unequal schooling conditions (López & Burciaga, 2014). Moreover, what lurks beneath these questions are underlying assumptions that our educational systems are just fine – it is the *students* who are deficient. This logic blames the students who are not graduating, being mainstreamed, or achieving at the same rate as

their White peers. Through this lens, a deficit narrative comes into focus – the achievement gap is not about White students – it is Black and Latina/o students who are not "keeping up."

These well intended but deficit-laden perspectives - circulated among educators, policy makers, and researchers - blame the students and/or their familial, cultural, and communal practices rather than analyzing how systemic inequities (Burciaga, Perez Huber, & Solorzano, 2010) and fixed mindsets (Arriaza, 2009; Dweck, 2006; Steele, 2011) are at the core of these outcomes. Despite research demonstrating the importance of equity and social justice frameworks to address unequal schooling conditions, many programs preparing future leaders of Pk-12 schools center around generic leadership and managerial issues with little attention to addressing deficit frameworks that inform leadership actions and decision making strategies (Mendoza-Reis & Smith, 2013). Here is an illustration how deficit thinking operates:

I recently co-facilitated a seminar with a group of teachers from various schools throughout Northern California about addressing the needs of English Language Learners. Towards the end of our time, I asked, "What if we imagined your English Language Learner students as future educators? How might you teach them to become the teachers who will replace you?" The silence that ensued was palpable. The looks on many of their faces communicated that few had ever considered their students as future teachers. Still, a few heads shaking in doubt as if they did not believe *these* students had the potential to develop enough competencies to become teachers. This situation shows how we are products of our environment; we have, for example, normalized labeling all Latina/o students "at-risk" or calling them minorities in a school where they are 97% of the student body.

It is not only students of color who are implicated as incompetent. Deficit thinking is so deeply ingrained in the United States that many teachers, administrators and faculty of color share similar experiences of marginalization and racism in schools across the country - from preschool to the professoriate (Gutiérrez y Muhs, Flores Niemann, González, Harris, 2012; Kohli, Pizarro & Burciaga, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014). As a Chicana Assistant Professor, my experiences mirror those of my senior colleagues of color – despite our differences with postsecondary opportunities, and differing phenotypes. For example, colleagues of color and I have exchanged similar stories about the surprised looks we get when we tell people we are faculty members – their faces convey the message that we are not the ones they are expecting. There are assumptions people make about what professors look like - we are not White males.

Despite experiencing and challenging racism in schools as students *and* professionals, many critical educators of color – from pre-service teachers to professors - assert their commitment to serving students who often remind them of their younger selves (Kohli, 2014; Kohli, Pizarro, & Burciaga, 2014). Research has documented the importance of racially representative teachers to youth of color for their academic and emotional well-being (Sleeter, 1999; Sleeter & McLaren, 1995; Kohli, 2008). Yet despite these findings, there is much work to be done to address the mismatch between student and teacher demographics – the majority of teachers in our nation's public schools are White.

Similar to national teacher demographics, the majority of my students are White and female. I was initially surprised by the questions graduate students asked, "I have this Hispanic kid in my Algebra class who doesn't care about math, no matter what consequence I give him." She asked, "When is it okay to give up?" When I addressed this teacher's question, I responded with a calm I didn't realize I had before teaching in this field. I began with "Never. We would never want someone to give up on *our* children," and continued to probe about what school structures were in place to support students struggling with math. There were none.

In addition to seeking permission to give up on this student, what also troubled me is that her student's perceived apathy was met with consequences. This teacher's punitive response to the student not "caring" about math reifies the trend in schools across the country towards increased punishment for students of color compared to their White peers. Between 2011-2012, for example, California schools issued more suspensions than diplomas (Public Counsel Law Center, 2014). In some cities, Black and Latino students were 5-6% more likely to be suspended than White students. These alarming statistics further implicate schools in curtailing students' opportunities to learn. Research has demonstrated clear links between these punitive approaches and deficit thinking (Valencia, 2010). In schools where there are no structures to support students struggling with math, this example is just one of *many* opportunity gaps that Black and Latina/o students experience in comparison to increased opportunities in predominantly White Schools in our country. Leadership preparation programs have multiple opportunities to engage current teachers in discussions and assignments to identify and address deficit thinking within themselves, in schools, and in society at large.

As I prepare for my classes with teachers, I focus on how to prepare the next generation of educational leaders – and ultimately the students they serve – to recognize and challenge deficit thinking in the hopes of curtailing deficit thinking. In my "Leader in the Community" course, for example, I am less concerned with training my students "how to be principals" than I am with their close study of support systems for students and the funds of knowledge and community cultural wealth (Gonzalez, Moll, Tenery, Rivera, Rendon, Gonzalez, & Amanti, 1995; Yosso, 2005) of the students and communities they serve. One activity that pushes them to look more closely at students is a critical ethnography assignment.

Graduate students conduct a critical ethnography of one K-12 student. Each graduate student chooses one K-12 student who is struggling socially or academically and is from a historically underserved population (African American, Latino/Latina, English Language Learner, special education student, etc.). Over the course of two weeks, graduate students observe the student's experiences in various settings. They are also invited to observe the student's teachers, family, peers, and friends. Graduate students are not allowed to interview the student or any of the adults about their student. This close study culminates in a paper and class discussion that chronicles observations of this student, the schooling environment, and the people surrounding them. After discussing these ethnographies in class, I break the graduate students into small groups and have them answer the following questions:

1. What do people at your school do to help this student feel cared for?

2. What do people at your school do to help this student know that expectations are high and support is strong?
3. What do people at your school do to help this student know that their participation in the life of the school and classroom is valued?
4. How does this student and their family create their own support networks?
5. How could this school create a more resilient learning community for this student?

Graduate students emerge bewildered by this experience because a great majority of them document missed opportunities and a lack of support for the student they observed. They begin to see qualities that students hold that were previously ignored. What I especially appreciate is that they begin to question the status quo that is rarely questioned in school. In response to this assignment, one of my students wrote the following:

> *I am mostly struck by a realization that, while *Manuel* certainly has areas he can work on to make more growth in our current learning environment, I cannot help but feel that our environment should be the one to bend instead. *Manuel* is verbally nimble and witty, endlessly entertaining and endearing, and unavoidably unique. He doesn't color inside the lines. He won't follow the rules without questioning them. He doesn't sit still. He won't be quiet. And at the end of the day, I don't want him to. What would be the benefit of that? And in learning to conform, what would get lost along the way?*

I have been deeply moved and inspired by new pockets of hope (Reyes & Gozemba, 2002) developed by my graduate students that challenge deficit thinking. I see a pocket of hope in the after-school math tutoring program that my former student coordinates – the aforementioned teacher who almost gave up. I see pockets of hope in the new lesson that two of my students developed as a result of our class discussions on how children internalize racism and notions of beauty. In addition to modeling the lesson, they brought beautifully laminated samples of student poems, "My skin is like the *canela* that my Mom stirs into our *chocolate,*" read one poem from an 8-year old Latina. Some of my students decide they do not want to become administrators. Yet, what I have seen time and again is that they *teach* differently because of our work together.

My passion for addressing deficit thinking in schools lies in my realization that the way some of my graduate students speak about their students of color is linked to the way they see me. The lessons I plan for them are less about the outcome and more about the process of discovering new tools to reclaim approaches that affirm and nurture the wealth *all* students bring to schools. Until we intentionally prepare future leaders to consider how schools can increase support systems for students, these deficit mindsets will remain. As long as I am charged with the responsibility of credentialing new leaders, I will work tirelessly to address the way they see students – the way they see me.

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Reflective Practice on Leadership Committed to Social Justice: Counter Story of an African American Superintendent

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The central assumption of this paper is that the use of autoethnography is the best approach to obtain a deeper understanding of the political context, organizational culture, and complex dynamics of a person's lived experience in a leadership position. The central narrative follows the accounts documented through systematic journaling, and explicated following a first person narrative. This counter story should be viewed as a knowledge bank and source of legitimate information to understanding nuanced cultural meanings, and the identification of social justice and equity issues.

In August, 2005, I received a letter from a retired African American principal in the school district I worked as Superintendent. She lived in the community and was very upset because she had driven by a school and there, on the fence, were figures of children; these figures were alternated on the fence and made from metal. She described the figures as looking stereotypically like a pickaninny caricature.

Pickaninny is a potentially offensive, derogatory term, which refers to children of Black African decent or a racial caricature thereof. She was most offended by the braids sticking up in the air and demanded that the figures be removed immediately. I contacted the principal and learned that a White parent in the school had created a variety of metal sculpture pieces as cutout figures to be wired to the fence as artwork. There was no specific district policy regarding school site decisions to add artwork.

The retired principal formally requested their removal on the grounds that they were racially, stereotypically negative representations. This request resulted in citywide community discussions and board members began to take positions.

The situation described above demonstrates the intersection of race, power, gender and networking relationships within the context of an urban community's school district. The central narrative follows the accounts documented through systematic journaling and explicated following a first person story. Through the application of some tools that critical race theory offers, the analysis of the text surfaces complex issues tied deeply to the temporal and context determined nature of the self.

This inquiry indeed places the self within the position of a female, African American superintendent. The central assumption of this paper is that the use of autoethnography is the best approach to obtain a deeper understanding of the political context, organizational culture, and complex dynamics of the dimensions of the superintendency as lived experience. According to Reed-Danahay (2009) the term autoethnography can vary depending upon the emphasis placed on auto (self), ethno (the cultural link), and graphy (the application of a research process).

Put another way, in comparison to the participant-observer researcher associated with conventional ethnographic research – where the researcher is expected to keep his or her distance from the experiences (or events) under review - the observer in an autoethnography is a central participant to the act of sense-making, interpretation, and final analysis (Wall, 2006). The participant and the observer is the researcher at the same time. Anderson (2006) succinctly captures these distinctions in describing analytic autoethnography as: "Ethnographic work in which the researcher is a full member in the research group or setting, visible as such a member in the researcher's published texts, and committed to an analytic research agenda focused on improving theoretical understandings of broader social phenomena." (p. 375)

I kept a field notes journal, excerpts of which are provided below. I also reviewed documents from community meeting notes, newspaper articles, board meeting notes and superintendent's weekly communication to the board to verify sequence of events.

The Story and its Meanings

August 30
I drove by the school to look at the figures and I do think that the figures are questionable. I would not call the figures pickaninny caricatures but I can see how they do closely resemble the caricatures. I had my teenage daughter in the car and asked her what she thought of the figures. She said "nothing." I then asked her if the figure in the braids looked like a pickaninny to her and she asked, "What is that?" As an African American I see why the retired principal is upset because I am from a generation that remembers seeing "cartoons" and even movies that showed a Black child with braids sticking up, big lips, big eyes, with a stupid grin on her face.

September 6
Just got off the phone with Diane, the retired principal and she is mad. I did not agree to
her request to immediately take the figures down. I told her I would need to meet with the principal and the PTA group to discuss their removal. She called me "coward" and said "what good was it to have an African American superintendent who wouldn't stand up for her people." Boy, do her comments hurt; she and I have a friendship that goes back years. Diane finally agreed to let me work it through a process, but she really thinks I have the authority to just take them down. I do have the authority but I feel strongly that I need to work with the principal and PTA to understand Diane's objections.

I feel like two people at this moment. One is the superintendent following process to ensure community decisions are addressed respectfully, and the other is as an African American who shares the pain of another African American hurt by the figures being allowed to stay up.

September 12
The assistant superintendent and I met with the school principal and three members of the South Side Elementary School #10 PTA. The purpose of the meeting was to try to share the perspective

of Diane, the retired principal, and discuss issues. I ended this meeting by sharing my story regarding driving by with my daughter. I told the group in the meeting that I could see the issue Diane was raising but my daughter couldn't. I think I ended up giving them an out because one of the parents immediately said "so these elementary kids don't see what you see either?" I left the meeting saying to myself, "they don't get it." They dismissed my (our) pain and choose to focus on artistic freedom.

October 16
Board members responses are:
- Alice and Betty informed me that they think the figures are artwork and don't see the issue of the pickaninny racist stereotypical caricatures as a reason to take the figures down.
- Carl and Daniel have each expressed that we (the Board and Superintendent) not get involved and let the school site decide.

The principal and I have agreed; the decision is they will be removed. I know that the White people in the community at-large and at the school still don't get that it is not about artistic freedom. For African Americans it is about slavery and all the similar negative messages. It is about being disrespected. I am struggling to keep my Superintendent hat on at the same time I live in my African American skin.

Discussion

Throughout the story above, I kept traveling from and to my multiplicity of "selfs" – mother, researcher, superintendent - but always going back to the one that seemed to have anchored everything –my African American self. I found that my identity as an African American was feeling the pain of my own memories of negative stereotypes and at the same time in my role as superintendent I needed to open myself to listen and understand a view that did not see the caricature as negative or demeaning." The self that is the superintendent had the challenge to express my voice as an African American Superintendent. I held a position of power as Superintendent, but even so, I felt the unfolding dynamics could dismiss my voice as an African American.

As Superintendent I was caught between the continued push by the European American community members to make the figures about artistic freedom while the African American community continued to push that the figures were about the historical misrepresentation of African American people as "pickaninnies." I was unable to get my Board to understand the perspectives of the African American community. Indeed most of the Board thought the argument for artistic freedom should be valued over not currently valued "historically based feelings." The political divide in the community upset the Board and that is why some opted for the Board not to get involved in the decision to keep or remove the caricatures.

Du Bois provided in 1903 a construct about the impact of racism: "double consciousness" experienced by African Americans. The author describes how an African American, "ever feels his two-ness – an American, a Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings " (Du Bois, 1969, p. 45). This "two-ness" description relates to the selves I struggle to integrate – the African American and the Superintendent as I lived the experience of being pulled between my two selves as roles and identities into the community's dispute.

In the journal entries shared in this paper, the individualistic framing of the issues by the White community -in terms of the caricatures representing individual artistic freedom - could have dominated the decision making process. It was evident to me that the African American perspective regarding the need for the removal of the caricatures, as raised by Diane, the retired principal, would potentially have not been heard without my intervention. This is at the core of my dilemma: maintaining my Superintendent hat on, and living in my African American skin.

Conclusion

I identified the need to accommodate counter story cultural perspectives in both the research paradigm and the social and educational context of a school district. The argument conveyed by authors such as Baszile,(2008), Ladson-Billings, (1998) Ladson-Billings & Tate (1995), Delgado (1990), and Solorzano & Yosso (2002) strongly suggest that the voice of people of color in the form of counter stories, indeed can be used to debunk the dominant narratives and to point to divergent experiences.

I thus raised the question of what is left out due to the absence of voices of color and counter stories from discourses of leadership in schools, and the district office. I want to call the attention to using counter story as a means to identify social justice and equity issues. I also want to suggest that these counter stories must not be viewed as just personal, but rather as a knowledge bank and source of legitimate information to understanding nuanced cultural meanings, and the identification of issues of social justice.

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Competencies for Effective School Leadership:
To What Extent Are they Included in Ed.D. Leadership Programs?

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Purpose: With the increasing need for well-prepared and leading practitioners in the field of education as well as the renewed efforts to further distinguish the EdD from the PhD in higher education in recent years, the curriculum of EdD programs nationwide has been questioned and criticized for its disconnection from the needs of leading practitioners and schools. The primary purpose of this study is to examine the practical relevance of the coursework of EdD programs in PK-12 school leadership. **Methods:** *Three hundred and forty-two principals from California public schools, and 43 EdD program graduates and 38 doctoral faculty members from the California State University system participated in this study. A survey instrument developed on the basis of ISLLC 1996 and ISLLC 2008 was used to measure respondents' perceived importance of the knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership and the extent to which they were included in the EdD coursework. MANOVA and discriminant analysis were conducted to answer the specific research questions.* **Findings:** *Results indicate that the curriculum of the EdD leadership programs lacks practical relevance. In practice the EdD has not been differentiated from the PhD with respect to the coursework.* **Implications:** *The practical relevance of the coursework should be considered in the assessment and evaluation of the quality or effectiveness of an EdD program, and used to distinguish the EdD from the PhD. The findings add empirical evidence to the renewed debate over the distinction between the EdD and the PhD, and spur revitalization of the EdD.*

Each year, schools of education award more than 6,200 doctorates, accounting for 14.4% of the total number of doctorates awarded in all fields of specialization in the United States; of these doctorates in education, over 2,200 (35%) are in educational leadership (Hoffer et al., 2006). It is expected that many of these doctorate recipients will assume leadership positions and responsibility in public schools and shape the future of our children. However, the curriculum of doctoral programs in education, especially EdD programs, has been questioned and criticized in recent years. The criticism of EdD programs has been accompanied by the renewed efforts to further distinguish the EdD from the PhD in higher education in order to bring the EdD back to its original intention as a "high-level academic experience that prepares students for service as leading practitioners in the field of education" (Shulman, Golde, Bueschel, & Garabedian, 2006, p. 29).

Golde (2006) concluded that due to the changing conditions and the loss of the central purpose of doctoral education, many of today's doctorate recipients "are ill-prepared to function effectively in the settings in which they work" (p. 5). After a four-year large-scale study of schools of education in the United States, Levine (2005) found that educational leadership programs were the weakest of all, and their "curricula are disconnected from the needs of leaders and their schools" (p. 23). On the basis of the findings of another national project, Shulman et al. (2006) concluded that the EdD did not serve "the needs of professional practice" (p. 29) even though the EdD was intended to prepare the highest level of leading practitioners for schools. Hess and Kelly (2007) draw similar conclusions after analyzing the content of 36 syllabi from the nation's most prestigious and typical doctoral programs in educational leadership. Their study revealed that these doctoral programs provided limited coverage and instruction in some of the key areas of school principal responsibilities such as the use of data and managing personnel. Hence they questioned "whether graduates of principal-preparation programs are being equipped for the challenges and opportunities posed by an era of accountability" (Hess & Kelly, 2007, p. 268).

The conclusions of these studies are quite persuasive, but there is still a lack of adequate empirical evidence to support these claims. For example, Levine's (2005) research has been criticized for providing little evidence, and his conclusions have been questioned because of the methodological weaknesses and "misuse of its own and other's data" (Young, Crow, Orr, Ogawa, & Creighton, 2005, p. 4). The conclusion made by Shulman et al.'s (2006) was challenged since it "remains more of a hypothesis than an established finding" (Evans, 2007, p. 553). As a matter of fact, there is a general scarcity of scholarship in the field of educational leadership, especially in the field of leadership preparation in terms of quality, methodological approaches, empirical evidence, and impact on practice (e.g., Lashway, 2003; Murphy & Vriesenga, 2006). Moreover, the existing research on leadership preparation has been restrained by its research design, as indicated by Murphy and Vriesenga (2006) that "Almost always, assessments of these elements rely upon the perceptions of current or former students in the program" (p. 191), overlooking the perceptions of other important stakeholders, such as high level practitioners and university faculty.

In 2011, one of the leading journals in educational leadership, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, released a special issue unprecedentedly with five empirical research papers on assessment of leadership preparation, which increased the number of empirical research papers on educational leadership preparation by 63% in the long history of the journal (Kottkamp, 2011). The topics covered by these five studies include standards, licensure and assessment, and induction and ongoing professional development; fieldwork component of preparation programs; characteristics of graduates, core program attributes and outcomes; and the final outcome measure, and the relationship between preparation programs and school performance. While these excellent studies provided valuable findings, and especially affirmed the association between quality of leadership preparation programs and student learning achievement, they did not seek to investigate the concrete sets of practical competencies in the coursework of the preparation programs. Therefore, we still know little about what specific knowledge, skills and values are being taught in leadership preparation programs that are connected to the needs of professional practices.

As a result of these criticisms and research findings, we embarked on the present study with the assumptions that (1) faculty of doctoral leadership programs perceive the competencies (i.e., knowledge, skills, and values) for effective school leadership differently than school leaders

and practitioners do; (2) school principals with different levels of education have different perceptions on the competencies; and (3) what is taught in doctoral leadership programs reflect what is perceived by the faculty on the competencies for effective school leadership.

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the practical relevance of the coursework of EdD programs in PK-12 school leadership. We seek to compare school principals, EdD program graduates, and doctoral faculty on their perceived importance of the specific knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership; to examine the effect of principals' education level on their importance ratings of the leadership competencies; to investigate the extent to which these competencies are included in EdD programs; and to determine the congruence between what is important to leading practitioners and what is emphasized in the coursework of EdD programs. Our research questions are as follows:

- Are there any differences among school principals, EdD leadership program graduates, and EdD faculty on their perceived importance of the knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership? If so, which pair of the groups differs, and on which dimensions of the competencies does the group membership have an effect?
- Are there any differences among three groups of school principals (Master's /professional degree, EdD, and PhD holders) on their perceived importance of the knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership?
- Is there a significant difference between what is important to faculty and what is emphasized by faculty in the coursework of EdD leadership programs?
- Is there a significant difference between what is important to EdD program graduates and what is emphasized in the coursework of EdD leadership programs?

Related Literature Review

Stewards of Education

The most recent and considerable effort to improve doctoral education in the U.S. was a five-year action and research project called the *Carnegie Initiative on the Doctorate* (CID) sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching from 2001 through 2005. The goal of the initiative was to have a deeper understanding of doctoral education and offer a blueprint for increasing the effectiveness of doctoral education by concentrating on the doctoral programs in six fields – chemistry, education, English, history, mathematics, and neuroscience (Walker, Golde, Jones, Bueschel, & Hutchings, 2008). Through a series of published books, articles and essays, the researchers of the CID provided rich insights into the current state of doctoral education and a new vision of how it should be in the future.

One of the messages from the researchers of the CID for doctoral programs is to make "a commitment to the ongoing process of improvement: deliberating about purpose, asking questions about effectiveness, gathering evidence to shape improvements over time, and taking actions:" (Walker, et al., 2008, p. 142). They propose that the purpose of doctoral education should be to prepare doctoral students to be "stewards of the discipline." As described by Golde (2006), a steward of the discipline is "a scholar first and foremost, in the fullest sense of the term --- someone who will creatively generate new knowledge, critically conserve valuable and useful ideas, and responsively transform those understandings through writing, teaching, and application" (p. 5).

Education is a multidisciplinary field of study with a large portion of practice-oriented areas such as educational leadership and educational policy. In addition, education has two

terminal degrees, i.e., the PhD and the EdD. Because of its uniqueness, education is considered as both a field of study and an enterprise. Thus PhDs and EdDs in education are stewards of a field of study and stewards of an enterprise (Richardson, 2006). On the basis of the results of their study, the researchers of the CID presented several challenges in doctoral programs in education, including striking a balance between the practice and research, a lack of distinction between the PhD and the EdD in practice, no common core courses for doctoral students except for research methodology and inquiry courses, and the lower quality of research and dissertations compared with other disciplines (Golde & Walker, 2006).

To foster stewards of education, Richardson (2006), one of the researchers of the CID, prescribes three forms of knowledge and understanding for doctoral students to develop during formal doctoral education: *formal knowledge, practical knowledge, and beliefs*. For the PhD, Richardson (2006) outlines seven specific outcomes of learning for scholarly inquiry as well as the knowledge, skills and habit of minds that students should develop in relation to *formal knowledge*. Although Richardson (2006) does not offer the specific student learning outcomes in relation to *practical knowledge*, she emphasizes the necessity of integrating practical knowledge into the curriculum of doctoral programs.

As for the practical knowledge for the EdD, Shulman et al. (2006) propose to use the "wisdom of practice" strategy to develop EdD programs, beginning with "studying and thinking about the most able exemplars of accomplished practice that can be identified" (p. 29), and then set the standards for the design of EdD programs. Furthermore, Shulman (2007) explains that their conception of practice is drawn on broad and philosophical traditions with "a recognition that practical reason and practical arguments are not limited to premises that drive from practical experience and action alone" and "the premises of practical arguments are replete with theoretical, descriptive, critical, and normative assertions as well" (p. 560).

Distinction between the PhD and the EdD

As mentioned earlier, one of the problems identified by the researchers of the CID is a lack of clear distinction between the PhD and the EdD in practice. Actually, the field of education has lived with the ambiguity of purposes and distinctions between the PhD and the EdD for about a century. Both the PhD and the EdD were accommodated almost from the beginning of doctorates in education around 1900, but in today's reality the distinctions between these two doctoral degrees are still unclear (Shulman et al., 2006). The ambiguity has been reflected in all aspects of the two doctoral programs, including admissions requirements, coursework, dissertations, and even careers or outcomes (Derring, 1998; Deering & Whitworth, 1982; Hallinger, 2011; Lunt, 2005).

Despite a lack of distinction between the PhD and the EdD in practice, there is a growing consensus in theory on the missions and purposes of the two degrees. As described by Shulman et al, (2006):

> The EdD, intended as preparation for managerial and administrative leadership in education, focuses on preparing practitioners – from principals to curriculum specialists, to teacher-educators, to evaluators – who can use existing knowledge to solve educational problems. A PhD in education, on the other hand, is assumed to be a traditional academic degree that prepares researchers, university faculty, and scholars in education, often from the perspective of a particular discipline. (p. 26)

In 2005, the California State University system was authorized by the state legislature to establish independent doctoral programs and award the EdD degree to meet the pressing need for

well-prepared practitioners to lead public schools and community colleges (CSU, 2006). The legislature stipulates that the EdD programs at the California State University system must be distinguished from traditional doctoral programs at research universities; partnered with California public schools and community colleges in program design, recruitment, teaching and program evaluation; and focused on the needs of professional practice and the knowledge and skills needed for educational administrators to do their jobs effectively. As a result, 13 new EdD programs at the California State University system have been established to date on the basis of the legislative mandate.

Effective Program Features and Their Impact

If the EdD is intended to prepare high level educational leaders and practitioners for schools, its curriculum and coursework should be practically relevant and focus on effective leadership practices that lead to school improvement and student achievement. There are certain features of effective leadership programs that have been widely accepted and recommended in the literature, including a coherent curriculum that is aligned with professional standards (such as ISSLC standards); research-based program content that incorporates knowledge and skills of school leadership and management, instructional leadership, and change management; and problem-based learning that addresses practical problems and stimulates reflection (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Orr, 2011).

Although there are limited empirical studies on the effects of school leadership preparation on school improvement and student learning (Murphy & Vriesenga, 2006), research on the relationship between preparation programs and graduate leadership outcomes in recent years has been very promising. For example, a study of 17 leadership preparation programs conducted by Orr (2011) found that the recommended program features mentioned above were significantly correlated with graduates' satisfaction with the program, their career aspirations to become a principal, and their learning in key areas of effective leadership (vision and ethics, instructional leadership, organizational learning, management and operations, and parent and community involvement).

Fuller, Young and Baker (2011) examined the effects of principal preparation programs on school and student achievement, and found that a school's qualifications of teachers had significant impact on gains in student achievement, and that "principals prepared by programs housed at research and doctoral institutions are more effective than principals prepared by programs housed at regional institutions in improving the overall qualifications of the team of teachers on a campus" (p. 206). After comparing exemplary and conventional leadership preparation programs using structural equation modeling, Orr and Orphanos (2011) concluded that the quality of program focus, content and internship "contributes significantly to what graduates learn and, ultimately, to how they practice leadership and work to improve their school" (p. 50).

Taken together, the results of these studies suggest that the practical relevance of leadership preparation programs matters and influences a graduate's learning, practice and success. As illustrated and mapped by Kottkamp (2011), a preparation program influences leadership outcomes (e.g., knowledge, skills, values and career aspirations), which then influence leadership practice and behaviors in school, which in turn influence school staff, teachers and community, and which ultimately influence school climate and student learning outcomes.

Methods

Participants

Thanks to the endorsement of the Association of California School Administrators (ACSA), 342 of its members participated in this study. These ACSA members were principals of California public schools. In addition, with the support of the Chancellor's Office of the California State University (CSU) system and the Directors of the CSU's EdD Programs, 43 EdD program graduates, and 38 doctoral faculty members of the CSU system took part in this study. Due to the fact that some of the EdD program graduates and part-time faculty were the ACSA members, double listings or duplication might occur. To eliminate the problem, the duplicated names of the graduates and faculty were screened out from the list of the ACSA members before data collection.

   Of the school principals, as shown in Table 1, 54.5% were working in elementary schools, 12.7% in middle schools, 21.4% in high schools, and 11.4% in others (e.g., K-8 and 7-12). Ninety-nine percent of the schools were public, and 1% charter schools. Seventy-four percent of the principals had a Master's degree, 19% EdD, 3.9% PhD, and 3.3% professional degree. Eighty-eight percent of the principals had their highest degrees in the field of educational administration and leadership. Of the EdD program graduates, 27% were school principals, 18.9% were assistant principals, 2.7% teachers, and 51.4% others (e.g., administrators in school districts and the county offices of education). All of them graduated from the EdD programs in the last two years (i.e., 2010 and 2011). Of the participating faculty, 51.9% had a PhD, 44.4% EdD, and 3.7% Master's degree. Part-time faculty accounted for 21.4% of the total. Of the full-time faculty, 77.8% had PK-12 school administrative and teaching experiences before becoming university faculty members. All of the participating faculty members had taught the doctoral students in the last five years when the data began to be collected for this study.

Instrument

Each respondent completed the Competencies for Effective School Leadership Survey (CESLS), which we developed on the basis of the *Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008* (CCSSO, 2008) as well as the *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders* (*ISLLC 1996*) (CCSSO, 1996). The *Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008* (*ISLLC 2008*) consists of six broad standards or dimensions:

1. An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.
2. An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
3. An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5. An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

6. An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context. (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14)

Although these six new standards reflect the research findings on education leadership in the past decade, their language and framework are similar to and almost identical with the original *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders* (*ISLLC 1996*). One of the main differences between *ISLLC 1996* and *ISLLC 2008* is that the new standards are clearly policy-oriented (as indicated by the words "*Policy Standards*" in the title) to provide overall guidance and avoid confusion with practice and program standards (CCSSO, 1996; CCSSO, 2008). Therefore, the new standards give leadership preparation programs more flexibility to define leadership. Consequently, *ISLLC 2008* replaces the knowledge, skills, and dispositions in *ISLLC 1996* with the "functions" that define effective school leadership under the six standards (CCSSO, 2008).

The survey questionnaire we developed for this study combines the "functions" in *ISLLC 2008* with the "knowledge, skills, and dispositions" in *ISLLC 1996*. In this way, the questionnaire lists more specific leadership indicators for the respondents, which are better suited for the purpose of this study. The ISLLC organization was created in the mid-1990s by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) and major professional education organizations, including the American Association of School Administrators and the University Council for Education Administration (UCEA). In 1996, the ISLLC developed the six universal and core standards for effective school leaders. Each of the six standards is defined by subsets of knowledge, skills and dispositions or indicators. Since then, 46 states have adopted or adapted the ISLLC standards as the basis for designing and operating educational leadership preparation programs (Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008). The ISLLC standards also have been widely used for licensure. Commissioned by the ISLLC, the Education Testing Service (ETS) developed the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) based on the ISLLC standards. Currently, 16 states and the District of Columbia use the SLLA examination to license graduates of leadership preparation programs (ETS, 2013). In addition, The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has adopted the ISLLC standards for accrediting educational leadership preparation programs (NPBEA, 2011).

Numerous studies have provided evidence for the validity of the standards of *ISLLC 1996*. For instance, Reese and Tannenaum (1999) conducted a content-related validity study that involved a multistate panel of school principals and university educators in examining the linkages between the ISLLC standards and the job-analysis dimensions identified by a national job-analysis study (Tannenbaum, 1999). With the results showing each of the six ISLLC standards was linked to two or more of the 11 job analysis dimensions and confirming 93 percent of the linkages between the ISLLC knowledge and performance indicators and the job-analysis dimensions, Reese and Tannenaum's (1999) content-relate validity study affirmed that the ISLLC standards are relevant, important and job-related.

Besides the six standards, we added one more dimension "research methodology and scholarly inquiry" with 10 concrete items into the questionnaire for this study. One of the reasons for this addition is that research methodology is a major component of the curriculum of doctoral programs. For instance, research methodology is specified by the California State University system as one of the three major components or core concepts for its EdD programs in educational leadership (CSU, 2005). The topics and areas in the research methodology component include assessment and evaluation, applied quantitative and qualitative inquiry, field-

based research, and data driven decision making. The other two major components for the CSU's EdD programs are leadership foundations and leadership specialization. Furthermore, research methodology might separate university faculty from school principals with regard to its importance and emphasis. Brown, Martinez and Daniel (2002) conducted a study that examined the association between what has been taught in doctoral leadership programs and what is recommended to be included in the coursework of the doctoral programs by high-level practitioners who had also obtained a doctorate in educational leadership. They found that all of the skills related to research methodology and applications were ranked by the high-level practitioners in the bottom quartile of the 48 identified leadership skills but were highly emphasized in the coursework, suggesting that research skills "might be overemphasized in doctoral programs of study" (Brown, Martinez & Daniel, 2002, p. 60).

By combining the research methodology component with the six ISLLC standards, the survey questionnaire (CESLS) for this study has seven dimensions of the competencies for effective school leadership. The CESLS consists of three sections. The first section includes 96 items under the seven dimensions, where all respondents rated how important each of the items on a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "very important" to "not very important." The second section has the same items, where only graduates and faculty were asked to rate the extent to which each of the items was included in the coursework of their EdD programs on a five-point Likert-type scale: "emphasized", "covered at length", "moderately covered", "referenced", and "not included." In the first two sections, all respondents were given the choice of "does not apply" for each of the items. In the third section, all respondents were asked to respond to demographic questions, such as their positions and educational backgrounds.

Data Analyses

To answer our first research question, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine whether or not there were any differences among school principals, EdD program graduates, and doctoral faculty on their importance ratings for the seven dimensions of the knowledge, skills, and values. In contrast to multiple ANOVAs, MANOVA has the power to test the existence of group differences across several dependent variables simultaneously, taking account of the relationship between dependent variables (Field, 2009). In addition, a separate MANOVA was conducted to answer our second research question, assessing whether there were any differences among the three groups of school principals (i.e., Master's/professional degree, EdD, and PhD holders) on their perceived importance of the knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership.

After a significant MANOVA was found, discriminant analysis was used to discern the source of the differences, i.e., which pair of the groups differed, and on which dimensions of the competencies the group membership had an effect. Finally, a series of *t* tests were used to compare the mean ratings on importance and the mean ratings on emphasis of the competencies to answer our third and fourth research questions.

Results

The results of our reliability analysis showed that the values of Cronbach's alpha for the seven dimensions or subscales were .88 for "facilitating the vision," .93 for "school culture and instructional program," .91 for "managing the organization," and .93 for "collaboration and community engagement," .92 for "ethics and integrity," .94 for "understanding publics," and .91

for "research methodology." These high reliabilities indicate that the survey questionnaire consistently reflects the constructs that we intend to measure.

Table 2 compares the means and standard deviations of school principals, EdD program graduates, and university doctoral faculty on the seven dimensions of knowledge, skills and values for effective school leadership. EdD program graduates had higher rates on all the seven dimensions than school principals and doctoral faculty. School principals, on the other hand, had higher rates on the first five dimensions and lower rates on the last two dimensions than doctoral faculty. Overall, the results of MANOVA revealed a significant difference among the school principals, EdD program graduates, and doctoral faculty on the mean importance ratings for the seven dimensions of knowledge, skills, and values, $\Lambda = .860$, $F(403, 806) = 4.49$, $p < .001$.

The follow-up discriminant analysis showed two discriminant functions. The first function accounted for 87.1% of the variance, canonical $R^2 = .12$, whereas the second accounted for only 12.9%, canonical $R^2 = .02$. In combination these two discriminant functions significantly differentiated the three groups of membership, $\Lambda = 0.14$, $\chi^2 (14) = 61.02$, $p < .001$. As shown in Table 3, the first function discriminated school principals from doctoral faculty, with higher scores characterizing "facilitating the vision," "school culture and instructional program" and "managing the organization," and lower scores characterizing "understanding publics" and "research." The second function separated EdD program graduates from school principals and doctoral faculty, with higher scores on all seven dimensions of knowledge, skills, and values. In other words, principals had significantly higher scores on the first three dimensions than faculty, while faculty had significantly higher scores on the last two dimensions than school principals. Among the three groups, EdD program graduates had significantly higher scores on all of the seven dimensions than school principals and university doctoral faculty.

As shown in Table 4, PhD holders had higher rates on the seven dimensions than EdD and Master's/ professional degree holders, and EdD holders had slightly higher rates on the last two dimensions ("understanding publics" and "research") than Master'/professional degree holders. However, the results of MANOVA showed a statistically non-significant difference among these three school principal groups on their perceived importance of the knowledge, skills, and values for effective school leadership, $\Lambda = .948$, $F(317, 634) = 1.22$, $p = .257$, which indicate that the level of principals' education had no significant effect on their importance ratings of competencies for effective school leadership.

The results of the paired t tests on the differences between the means of faculty's ratings of importance and their ratings of emphasis for the seven dimensions of competencies are presented in Table 5. All of the paired differences were statistically significant and all of the effect sizes were large ($d > .50$) using Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Of the effect sizes, the largest was .89 for the "school culture and instructional program" and the smallest was .62 for the "research." On average, Faculty's ratings of importance on the seven dimensions were significantly higher than their ratings of emphasis in the coursework. Table 6 shows that on average EdD program graduates also ranked significantly higher on their importance ratings for the seven dimensions of competencies than their emphasis ratings. Six of the seven effect sizes were large, and only one for the "research" was medium ($d = .42$).

When looking at the 96 concrete competency items, we found that 92 (96%) of them were rated "important" or "very important" by principals. Of these 92 items, 42 (46%) were "covered at length" or "emphasized" in the coursework of EdD programs in graduates' judgment; whereas only six (7%) of them were rated by faculty as "covered at length" or "emphasized" in the coursework. In summary, the results of the analyses revealed a lack of

congruence between what was important to the three groups (school principals, EdD graduate and doctoral faculty) and what was emphasized in the coursework of EdD programs.

Discussion

This study investigated the extent to which the practical knowledge, skills and values necessary for effective school leadership were included and emphasized in the EdD programs in educational administration and leadership. We extended the current literature by comparing the perceptions of schools principals, EdD program graduates and doctoral faculty; by examining the impact of the principals' education level on their perceptions; and by investigating the congruence between what is important to main stakeholders (i.e., leading practitioners, EdD graduates, and doctoral faculty) and what is emphasized in the coursework of the EdD programs.

Four conclusions are drawn from our analyses. First, school principals ranked significantly higher than doctoral faculty on three of the seven dimensions of the practical knowledge and skills (i.e., "facilitating the vision," "school culture and instructional program," and "managing the organization"), while doctoral faculty ranked significantly higher than school principals on two dimensions (i.e., "understanding publics" and "research methodology"). Second, there were significant differences between the EdD graduates and doctoral faculty on their perceived importance of all seven dimensions, with the EdD program graduates' ratings being significantly higher than doctoral faculty's ones. Third, education level (Master'/professional degree, EdD or PhD) of school principals did not have any significant effect on their ratings on the importance of the knowledge, skills and values for effective school leadership. Last, judged by both doctoral faculty and EdD program graduates, all of the seven dimensions were not adequately covered or emphasized in the coursework of EdD programs in comparison with their importance ratings. A noteworthy finding is that doctoral faculty and EdD graduates had higher ratings on research than school principals, but they did not feel that the research competency was covered enough in the coursework relative to its importance. One of the possible explanations would be that the EdD students need to learn research methods and skills to finish their dissertations, which are a capstone requirement for both the PhD and the EdD but without clear distinction (Golde & Walker, 2006).

Evidence offered in this study supports the claims of Levine (2005), Shulman et al. (2006) and others that the curriculum of EdD leadership programs lacks practical relevance. Findings of this study suggest that in practice the EdD has not been differentiated from the PhD with respect to the coursework. The findings are consistent with the conclusion by the researchers of the CID that we do not prepare scholars very well, and neither do we prepare high level practitioners (Shulman et al., 2006). Results from this study are also consistent with the finding by Brown et al. (2002) that the research competency is more important to doctoral faculty than to leading practitioners. Part of the reason would be that for many education practitioners, "researcher" or "scholar" is not their core professional identity because of the practical orientation of educational administration and leadership (Golde & Walker, 2006).

There are some limitations of the current study. One of them is that our survey questionnaire does not include the recommendations of the respondents for the inclusion of practical knowledge and skills in the coursework of EdD programs. Although this study reveals that the knowledge and skills defined by the ISLLC standards were not emphasized in the coursework, we are unable to find out the extent to which these practical knowledge and skills, in the view of school principals as well as EdD program graduates and doctoral faculty, should be

included in the EdD coursework, or should be learned on the job or emphasized in inservice training and professional development workshops. Furthermore, we cannot directly address why the coursework of EdD programs lack practical relevance even though we extend prior research by establishing whether the coursework of EdD programs are practically relevant. Another limitation is that the sample of EdD program graduates and faculty came from the CSU system only. Therefore, it should be cautious about interpreting the results of this study and applying them to the EdD programs in other institutions.

Findings of this study contribute further to our understanding of the progress and reality of the EdD programs and curriculum. They imply that the practical relevance of the coursework should be considered in the assessment and evaluation of the quality or effectiveness of an EdD program, and used to distinguish the EdD from the PhD. We are convinced that the practical knowledge and skills should be adequately structured into EdD program. As shown by recent empirical studies, the doctoral programs with a focus on the knowledge and skills related to effective leadership practices have a positive impact on student achievement (e.g., Fuller, et al. 2011, Orr & Orphanos, 2011). At the same time, we need to realize that much of practical knowledge is picked up through experience in practice, and students can only develop a limited amount of practical knowledge in a doctoral program (Richardson, 2006). Moreover, it will be dangerous, as warned by Shulman et al. (2007), to distinguish the EdD extremely from the PhD because both of the degrees should "include an abundance of cross-over experiences and training" and "must be grounded in scholarship as both substance and process" (p. 30).

Nevertheless, our findings lay a foundation of addressing some unanswered questions: Where are the boundaries in curriculum that separate the EdD from the PhD? How can we integrate the practical knowledge and skills into the EdD coursework? How can we strike a balance in the EdD coursework between practice and research, and between professional skills and critical thinking skills? The findings of this study and the questions raised should bring about more dialogue and collaboration between doctoral faculty and educational practitioners to identify which competencies should be included in the EdD, and to what extent; and which competencies could be better developed on the job or through in-service training. Indeed, this study is an addition to the renewed efforts to further distinguish the EdD from the PhD and revitalize the EdD programs, so as to help doctoral students develop "the dispositions, habits, knowledge, and skills that cohere in the professional identity and practice, commitments and integrity" (Foster, Dahill, Goleman, & Tolentino, 2005, p. 100).

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Ready From Day One: An Examination Of One Principal Preparation Program's Redesign In Collaboration With Local School Districts

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This paper presents a newly implemented model of principal preparation at a public university in the southwestern United States. The authors begin by identifying a number of innovative practices currently being carried out within educational administration programs across the United States. Informed by the context of these national models, the authors present their university's design for the readers' consideration. This is followed by a discussion of implementation issues (both positive and negative) which the administrators of this program have encountered. Finally, an evaluation matrix is presented which will be utilized in assessing the effectiveness of this principal preparation model.

Introduction

Is there a gap between theory and practice within principal preparation programs? If so, what can Universities do to increase the relevance of their programs in order to meet the needs of local school districts? A recent survey of school principals revealed that 67% of respondents felt that their principal leadership programs were out of touch with the reality of what it takes to successfully lead schools today (Farkas, Johnson, & Duffet, 2003). Educational Leadership faculty themselves have recognized the problem. As Martin and Papa (2008) note, "Principal preparation places too much weight on class lectures and theory, and not enough emphasis on application" (p. 14). The President of the Teachers College at Columbia University further validated this premise when he stated that educational administration programs are irrelevant to the jobs their students will hold as school leaders (Levine, 2005). While others have criticized Levine for ignoring many positive aspects of principal preparation programs across the country (Young, 2005; Flessa, 2007), there seems to be little doubt that engaging in this debate is necessary if we are to improve current practices and re-envision what principal preparation programs could or should be. The conversation now turns to a review of the extant literature.

Literature Review

There are approximately 500 Universities currently offering principal leadership degrees/certifications across the United States (Young & Brewer, 2008). Within these programs, there are a number of exciting innovations being instituted in order to improve their

impact and relevance to local schools. While this review of the literature is not meant to provide a meta-analysis of all 500 EDAD programs across the United States, it does provide important context for our own program redesign. The examples of innovation we identified fell into three categories: enhanced entry criteria; increased field-based experiences; and heightened support after graduation.

Enhanced Entry Criteria

One way that a principal preparation program can attempt to produce higher quality graduates is to enhance program entry requirements (Hess, 2003). Examples of this can be found at both the University of Louisville and the University of San Diego in which applicants must be nominated by their principal before being accepted into the leadership program (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Orr, 2006; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). In Jefferson County, Kentucky, the school district actually pays the tuition for up to three educational leadership courses for participants whom they have recommended (Davis, Darling Hammond, Meyerson, & LaPointe, 2005). Providing monetary support for candidates doubtless heightens the importance of selecting the right candidates to endorse. Another example of vetting at program entry is to have superintendents and assistant superintendents serve on the selection committee for acceptance into the program, which is the practice at Bank Street College (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). The logic behind these models is that school and district leaders are often in the best position to assess the future leadership potential of program candidates.

Another way to discern who is likely to do well in principal preparation programs is to look at GRE scores. Hines (2008) conducted a study examining the characteristics of pre-service principals in order to identify who would be most likely to pass the state principal exam. The results indicate a positive correlation between scores on the Verbal portion of the GRE and passing rates on the state principal certification exam. Thus raising the required GRE verbal score would be an easy way for an Educational Administration program to improve the passing rates of its graduates. One drawback of raising GRE verbal entry requirements is that this policy is likely to lead to fewer program participants – which one could argue may not be a bad consequence. Perhaps some programs could benefit from increasing entry criteria and decreasing the number of students who graduate with principal certification.

Increased Field-Based Experiences

Increasing the number of hours that interns spend working in local schools may hold great promise. An example of this comes from East Tennessee State University. The state of Tennessee requires that principal interns receive a minimum of 180 hours of field based experiences. However, at East Tennessee State University, students must complete 540 hours of internship experiences, which is three times greater than their state requirements (Klein, 2007). East Tennessee State provides their rationale for having their interns complete so many hours of administrative work as follows, "The purpose … is to provide leaders with the training, knowledge, and clinical experience that develop our students into effective school principals and central office administrators. Success of this mission is dependent on on-going collaborative relationships with schools and related agencies. The clinical experience provides an opportunity for students to practice and strengthen leadership skills learned during graduate preparation" (East Tennessee State University College of Education, 2012, p. 3).

A related attempt to increase field based experience comes from the University of Washington which has created a system of site surveys which they call data walks. During these data walks, faculty and graduate students work with a low performing campus to assess areas of need and create action plans to address problem areas. At the end of these data walks, recommendations are developed which focus on tangible steps that the school can take to address real problems on their campus and continuing support is offered by the University (Ginsberg & Kimball, 2008). In this way aspiring leaders have the opportunity to work with campuses that truly need assistance, which may very well be the same campuses that are likely to have frequent leadership vacancies.

At Delta State University, students are required to complete 38 weeks of field based experience, comprised of 12 weeks at each of the following levels: elementary experience, middle school experience, and high school experience, which is followed by 2 weeks experience at the central office level (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). Going one step further, Wichita State University utilizes an entirely field based curriculum in which they reduce the number of classroom hours in order to maximize students experiences in the field by having them work on action research projects with local school districts (Orr, 2006). One might ask whether reducing the number of classroom hours can ever go too far. What is the correct balance between a solid theoretical foundation and field based practicality? In a sense, programs like East Tennessee State University and Wichita State University are on the leading edge of this debate by not only discussing the balance between theory and practice, but actively innovating to explore the best balance in this area.

Continued Support after Graduation
Another way that programs are helping to ensure that their graduates are ready to lead local schools is to implement exit criteria. For example, at Cal State University in Fresno, students are required to complete exit interviews at the end of each semester to ensure that they are prepared to lead local schools. These exit interviews are conducted by both program faculty and district supervisors (Jackson & Kelley, 2002). These exit interviews serve as a University assurance of a candidate's fitness to lead. It is axiomatic that the reputation of program graduates are equally yoked with their degree granting institution. As a University's reputation grows, the value of their degrees is held in higher esteem. Likewise, as graduates perform well in the workplace, school districts form opinions about the quality of the program that trained them. Providing a fitness to lead exit criteria is one way that institutions can confirm their confidence in the quality of their program graduates.

At the University of Pittsburgh, Educational Leadership faculty provide support for the local school district's current principals and teachers (many of whom graduated from the University of Pittsburgh) by connecting the University's summer professional development offerings with the needs of local school districts. (Davis, Darling Hammond, Meyerson, & LaPointe, 2005). This is important because it engages Universities in planning training sessions based on the stated needs of local schools. It also provides a venue to assist University faculty in staying current with the needs of local schools.

Similarly, in Washington, the Center for Educational Leadership supports both aspiring and current school leaders at various stages of career development. To begin with, aspiring leaders are supported through traditional graduate leadership coursework. This is enhanced through a leadership seminar series in which leadership modules are offered within local school districts. Finally, a summer leadership institute provides continuing training for school leaders in

an ongoing model of continuous professional development (Davis, Darling Hammond, Meyerson, & LaPointe, 2005). By continuing to support school leaders well beyond graduation from school leadership programs, universities can have a greater role in the ongoing success of school leaders, and by extension, of the schools led by their program graduates. We now turn to an examination of our University's newly designed principal preparation model.

Overview of the Ready from Day One: School Leadership Consortium

This paper presents a newly implemented model of principal preparation at a public university in the southwestern United States. Prior to the redesign, the educational leadership curriculum within this program was traditional in the sense that it was largely didactic, with classes being offered exclusively on the University campus. In 2011, the Leadership faculty began a conversation with our constituents in an effort to improve upon our existing principal preparation model. The key constituents sought out were: 1) program graduates who had been hired as school administrators; 2) University faculty and administration; 4) Educational leadership faculty from other universities; and 5) School district superintendents, central office, and school leaders from 11 school districts in close geographic proximity to the University.

Based upon feedback from these constituents, the School Leadership Consortium (SLC) was created. This model was designed to blend theory and practice in order to provide a more realistic job preview to program participants (Author, 2013). This model features three primary components.

1) *A Co-teach model of instruction:* A critical innovation of this program is that courses are co-taught by school leaders working alongside University professors. This model was designed to blend theory with practice. University professors provide a solid theory base for students, while district practitioners are well positioned to explain local district practices.

2) *In-District location of courses:* Another important component of this program is that courses are located on campuses within participating districts. This not only adds convenience for participants, it also facilitates hands on experiences and adds to the gravitas in that classes are on-site where candidates hope to be employed as future school leaders, creating for all intents and purposes a 2 year job interview.

3) *Continuing education for in-service leaders:* Individual class sessions are open to any employee of the partnering districts, whether they are a student in the course or not. This provides professional development opportunities for current school leaders and allows cohort members to interact with current in-district practitioners. In this way, the Educational Leadership faculty is able to provide support to both pre-service and in-service school leaders at no additional cost to the University or the school district .

Implementation

Key Support Structures
There were a number of key support structures that laid the foundation for the successful implementation of this program. At its core, this model is built on relationships with local constituents. Our College of Education is fortunate to have key administrators who have a

background in K-12 Education. Their knowledge and experience within the discipline provide an understanding of the need for closer connections between Local K-12 Education Agencies (LEAs) and institutions of higher learning. Our department established regular meetings with local superintendents, principals, and teachers to discuss program redesign. The importance of speaking regularly with representatives from the agencies that hire our program graduates cannot be overstated. As these relationships have strengthened over time, our conversations have become more open and transparent. These candid conversations were crucial in exposing the gaps where our traditional University program was failing to meet the needs of local schools, which led to the redesign of our program.

The role of tenure-track faculty was also essential. All faculty members within our program were involved in the meetings with local school districts. Each faculty member heard for themselves the successes and challenges the agencies hiring our graduates were facing. This involvement by faculty from the ground up helped lead to a sense of ownership and a willingness to change what we were doing based on the feedback of our constituents. The changes we implemented would likely not have been as well received had faculty been excluded from the design process.

Speaking with program graduates has also provided invaluable insight. We conducted interviews with program graduates who had been hired as school administrators and asked them what we were doing well and what could be done better. Interestingly, the answer to both questions was often the same. What our graduates liked best was when we brought in school district representatives as guest speakers or as panelists. These included human resource representatives, school principals, media specialists, teachers, and superintendents. What our graduates told us we could do better was to provide more opportunities to interact with these same individuals. Hearing this from our program graduates was an important point for us in designing the SLC model described above. These interviews were so impactful on faculty that we now conduct interviews with program graduates on an annual basis in order to perpetually improve our practice.

Additionally we spoke with Educational Leadership faculty members from eleven other universities in order to ascertain what worked well for them in their programs and what challenges they were currently facing. One important lesson we learned from our peers was the power of customizing programs to meet local needs. For example, one program we spoke with had moved almost exclusively online based on feedback from their constituents, while another program had moved most of its coursework into school districts, with professors travelling to schools rather than students travelling to the university. Both models worked because both were based on local needs.

Thus our University created the SLC model predicated on a co-teach model of instruction, in-district location of courses, and continuing education for current school leaders. This design was created based upon the needs of our local schools, incorporated feedback from program graduates, and was informed by best practices from other Universities. We have provided a visual representation of the administrative timeline toward implementation of this model, so that other programs considering a similar initiative can have a template on which to base their own work (see Appendix 1).

Implementation Challenges
As with any new endeavor, our implementation was not without its challenges. The first challenge we faced was with the implementation of off-site registration in school districts. Our

initial goal was to offer a one-stop shop in which students who brought official sealed copies of their transcripts could apply for admission, receive advising, apply for financial aid or tuition assistance, and coordinate Veterans benefits (for those who qualified). While this may sound simple, it turned out to be somewhat challenging to coordinate. Here, the role of a strong department chair was instrumental in the successful implementation of this initiative. When faculty ran into road blocks with traditional university practices, the department chair was able to make phone calls, speak with supervisors, and helped to create a customer-centric focus which enabled the district-located registration to occur.

A potential challenge to keep in mind is the requirements of accrediting bodies. For example, offering courses off-site can constitute a substantive change to a program, depending on what percentage of coursework is offered off-site (Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges, 2012). While meeting accreditation requirements is not an insurmountable challenge, it can be an unexpected one if not planned for in advance. It is therefore highly recommended that individuals considering program refinements consult with their provost's office.

The final challenge we will discuss here is the issue of finances. By offering a co-teach model of instruction, courses will cost the University more than any other class because the University is paying an adjunct salary to the district based co-teacher while simultaneously paying the regular salary of the tenure-track professor. As was mentioned earlier, we benefited from having University administrators with a K-12 Education background who fully understood the need to better blend theory with practice in principal preparation. Thus, the additional cost has not yet proven a problem for our model. However, we recognize that at some point in the future, it may become necessary to justify the additional cost to the University. This increased cost was offset by a 30% increase in enrollment. Nevertheless, we feel it is vital for us to collect outcome data to measure the effectiveness of this model in order to justify the cost. We also feel it is important to seek out partners from private industry who share in the vision of improving school leadership models so that this initiative can become self-sustaining. If the model proves to be successful, this data can be used to offer school districts and outside agencies the opportunity to invest in the perpetuation of this model and share the cost of implementation.

Next Steps: Evaluation Metrics

Some principal preparation programs are beginning to change the way they measure effectiveness. For example, at the University of Illinois at Chicago, a variety of innovative data are being collected to measure their program's success. These evaluation pieces include information on students' sense of preparedness for the job of principals, feedback on the performance of graduates once they have been hired, and the success of campuses led by program graduates (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). This concept of tying the value provided by a University to the lifelong success of its program graduates requires a dramatic shift in thinking at the higher education level. Were such a concept to be widely embraced, persistence and graduation rates as well as success on state certification exams would no longer be sufficient indicators of University success.

It is our goal to ensure that administrative candidates who graduate from our program possess the intellectual, ethical, and procedural knowledge necessary to effectively oversee the education of the students in their districts. It is therefore incumbent upon our program to ensure that these individuals provide a measurable benefit to the schools in which they serve. We

propose that an external evaluator be hired to measure program outcomes. Because the School Leadership Consortium (SLC) coexists with our traditional University based model of principal preparation there exists an opportunity to compare the success of SLC cohort students with the outcomes of non SLC cohort students within the University. We also intend to compare our outcomes with those of other principal programs across the region. We will evaluate the success of each of our programs based on the following criteria: graduation rates, certification rates, level of self-efficacy upon graduation, growth in level of self-efficacy throughout the program, hiring rates, longevity in the field, and the success of K-12 schools led by program graduates (See Appendix 2).

Graduation rates and passing rates on state certification exams are two useful traditional methods of evaluating program effectiveness. Because the state subsidizes tuition for our in-state residents, we believe it is paramount that we be good stewards of these public funds. Ensuring that students persist to graduation and have learned the requisite skills to pass our state's principal certification exam is an important baseline measure of programmatic success.

In addition to these traditional outcome measures, we will be administering a self-assessment of administrator self-efficacy. A number of research studies have identified a correlation between educator self-efficacy and student achievement (Bandura, 1996; Bandura, 2000; Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy, 2004; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Accordingly, it is our intent to provide all of the students seeking principal certification within our University with a measure of self-efficacy before beginning coursework (which will serve as a baseline indicator in their belief in their own readiness for school leadership). Students will be asked to complete the same survey when they have finished coursework. A pre-test, post-test design will be utilized to assess any change in participants' beliefs regarding their ability to serve as school leaders.

We have found that some of our graduates are hired immediately upon graduation, while others find employment as administrators in subsequent years, depending on their own interests, abilities, and school district needs. We believe collecting data on hiring rates is crucial information that should be shared with potential students so that they can make informed decisions as intelligent consumers. We also believe hiring rates are important as a measure of a school district's beliefs in the strength of our program. If schools have a hand in helping to prepare future school leaders within their own district, this provides them with a "grow your own" future leadership model and gives them the opportunity to evaluate potential candidates over a two year job interview.

The final two evaluation measures we have selected are longitudinal. It will take years to collect data in the areas of longevity and success of our students' students, but we feel the collection of this data is vital in order to gain a more complete picture of the relative value our program is adding to schools in our area. According to Young and Fuller (2009), the average principal position comes open every 3 ½ years. Unfortunately, theorists in the field of change leadership concur that in order for change initiatives to be successful, leadership must be in place for a minimum of 3-5 years (Fullan, 1991). Thus, the revolving door of the Principalship is creating a scenario in which principals are not allowed the time or necessary support to implement successful change (Author, 2012). Accordingly, measuring the length of time our graduates serve in principal positions will be an important indication as to their ability to positively effect change on their campuses.

The final measure we plan to track is the relative value added to a campus that employs one of our graduates as a principal. Years of research into the correlates of effective schools have revealed that school leaders provide the single largest indirect effect upon student

achievement (Edmonds, 1979; Levine & Lezotte, 1990). What this means is that although principals do not directly provide instruction to students, the decisions they make and the environment they foster create the structures that either hinder or enable student success (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). It should be noted that this data will take years to collect because most new graduates are hired as assistant principals. It will likely take 3-5 years after graduation before these individuals are strong candidates for principal positions. Once they are employed as principals, we believe that data should be collected for a minimum of three years before we can begin to attribute a campus' success in any way to the role of the school leader. Thus it will likely be a minimum of 6-8 years before meaningful data will exist for our program in this area. By collecting short term, intermediate, and longitudinal data, we plan to perpetually refine our model in order to better prepare our graduates so that they are ready from day one to positively impact schools in our region.

Conclusion

This paper presents a new model of principal preparation that is designed to better meet the leadership needs of K-12 schools in our region. By involving local school districts in the preparation of their own future leaders, it is anticipated that graduates of this program will add significant value to the schools in which they are called to serve. We acknowledge there are many innovative and effective models of principal preparation being implemented throughout the United States and internationally. It is our goal to share our model with our colleagues in higher education so as to add to the growing body of literature in this field as together we strive to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

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**Appendix 1: Timeline for Initial Program Implementation of the
Ready from Day One: School Leadership Consortium**

- ❖ Foundation
  - ➢ Relationships with constituents built over time
- ❖ 24 months before implementation
  - ➢ Meet with individuals who represent agencies who are hiring program graduates – ask what can be done to provide a better employee who will be ready from day 1.
  - ➢ Meet with program graduates who are now working as administrators – ask them what the program did well to prepare them for their career and what the program can do better
  - ➢ Investigate what other Universities in the area are doing – what can be learned from them?
- ❖ 18 months before implementation
  - ➢ Contact district(s) to explore initial interest in hosting a cohort
- ❖ 12 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Meet face to face with superintendent(s) interested in possible participation, provide them with timeline for implementation and sample Memorandum of Understanding (MOU).
- ❖ 9 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ MOUs should be signed for upcoming cohort to begin 10 months from now, identify likely co-teachers, determine times/locations for informational and registration sessions, determine times/locations for courses; determine how participants will be selected/invited to participate
- ❖ 8 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Send initial email inviting possible participants to attend information session for an overview of the upcoming cohort
- ❖ 7 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Send follow up email inviting participants to attend informational session
  - ➢ Conduct Initial informational session – provide information on state requirements for principal certification; University requirements; program design; program cost; dates/times/locations for courses
  - ➢ Send follow up email to students who attended informational session giving them a copy of the presentation, information on how to apply, and dates and times of upcoming registration session
- ❖ 6 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Invite and ask for RSVP responses for On-site registration session;
  - ➢ Conduct on-site registration session – bring representatives from admissions/enrollment/graduate advising/financial aid/ and Veterans Affairs
  - ➢ Solidify list of participants
  - ➢ Submit map of co-taught class to department chair for course scheduling purposes
- ❖ 5 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Have University post adjunct position
  - ➢ Interview potential district co-teachers
- ❖ 4 months before cohort begins
  - ➢ Select school district co-teachers

- ➢ Introduce district co-teacher to the University Faculty member with whom they will be co-teaching
- ➢ Follow up with selected candidates – ensure they have all information needed
- ❖ 3 months before class begins
  - ➢ Co-teachers co-plan for courses
    - ♦ University professor should send co-teacher a copy of the syllabus and a desk-copy of the textbook,
    - ♦ Meet for planning session(s) to modify course syllabus based on co-teachers areas of expertise/interest and student learning goals for the course.
  - ➢ Ensure enough copies of books exist for book loan program – order more if necessary.
- ❖ 2 months before class begins
  - ➢ Ensure all participants are registered for course
  - ➢ Check in on co-teachers to ensure they have everything they need;
  - ➢ Both the Faculty member and the co-teachers should identify specific topics that they wish to identify for free professional development opportunities in the district.
- ❖ 1 month before class begins
  - ➢ Ensure all participants have a map to the location of first class; copy of the syllabus; and information on how to obtain books from book-loan program
- ❖ First day of class
  - ➢ invite Department chair/Dean/Superintendents to join first session in order to welcome participants to the cohort;
  - ➢ Distribute textbooks for book loan program for those students who have not yet picked up a copy
  - ➢ Introduce co-teachers; take a break to give VIP guests opportunity to remain or to leave; and begin class

Appendix 2: Evaluation Matrix

	Date Data to be Collected	Data Source	School Leadership Consortium Model	Traditional University Based Model	Average Results for the State (if info is available)
Graduation Rate	Annually in May	Higher Ed Coordinating Board			
Passing Rate on State Certification Exam	Annually in September	State Education Agency			
Exiting Self-Efficacy Score	Annually in May	Internal University survey			
Self-Efficacy Growth	Annually in May	Internal University survey			
Percentage of graduates employed as school or district leaders	Annually in September	State Public Education Information Management System Database			
Average number of years graduates serve in given leadership positions	Annually, in September	State Public Education Information Management System Database			
Relative Value Added to Campuses led by program graduates	Annually, in December	Indices 1, 2, 3, and 4 of the State Academic Performance Report			

iPrincipals: Innovative Themes, Strategies, and Recommendations of Ten Online University Educational Leadership Programs

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This report, the second in a series, provides comparative empirical data on current state and national university trends around the thematic strategies and constructs ten fully online Educational Leadership programs engage within their innovative designs. Our 2014 iPrincipals report provided information on how one California University transitioned their fully onground program to both a hybrid model, and subsequently to a fully online delivery, in their preparation of school leadership candidates. Current findings, presented within this report, reflect the broader state and national perspectives of Educational Leadership program faculty, and administrators, in their preparation of iPrincipals.

As twenty years of growth in online course delivery across university programs continues to steadily increase, our understanding of online practice, as faculty within educational leadership programs, assists us to both apply empirical trends within our discipline, and to assess their more local effectiveness and quality to enhance our EDL candidates' learning (McBeth, 2008). We can ask, "How often do we continue to do things in a certain manner just because they have always been done that way? Have we ever felt that our actions are not bringing the results we desire? Are we looking for new paths to our desired results… and routinely?" (p 70)

Aristotle noted, *"We are what we repeatedly do."* Within our "doing" of school leadership, we have learned effective educational leadership makes a difference in improving learning (Leithwood, et.al, 2004, p 3). The 21st century educational reformers, like Linda Lambert, Victoria Bernhardt, Richard Elmore, Larry Lezotte, Peter Senge, Richard DuFour, Mike Schomoker, Doug Reeves, and many others have repeatedly urged the reform of school practices, and others, such as Michael Fullan, in his 2001 "The Moral Imperative," have provided us no other choice but to change our ways. (McBeth, 2008, p. 3)

As the dialogues around school change, and the mandated reforms ensuring them, have endured for over forty years, online technologies, particularly those including course delivery, paralleled them. Questions of quality and effectiveness arose, and remain the foci of assessments for which accrediting bodies demand evidence, including alignments to state and national standards. A comparative analysis of the thematic strategies and constructs of ten fully online

university educational leadership programs is presented here. The study's findings hold significance for designers of fully virtual school leadership training programs as EDL faculty and administration share their perspectives around building and nurturing *iPrincipals*, (Marcos & Loose, 2014) for both traditional and virtual schools.

Building and Nurturing the Virtual Educational Leader's Mindset

Innovations and Technologies

Knowledge is necessary to growing dynamic, successful online programs, particularly within a continuous improvement model. We found faculty are focused on the iY generation while striving to meet the learning needs of these future school leaders. Virtual leaders are also virtual learners seeking transformation, thus, among the first of the innovations we found considered in the design of these ten fully online EDL program designs was that of cohort models supported through focused recruitment.

As the migration from fully face-to-face, to hybrid, to fully online occurred, SKYPE interviews for admission became a reality for many programs. Built within these designs were some state sponsorships and funding, as well as certificate programs in addition to the more traditional degree and licensure programs. Professional growth plans became a part of programs, as well. The technologies important to these programs' effective delivery were identified by faculty as, Moodle Rooms, Angel, Blackboard, TaskStream, Customized by Institution, SABA (like Go to Meeting), Jing Video, Prezi, CamTasia, GoogleDocs, Hangout, and Adobe Connect.

The researchers, who have personally experienced this transition from a fully traditional face-to-face program to the new online delivery content modules, believe that several factors and forces are in conflux bringing about this rapid change to university programs that seek to prepare and license the next generation of school leaders and administrators. These factors and forces are presented in the following model, and have led, it is believed by the researchers, to the current state of many educational administration programs that are now being delivered online:

iPrincipals: Engaging Online Educational Leadership Practitioners

Current Reality	Transformational Elements	University and State Certification	District Partnerships
Traditional 20th Century EDL Program based on a Face-to-Face Delivery Model	Millenials/Y Technology Online Programs State and Federal Educational Mandates	University EDL Preparation Program Performance and Content Expectations for School Administrators (CAPEs and CACEs)	Practicing 21st Century School Leaders

⟵ Data, Research, and Literature ⟶

Applied Nature of Online Educational Leaders' Learning

Accessible – Collaborative Cohorts, Peer Projects
Consistency in Course Delivery – Candidates Receive Identical Content and Materials
Action Research & Case Study Projects – Specific Alignment of Candidate Inquiry to School Settings
Practitioner Taught by Highly Qualified FT and Adjunct Instructors
Field Experiences – Embedded in Coursework from Outset of Program,
Supervised by University and Site Mentors Espousing Authentic Tasks
Assessments – Signature Assignments, ePortfolios, Journals, Focus Groups,
Regional Advisory Boards, Candidate Evaluations
Successful Initial Employment and Subsequent Promotions in School Leadership Positions

Loose, W., & Marcos, T., 2014

Upon the successful transition of their EDL program from a traditional model, to hybrid, to fully online, the researchers, employed by a large private, non-profit university, embarked on a journey of discovery for more detailed, comparative empirical data. The researchers report their findings here, around the successful transitions of ten educational leadership programs comprising nine private non-profits, as well as one California State University program (Marcos & Loose, 2014).

The following findings are reported from faculty and administrators of ten online EDL programs who were interviewed by the researchers. In reporting the findings from the participants, the initial theme of the respondent is provided in italics for the reader. Each item is additionally provided clarifying information about the specific finding.

Developing Authenticity in Online Practitioners

Relevance, Current Practice, and Field Experiences
The researchers used the following prompt in the interview process regarding relevance:
Of what relevance to current leadership practice in P-12 schooling does your program espouse?
The participants provided a variety of answers to this query. One of the primary foci was the *specific alignment of inquiry to the school setting*. Seven out of ten university professors strongly advocated that the candidates scan their current school environments to identify current

issues, problems, and challenges addressing improvement of the overall academic achievement of the students at the school. This process provides real-world experience and relevance for the candidates.

Once candidates, through the inquiry process, identify potential areas of need, they design an *Action Research/Case study* as part of their online program. In some instances, some programs lead the candidate through a research course to further identify and codify the area that the candidate will be working on. Often, this topic then becomes the primary topic of the case study, and the candidate then uses this topic throughout the rest of their program applying the content of the courses they are taking to their selected case study area and topic. For example, if a candidate selected the impact of a reading program intervention for special education students, one of their university courses in the program for educational policy would have a primary assignment (sometimes referred to as a signature assignment) on the laws and policies that are pertinent to special education.

The respondents also spoke to the importance of the *meaning and relevance to the candidates' demographics*. Professors spoke about the importance of carefully examining the case study in the scope of the school/district's specific and unique demographics. Part of the concern expressed was being sensitive to cultural and societal mores in consideration of possible generalizability to larger populations. That is, preliminary findings of school populations in multi-cultural Southern California may not be generalizable to similar school configurations on the Eastern part of the United States (and vice-versa) possibly due to these demographic influences and differences.

The interviews also found that the respondents reported that the candidate's courses were delivered by *multiple practitioners still currently active in the field*. The opinions expressed in the interviews were that adjunct instructors, in conjunction with university full-time faculty, provided the strongest instructional delivery for aspiring candidates ensuring the most up-to-date content in the courses based on current developments in the actual school systems.

Respondents generally reported that *faculty professional development is ongoing* (certifications and accreditations for Institutes of Higher Education (IHE), in addition to the actual practices in the field). This is particularly true in the current IHE environment in California as the Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) is in the process of recertifying the preliminary and clear credential processes and requirements to which all California universities granting administrative credentials must realign their program to remain in compliance. Part of the new clear credential requirements will include a mentoring/coaching component that will require initial and on-going training by the university mentors assigned as coaches/mentors to clear credential candidates.

Participants additionally indicated that the *retention rates are very high (95%)* in these administrative credential programs. Candidates may be motivated to complete these programs because they are graduate students who have often demonstrated success in previous program credential completions (and hence, they have experience and knowledge as to successful university strategies). Further, these candidates may also envision that by completing an administrative program, there is a greater chance of career advancement and this is part of a strategy to advance their professional career.

Eight out of ten faculty and administrators reported that graduates of their programs had a high level of success *in the applied nature of the program* that led to initial employment as entry-level administrators for most candidates, and that many candidates also were successful in subsequent years in achieving promotions in higher administrative positions. While there was no

longitudinal study regarding these data, the professors related this information based on anecdotal evidence and continued contact with the candidates upon completion of the program. A possible future study could be to develop a longitudinal study regarding these candidates and programs to look for possible correlations and causality that may be most effective for promotions of school administrators beyond the initial employment phase that could be included in the preparation programs.

Program assessments often *included electronic measures (ePortfolios)*. This is not overly surprising in an online program. These electronic portfolios documented the rate of candidate's learning and was gathered, collected, and evaluated by the university at specific transition points in the program. This was often accomplished as part of or in coordination with field work assignments that the candidate was competing as part of the administrative credential requirements.

Creating Major Goals and Student Learning Outcomes

The researchers used the following prompt in the interview process regarding field experiences: *How do your faculty members supervise field experiences for state principal licensure?*

Almost universally, EDL programs were focused on preparing the candidates to obtain their states' credential/license to be a school administrator. An important part of the preparation process is the fieldwork/experience component as these experiences provide actual real-life practice in solving issues and problems that newly credentialed administrators would be expected and need to be able to accomplish in the scope of their duties.

Respondents reported that the fieldwork/experience normally *begins at outset of program (first course)*. This is to provide a complete experience for the candidate with the goal that the candidate have the opportunity for field work experience covering an entire school year beginning with the opening of a school year and culminating with the closure tasks of completing the school year. Candidates engaged in field experience covering a complete school cycle would then be ready to start an administrative career at any point during a school year and have some idea as to the typical operations and issues encountered in that part of a school year cycle.

In coordination with the University fieldwork/experience supervisor, seven programs require that the candidate identify and work with a *local site supervisor to ensure that the candidate is involved in authentic tasks*, and three programs include field experience that is embedded into coursework. The local site supervisor serves as the day-to-day observer and evaluator ensuring authenticity as well as quality in the field work tasks being performed. Additionally, the site supervisor also initiates the self-reflective process for the candidate asking the candidate to contemplate *how did this go? How could this have been done better*? This is then followed up by a deeper reflection with the university supervisor as the program continues. The researchers found no difference between privates in California and across the nation, nor between privates and CSU.

The faculty and administrators related that the customary process for the *fieldwork/experience was embedded in coursework and assignments* that the candidate had in the university program. *The university supervisor would also with follow up on-site visits and/or phone calls*. The purpose of the on-site visits and phone call was to assess progress, checking for issues/problems, and to ensure that the candidate was progressing through the completion of the fieldwork requirements at an appropriate rate. The researchers additionally found that

components of most fieldwork experiences were *practicum based (site based)* with the candidate completing experiences at their current school site working in coordination with their site administrators.

As noted above, the candidates also normally used ePortfolios as the medium to document and provide artifacts of the fieldwork experiences being completed. Professors added that candidates' ePortfolios served many candidates as a source to use for initial and job promotion interviews. Thus, the ePorftolio served a dual purpose and not only documented candidates' actual on-the-job experience for interview purposes, but also provided evidence of the candidate's requirements for program completion. The ePortolios and fieldwork experiences also contained *projects* that the candidates completed. Some respondents reported that *videos were also used as documentation* for the candidate's fieldwork requirements.

Finally, the professors indicated that the fieldwork/experience components of the program provided an *intentional window of contact (university/candidate)* providing a strong connection between the theory of the university program and the real-life application of the theories into practice.

Quality Courses, Online Effectiveness, and Rigor

Assessments, Quality, and Existing Gaps
The researchers used the following prompt in the interview process regarding assessment:
What assessments are in place to ensure quality program outcomes?

The assessment portion of the program was very important to the respondents because this was is a critical part of the compliance and accreditation component for the university and subsequently the university's ability to recommend candidates for licensure. This important linkage required that the university's assessment to serve both the functions of providing an evaluation/grade for the candidate as well as meeting the state's requirements for the candidate to obtain licensure.

Respondents, at both privates and CSU, reported several methods of assessment, the most common being, *ePortfolios,* reported in use at all ten institutions. Another assessment commonly found was *journaling by the candidates that was reviewed by the university supervisor*. Candidates reported to their professors that this self-reflective experience was often very powerful for themselves and especially so following a major issue/problem resolution and in conjunction with a year-in-review consideration.

Eight respondents reported the use of *capstone projects* similar in nature to the case study/research projects candidates were completing as part of their real-life authentic experiences. Two institutions require a thesis. These culminating experiences were reported of high value to the candidates. Candidates felt the results of the capstone project often were helpful in addressing current issues/problems at the school site. This positive experience provided a strong sense of accomplishment for the candidate that led to a feeling of competence and confidence encouraging the candidate to carry this successful experience forward in becoming an entry level administrator who had the ability to successfully assess and address school problems.

Also universally reported were *required evaluations by (university/site supervisors)*. These evaluations between the two levels of sources were regularly compared and contrasted to look for areas of strength and needed improvement of the candidate. Using these two levels of evaluations as a triangulation instrument and process, the university mentor/instructors and the

day-to-day site supervisors could make recommendations regarding areas around additional field experiences that may need to be completed by the candidate before completion of the program.

Also reported were the use of assessment scales that indicated the *levels of competence* of the candidate. A typical rating scale was (I) introduced, (D) developed, (M) mastered. The scale adopted by the university was normally connected to both the capstone project and signature assignments completed by the candidate. The *rubrics and syllabi used by the universities were state standards aligned* for both compliance and state requirement issues.

An important component related to the researchers was the element of program feedback that took the form of three elements: *Program feedback from focus groups* – was reported as important to the university to assure that the program was meeting the current needs of school districts. Often, this was collected via IHE coordination meetings and from input from local school superintendents.

Feedback from student surveys – was important to programs as they check on student perceptions of the curricula, course offerings, and experiences checking for the student's perspective of relevance and real-life applicability as well as the student's perceptions regarding being prepared to become an administrator. *Faculty feedback on teaching experiences per course* – was important for curricular revisions and updates and to keep the courses relevant to Millennial virtual learners.

The researchers were interested in any potential gaps that may have developed between traditional face-to-face programs and the development and adoption of online programs. To identify any gaps the researchers used the following prompt in the interview process:

What gaps, if any, may exist between fully online and face-to-face school leadership program data in candidate competencies? What program changes, if any, have your program faculty implemented to improve these data?

Faculty and administrators from all ten institutions reported that *relatively few, if any, gaps were identified or noticed* in the conversion of the face-to-face programs to the online programs. The content and the experiences of the courses remained constant as delivered to the candidates in either format. An interesting comment provided by seven respondents was that in some ways, online programs require the <u>complete</u> participation of <u>all</u> students. In traditional face-to-face courses many professors have had the experience that a few students would tend to dominate class conversations, and students who had not prepared for the class (readings and assigned work) would also try to "hide" by sitting in the back of class. In an online environment, all students are required to submit their own work/posting, as well as respond to others in the class. This was definitely a positive element to the online format.

The researchers found the *students' desire to take fully online programs is positive,* and that *students' desire to take face-to-face courses and programs is dwindling.* This finding indicates, that for iPrincipals, the iY generation and Millennials, technologically delivered instruction is a facet of their lives that they are very much accustomed to and are very comfortable with, if not prefer.

Another aspect related by the candidates themselves is that online programs allow them the freedom to pursue administrative credentials in an asynchronous environment that provides the candidate with a format that maintains personal and family commitments and connections and does not require "marathon days." In contrast, previous generations, such as the Baby-Boomers, administrators, had to complete professional responsibilities in a full-time work-day and work-week, fight traffic to get to a university or satellite center to take a three to four hour course twice a week often eating fast food in the car, and then driving home exhausted to try and

rest to start all over again the next day. Often, in this former era, family obligations were sacrificed in order to complete an administrative program. While some candidates continue to take fully face-to-face courses, rather than fully online, due to the mode of delivery offered by their institutions of choice, today's generation may have an advantage being able to take online programs without having to miss their families and activities.

Eight faculty and administrators reported that the *interactions between students and institutions is better over time* as the IHEs *continue to learn and adjust* the online programs. It was reported that a key goal was to strengthen the connection between the online professor and the online students. Methods to accomplish this occurred via the use of professor profiles posted in the course, using introductory videos by the professor, and using some synchronous classes and/or connections through methods such as Adobe connect and Google hangouts for more personal interaction.

The *applied nature of programs is positive for learning* as recorded in the perceptions, beliefs, experiences, and opinions of the professors. Two elements reported by EDL faculty are:

> *"The accessibility of online programs where students from literally all over the world can be involved in the course has provided a much broader perspective regarding the discussion of issues and problems from the student's perspectives. The convenience factor for both students and faculty being able to access and administer the course on their own schedules is highly valued."*

Professors shared that the largest perceived change *for faculty is the "difference" in the delivery modes [face-to-face to the new online program] without sacrificing the rigor of the program.* Some respondents reported that some initial concerns supported the possibility of the loss of course rigor when a traditional face-to-face program moves to an online format. However, upon the conversion of the program, most of these concerns regarding rigor have dissipated based upon the results of the online program and the candidates' success in obtaining administrative positions upon completion.

A strong concern was voiced that *online writing centers are a big need.* Writing skills of the candidates have always been important in graduate programs, but even more so in the online delivery format. Respondents reported a concern and desire for online writing centers where candidates can get additional help in their writing abilities and assignments.

Where do we Go From Here?

Best Practices in Online EDL Programs

The researchers used the following prompt in the interview process regarding best practices: *What are you doing well? What are some of the best practices you have discovered*?

Participants reported one best practice as the *ability to make online experiences similar to on-ground courses and to emulate face-to-face connections with professors and classmates.* This situation, sometimes referred to as "reducing the transactional distance," was accomplished via enhanced communication that could occur through some synchronous classes, "chat sessions," Facetime and Skype communications, as well as the traditional phone call. Even as little as one face-to-face meeting seemed to really enhance the connection between student-professor, and when possible, among students in cohort groups. It was clearly shared that the stronger the communication elements were, positive effects of student retention were noted.

All faculty and administrators also noted their online programs were successful at *developing well-prepared school leaders.* Perceptions were based on the success of graduates

who had entered the educational administration field and were being successful in their positions. Some of these candidates would return to the university to pursue doctoral programs and share opinions that the candidate's administrative credential program had given the new administrator a strong foundation upon which to enter the field.

Another best practice was reported for the use of *capstone projects.* The professors shared that these authentic experiences provided a depth of experience for the candidates giving them some insight regarding the development of resolution of problems and issues in the real-world.

The respondents also shared that the *flexibility of program models for students* is something that is going well. Some universities have multiple formats for students to choose from that include the traditional face-to-face model, hybrid [a combination of some online and some face-to-face courses], and a fully online model. Having multiple options for students to select from and customize to the candidates needs seems to allow more access for potential candidates to become involved with the program.

Two best practices espoused by the professors were the *development and encouragement of online cohorts that are collaborative across the members* and the use of *peer projects.* Each of the participants in this research felt that a strong cohort of online students that worked collaboratively throughout the program and on peer projects together helped create a bond among the candidates. This bond was helpful in completing the work, assignments, and fieldwork, and for emotional support to "hang in there" to complete the program when requirements became challenging for the candidates.

Consistency in course delivery for all courses, was also reported as a best practice. Eight of the ten programs included in the study had been using the online model for a period of time and the opinions of the professors was that the online method had a strong consistency since the course materials and shells used in the program were for the most part identical between semesters and instructors. Another best practice was reported as the *tightened "package" approach for content across programs.* Respondents indicated that in programs where students have the options of face-to-face, hybrid, or fully online, all options were strongly aligned and offered the same content and package regardless of the delivery option selected by students.

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

As a follow-up to Azusa Pacific University's 2013 EDL faculty report, which noted the constructs their fully online program espouses to meet the needs of their iY and Millennial candidates, this study reports empirical responses of faculty and administrators across ten fully online EDL programs. Respondents provided insights to eight research questions around their innovative designs, strategies, technologies, and course deliveries. It is thought, by these EDL program faculty and administrators, the online EDL programs they deliver, and continue to assess using best practices, are evolving in their effectiveness to develop *iPrincipals* (Marcos & Loose, 2014) for 21st century school leadership.

Peter Drucker noted, "No institution can survive if it needs geniuses or supermen to manage it. It must be organized to get along under a leadership of average human beings" (n.d.). As the nature of school leadership itself has changed, from a traditional model of a single "superhero" making all the decisions (Elmore, 2000; Reeves, 2006; Spillane, 2004; 2005; 2006), to one of a more *distributed model,* (McBeth, 2008) the cohort delivery model of online EDL programs holds great capacity to engage the participation of every member. No more can

candidates 'not show up for classes' or 'sit in the back and not participate,' as every member contributes. Faculty and administrators, interviewed within this study, reported positional leaders have gone by the wayside. They noted, in their training of *iPrincipals*, they deliver programs that develop the skills of school leaders to have the perseverance to put each child first and to create a combined wisdom of all stakeholders for the betterment of students (Kolbe, 2004). These leaders are necessary as they bring their strengths and expertise to multiple leadership roles.

When asked, *What recommendations do you make to EDL faculty for the effective design and delivery of fully online EDL programs*? participants provided several recommendations to the researchers. Some of these recommendations overlap some of the earlier concepts of this study so detailed explanations will not be provided for those items, but these items will be included in the list to ensure that all pertinent recommendations are included.

1. *Have a strong infrastructure to accommodate growth*. The respondents shared that in some instances there were some "growing pains" experienced as the online programs grew in popularity with candidates and the university was not prepared for the larger number of students regarding the appropriate technology support. Additionally, having instructors trained, ready and available to deliver courses, seemed problematic for some universities. Having the ability to quickly expand the program rapidly based on student desire is important.

2. *Plan well, and there is a definite need for full-time faculty and staff*. Taking the time to plan the program well for both initial development and course revisions is critical to assure program quality, content, and alignment with required state standards and accreditation agencies. The temptation to hire large numbers of adjuncts as a cost containment measure by universities should be resisted. A cadre of long-term, full-time faculty members overseeing the program for continuity is important to address quality of the program and for developing long-term contacts with candidates, school districts, state agencies, and accrediting associations. This is not possible when there are few full-time faculty members who have been involved in the history and development of the program and also have been involved with the transition of the face-to-face to online programs.

3. *Conduct and hold district partner meetings to encourage growth.* Interview comments stressed the importance of holding partner meetings at both the university and at local school districts. The purposes of these meetings is to develop relationships and linkages to support and ease the ability for candidates to enroll in the programs, and for the university to hear directly what the current administrative needs of what the districts are. This process leads to growth in the university program via additional enrollments, as well as growth in the content of the program as unmet needs of the school districts can be considered as growth of the universities program's content of courses.

4. *Use videos (for instructor introductions) in each course*. This recommendation was made to address concerns for connections between professors and students in an online environment to reduce "transactional distance."

5. *Have strong orientation/induction courses.* Participants felt it was very important to have a strong orientation and induction course as the candidates entered the program. This recommendation was made to help ensure that students taking a program primarily online clearly understand the expectations, requirements, and standards of the university in order to successfully graduate. In some instances, it was related that some students encountered

problems when these items were not clearly identified and communicated at the beginning of the program.

6. *Use a cohort model to connect students.* Detailed information regarding this item is presented above.

7. *Do some synchronous activities for students.* Detailed information regarding this item is presented above.

8. *Alignment of mission, online program, standards.* Interview findings stressed the importance of assurance of the alignment of the university's mission, the online program, as well as the university, state, and accreditation standards. Some problems were related when some of these items were not in alignment. The recommendation encouraged that a university undertake a substantive self-review to check that all of these elements were truly aligned.

9. *Use social media for recognition of people.* Participants' findings were that the use of social media was considered a "requirement" of Millennials, iY, and *iPrincipals*. Using social media helped celebrate successes of the graduates, kept the university and candidates in contact, and was also helpful in recruiting new candidates.

10. *Engage course designers (instructional designers).* As the university needs to develop, design, modify, and transition courses from traditional face-to-face to the online format, it is important for the university to actively seek and engage course designers beyond the full-time faculty. Although adjunct professors are good sources in the support of course development, universities need to go further to seek out content and subject matter experts in the latest developments in the field that affect course content and class offerings (for example, the Local Control Funding Formula (LCFF) and Local Control Accountability Plan (LCAP) areas in California). Suggested possible sources for these instructional designers included employees of state agencies, auxiliary educational support private entities, and related professional educational associations.

11. *Listen to your clientele (superintendents and candidates).* Professors restated the importance for universities to clearly and closely listen to their local constituents.

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Strengthening Leadership Preparation to Meet the Challenge of Leading for Learning in the Digital Age: Recommendations from Alumni

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This study surveys graduates of a west-coast university regarding their perception of how well their graduate degree programs prepared them to meet the challenge of leading for learning in the digital age, particularly in the areas of visionary leadership, student learning, organizational management, working with diverse families, ethics, and the social and legal aspects of using technology and learning networks. A two-phase mixed-methods research plan including phase-one surveys to collect data from alumni of the principal preparation masters and doctoral programs and phase-two face-to-face interviews of sitting principals was initiated. This paper is a report of the phase-one survey analysis.

As technology evolves at an ever increasing pace and we rely more and more on digital access to data, information, curriculum, and each other, researchers and educators agree that technology leadership is important, and educational leadership preparation programs must continue to seek ways to better serve the next generation of leaders (Andersen & Dexter, 2005). Greenlinger (2013) warns us that the "millennial" principals have a different needs set than past generations and require program supports that will prepare them to lead the learning for student achievement while successfully integrating digital technology. Students growing up in a digital world, known as the "net generation" also have different needs and will require principals who speak their language (Tapsott (2009) as cited in English, Papa, Mullen, & Creighton, 2011, p.26).

The study presented in this paper investigates graduates of a west-coast university regarding their perception of how well their graduate program helped them to meet the challenge of leading for learning in the digital age. A two-phase mixed-methods research strategy is planned, which includes phase-one electronic surveys to collect data from alumni of the principal preparation (masters) and doctoral programs and phase-two face-to-face interviews of sitting principals who are graduates of these programs. This paper is a report of the phase-one survey analysis.

Researchers put together a survey based, in part, on the International Society for Technology in Education's Standards for Administrators (ISTE Standards-A), and, in part, on the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) Preliminary Administrative Services Credential: Standards of Candidate Competence and Performance (CCTC, 2004; ISTE, 2009).

Utilizing these standards as a framework, the survey questions were designed to decipher whether or not the principal preparation program at this university is and has been providing future administrators with the foundational leadership skills to be leaders who can adapt to an ever changing workplace where digital technology continues to evolve and continues to change the teaching and learning and leading environment.

Review of the Literature

Technology infrastructure, including software, hardware, and Internet access, as well as professional development for teachers and availability of technical support staff, are all important parts of a school technology plan, but technology leadership is the key, the most important factor, in using technology in schools to improve student achievement (Anderson & Dexter, 2005). In reviewing the standards as outlined above, many of the skills that make a principal a strong school leader are the same skills that make a principal a strong school technology leader (CCTC, 2004; ISTE, 2009). In their research, Anderson & Dexter (2005) found that school leaders should "provide administrative oversight for educational technology, provide access to equipment for staff, establish an ongoing budget for technology, learn how to operate technology and use it whenever possible for carrying out their own duties" (p. 51-54). School leaders must also "provide professional development opportunities to teachers, work to see technology support the needs of students' learning and teachers' instruction, and assess and evaluate the role of academic and administrative uses of technology and make decisions from those data" (Anderson & Dexter, 2005, p. 51-54).

Additionally, school administrators have an obligation to keep up with the rapidly evolving advances in information technology and determine the significance of the latest technological tools on the school community. "Unfortunately, too often, administrators appear to be less capable in technology than the students they serve," and this can undermine the perception of the principal as the leader of school technology (Donlevy, 2004, p.213).

Internet use and online social networking in and outside of school gives additional responsibilities to the school principal. While connectivity to the outside world may bring many advantages to classroom learning, online dangers and cyberbullying are growing, and educational leaders must protect students from misuse of digital media and implement "digital citizenship" rules and regulations (Ribble & Miller, 2003).

Traditional leadership roles are changing and expanding, and "expertise in technology has become an essential administrative prerequisite" (Donlevy, 2004, p.214). School districts and independent schools rely on university principal preparation programs to train and develop the next generation of school leaders, indeed, "the responsibility for leadership preparation falls squarely on the shoulders of higher education" (Young & Brewer, 2008, p. 106). Expectations for a preparation program are that new leaders will be prepared in all areas of school leadership, especially including, in today's schools, technology leadership. In a study of university and college professors of educational leadership in programs across the United States, Hayashi and Fisher-Adams (2013) found that professors' personal use of technology, use of technology to teach courses, use of technology to interact with students, and actual teaching about technology in educational leadership programs were often self-determined and not an integrated part of the established coursework. While some programs included a specified "technology course," many did not address technology in other areas of the leadership curriculum. For example, legal issues such as First Amendment freedom of speech on the Internet inside and outside of school, new

state cyberbullying statutes, and Fourth Amendment search and seizure issues involving digital data on cellphones and tablets were not uniformly or comprehensively taught in most university programs (Hayashi & Fisher-Adams, 2013). Additionally, while a professor's proficiency in the use of digital tools for personal use generally led to more use in the classroom and as part of curriculum content, professors often reported a lack of professional development, equipment, and/or incentives provided at the university level (Hayashi & Fisher-Adams, 2013).

Similarly, in an earlier 2007 study, Hess & Kelly took a national sample of 31 university principal preparation programs to determine what aspiring principals were being taught. They consistently found that principals were receiving limited training in the use of technology… in the instructional content of their coursework. Upon completion of the study, the question still remained as to whether preparation is "well matched to the contemporary world of schooling" (Hess & Kelly, 2007).

Finally, an internal study at a state university in Kansas began by asking the question, "what technology content and skills do our faculty and principal candidates need to know and be able to do and how do we integrate the technology content and skills into the new program?"(Dale, Moody, Slattery &Wieland, 2007, p.42). Resulting actions were the development and implementation of an online program and the determination that program change does not happen overnight; it is an ongoing process that will continually evolve, and new technologies are created and changing daily (Dale, Moody, Slattery & Wieland, 2007).

Today technology evolves rapidly, and "as technology changes, the standards, curricula, and support must change" (Woelfel, Murray, &Hambright, 2004). This is the subject and purpose of the research presented here.

Methodology

Synthesis of the Standards
In 2001, the Technology Standards for School Administrators Collaborative produced the original six ISTE National Education Technology Standards for Administrators (NETS-A) to define what principals need to know in leading the effective use of technology in schools (Creighton, 2003; ISTE, 2002). The standards were revised in 2009, now known as the ISTE Standards for Administrators (ISTE Standards-A), to evaluate "the skills and knowledge school administrators and leaders need to support digital age learning, implement technology and transform the education landscape" (https://www.iste.org/standards/standards-for-administrators). (See Appendix A). These standards have become widely accepted as a way to evaluate how well school leaders are using technology in schools (Creighton, 2003; Redish & Chan, 2007; Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011; Sincar, 2013; Woelfel, Murray, & Hambright, 2004).

The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) standards apply to the California Preliminary Administrative Services Credential, and have been used as program standards in the university programs explored in this study. While, under current revision by the state at the time of this writing, these standards were adopted in 2003 and have been in place during the tenure of the target alumni and graduate students surveyed (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2004). (See Appendix B). The CCTC standards are additionally closely aligned with the national Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards (CCTC, 2004; Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008).

The technology aspects of leadership are addressed in several of the supporting elements of the CCTC Standards, such as:

> "3) Organizational Management of Student Learning:
>
> > 12(i) Each candidate is able to effectively evaluate and use a wide range of technologies, including assistive technologies when appropriate, to support instruction and effective school administration; and
> >
> > 12(j) Each candidate is able to effectively use technology to manage multiple types of databases within a school and to use data to improve instruction" (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2004, p.55).
>
> "5) Personal Ethics and Leadership Capacity
>
> > 14(d) Each candidate is able to utilize technology to foster effective and timely communication" (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2004, p.57).

To broaden the focus of the survey to general leadership as well as technology leadership, the researchers aligned the ISTE Standards-A with the CCTC standards. As discussed below, seven areas of focus were chosen as the basis of the survey.

However, in choosing to base the survey instrument on a combination of both the ISTE Standards-A and the CCTC Preliminary Administrative Services Credential: Standards of Candidate Competence and Performance, the researchers acknowledge that, at the time of their graduation, most administrative candidates were not assessed on comprehensive technology integration and, indeed, many of the earlier graduates could and do argue that the digital age had not yet permeated their schools, i.e. the ubiquitous use of social networking.

Design of the Survey

The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) is in the process of updating the Preliminary (Tier I) and Clear (Tier II) Administrative Services Credential standards. As this will result in principal preparation program revisions, it is timely to gather feedback and commentary from program alumni to inform decision-making and determine ways to infuse digital age leadership practices in all areas of the curriculum.

Using the ISTE Standards –A and the CCTC Administrative Standards as a base, the researchers developed a survey to determine educational leadership program alumni proficiency in seven areas: vision of learning, student learning, staff professional growth and development, management of the organization, school and community relations, personal and professional ethics, and political, social, economic, and legal contexts of technology and school leadership

The respondents were asked to rate on a Likert scale whether they strongly agreed, agreed, somewhat agreed, somewhat disagreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed whether their Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provided them with the foundational leadership skills to:

1. Develop and articulate a shared vision for comprehensive integration of technology and the use of digital age resources to support effective instructional practice and to promote the success of all students.
2. Advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and meeting the diverse needs of all learners.
3. Advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture that supports long-term staff professional growth and development in technology fluency and integration.
4. Improve the management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe and effective learning environment through the appropriate use of technology.

5. Collaborate with families and community members to meet diverse needs, mobilize community resources, and effectively communicate information about the school through the use of technology and digital media.
6. Model a personal and professional code of ethics and fairness related to digital culture, such as ensuring equitable access to digital resources, and responsible social media interaction.
7. Promote the success of all students by understanding and responding to the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context by establishing policies for the legal and safe use of digital information and technology.

A list of alumni from the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Department's Educational Administration Masters Degree and California Preliminary Administrative Services Credential program from 2003-2013, and of the Doctoral (Ed.D.) in Educational Leadership program from its inception in 2008 to 2013, was procured from the university internal records department. The survey was administered electronically to all persons on the procured list of alumni, and the data was collected using an online survey provider.

Findings

Tables 1, 2, and 3 reflect the demographics of the subjects. Participants were queried on age, gender, year of graduation, program, years as a teacher, years as a principal, school level of teaching or administrative assignment, type of school, and current position.

Generally, there were 275 respondents, mostly female, aged 35-54, with Educational Administration Masters level graduate degrees obtained from 2007-2012. Most respondents identified themselves as teachers (general and special education) or administrators from public schools, at the pre-kindergarten through twelfth grade level. Many of the respondents in the category "other" identified themselves as being in other leadership positions such as program specialists, coordinators, or instructional coaches.

Table 1. Age, Gender, Graduation

AGE	% Respondents
21-34	15.7%
35-44	43.1%
45-54	24.5%
55-64	15.3%
65-74	1.5%
75+	0.0%
GENDER	% Respondents
FEMALE	69.0%
MALE	31.0%
MASTERS GRADUATION YEAR	% Respondents
NA	2.2%
2003	2.6%
2004	1.8%

2005	4.4%
2006	7.7%
2007	15.3%
2008	13.9%
2009	13.1%
2010	11.3%
2011	7.3%
2012	11.7%
2013	8.4%
2014	0.4%

Table 2. Professional Position

CURRENT PROFESSIONAL POSITION	% Respondents
General Education Teacher	36.1%
Special Education Teacher	6.6%
Counselor	1.5%
Nurse	0.7%
PK-12 Administrator	16.4%
Central Office Personnel	4.4%
College Instructor/Lecturer	1.5%
College Professor	2.9%
College Administrator	4.0%
Other	25.9%

Table 3. Years in Teaching/Administration and Where

YEARS AS EDUCATOR PK-12 OR HIGHER EDUCATION	% Respondents
Less than 5 years	1.1%
5-10 years	20.5%
11-20 years	55.7%
21-30 years	16.5%
31 or more years	3.3%
Not Applicable	2.9%

YEARS AS PRINCIPAL OR ADMINISTRATOR PK-12 OR HIGHER	% Respondents
Less than 5 years	31.1%
5-10 years	15.2%
11-20 years	2.6%
21-30 years	0.4%
31 or more years	0.4%
Not Applicable	50.4%

LEVEL OF SCHOOL WHERE CURRENTLY WORKING	% Respondents
Preschool	1.1%
Elementary School	36.1%
Middle School	16.8%
High School	21.9%
Adult School	0.4%
Higher Education	12.4%
Not Currently Working in a School	11.3%

TYPE OF SCHOOL WHERE CURRENTLY WORKING	% Respondents
Public School or University	79.6%
Public Charter School	7.7%
Private School or University	3.3%
Parochial/Religious School	1.1%
Not Currently Working in a School or University	8.4%

Table 4 provides a general overview of the results of the survey, with part (a) highlighting the percentage of agreement or disagreement participants held regarding the provision of foundational leadership skills in each of the seven areas of query. Table 4(b) provides a summary of the Likert results for each of the areas queried. In general, the majority of respondents felt that the ELPS program had adequately equipped them with the foundational leadership skills in each of the above areas. The averages of the Likert survey results indicated that most respondents were somewhat in agreement, consistent with the overall percentages.

Table 4. (a) Percentage Agreement/Disagreement with whether or not the ELPS Program adequately provided foundational leadership skills in each of the seven areas queried. (b) Likert analyses.

1. Develop and articulate a shared vision for comprehensive integration of technology and the use of digital age resources to support effective instructional practice and to promote the success of all students.
2. Advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and meeting the diverse needs of all learners.
3. Advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture that supports long-term staff professional growth and development in technology fluency and integration.
4. Improve the management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe and effective learning environment through the appropriate use of technology.
5. Collaborate with families and community members to meet diverse needs, mobilize community resources, and effectively communicate information about the school through the use of technology and digital media.
6. Model a personal and professional code of ethics and fairness related to digital culture, such as ensuring equitable access to digital resources, and responsible social media interaction.
7. Promote the success of all students by understanding and responding to the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context by establishing policies for the legal and safe use of digital information and technology.

(a) General Agreement/Disagreement with Provision of Foundational Leadership Skills in Each of 7 Areas Queried

(b) Likert Results for Each of the 7 Areas Queried

Scale: 6=Strongly Agree; 5=Agree; 4=Somewhat Agree, 3=Somewhat Disagree; 2=Disagree; 1= Strongly Disagree

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Agree	49	40	41	45	42	52	50
Agree	76	76	62	72	69	73	75
Somewhat Agree	73	75	74	70	83	71	71
Somewhat Disagree	32	39	40	41	38	32	33
Disagree	32	34	42	34	32	33	32
Strongly Disagree	13	11	15	12	10	13	13
Avg	**4.14**	**4.06**	**3.91**	**4.06**	**4.08**	**4.15**	**4.14**
STD Dev	**1.41**	**1.36**	**1.44**	**1.40**	**1.34**	**1.43**	**1.42**

In addition to the overall analysis of data, several comparisons of data were examined. Comparisons of responses with regard to preparation in each of the seven areas listed above were performed for (1) respondents identifying themselves as current teachers (general or specialized education) versus respondents identifying themselves as current administrators; (2) respondents receiving masters degrees versus doctors of education; and (3) respondents graduating between 2003 and 2007 versus respondents graduating between 2008 and 2014.

Comparison of data from respondents identifying themselves as teachers versus administrators showed very little variation between these populations. In general, greater than 70% of the respondents in both these categories agreed that they had been adequately prepared in each of the seven areas, and all the averaged Likert scores varied little and ranged from 4.1 to 4.4 (see Table 5).

Table 5. Comparison of the Averages of the Likert Scores for Teachers versus Administrators in each of the Seven Areas Queried. (Scale: 6=Strongly Agree; 5=Agree; 4=Somewhat Agree, 3=Somewhat Disagree; 2=Disagree; 1= Strongly Disagree)

	Teachers	Administrators
1	4.40	4.23
2	4.23	4.3
3	4.11	4.16
4	4.19	4.2
5	4.13	4.21
6	4.26	4.23
7	4.27	4.21

Due to the very low numbers of doctoral recipients responding to the survey, the comparison of the respondents receiving masters degrees versus doctoral degrees was not possible. This result is due in part because the first doctoral alumni graduated in 2011, providing a pool of only three cohorts total rather than the numerous numbers of masters degree cohorts graduating each year.

The final comparison, analyzing data from respondents graduating from ELPS programs prior to 2008 versus after did provide some insight. The year 2008 was chosen as this was the year the social media power, Facebook, had its membership exceed 100 million members

(www.facebook.com/notes/facebook/our-first-100-million/28111272130). In 2003-2004, social media was only beginning to appear, so it is anticipated that graduates prior to the social media explosion might feel less prepared that those coming after the boom. As you can see in Table 6, the earlier graduates, while still indicating that they were, generally, well prepared, tended to indicate in all seven of the areas that they had less preparation than the later graduates. Note that, with the exception of areas 1 and 7, at least 10% more of the early graduates indicated that they did not agree that they were well prepared in these areas. This is accentuated by the frequent comment from these early graduates that, "Integration of technology into instruction was not an emphasis in the program [when I was a student]."

Table 6. Percentage Agreement/Disagreement with whether or not the ELPS Program adequately provided foundational leadership skills in each of the seven areas queried for early masters graduates (2003-2007) versus later masters graduates (2008-2014).

General Agreement/Disagreement with Provision of Foundational Leadership Skills in Each of 7 Areas Queried in Masters Graduates 2003-2007 vs. 2008-2014
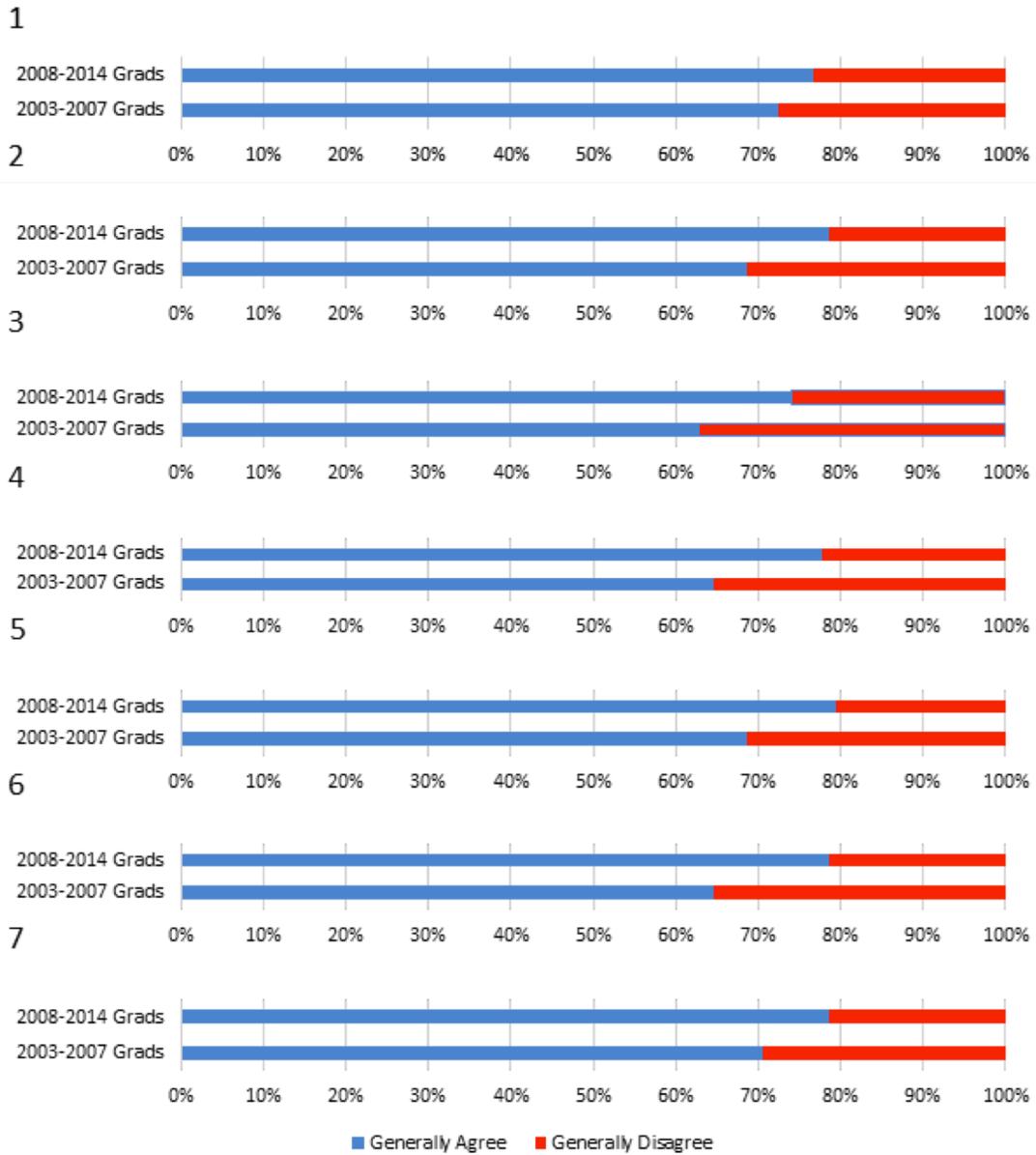
Discussion of Results

Although the Lickert scale responses, percentages, and statistics are clearly enumerated above, each of the seven areas of query also allowed for comments from the respondents. From many of these comments the researchers could glean recommendations for program improvement from the alumni, themselves. For example, several of the comments were similar to the following:

"Did the program give me skills to create a vision and implement them? I believe it did. While we did not necessarily discuss each one of the topics from the above questions, much of this was implied; ethical conduct, educating all types of learners, inclusion of family, community and stakeholders, etc. [For each of] the specific questions though, I have [indicated that I] disagree because the topics, such as the use of technology to sustain digital age learning, were not specifically taught."

This qualified statement summarizes the findings of this study fairly well. While the ELPS program has provided good leadership foundations, there is an implicit recommendation that the program needs to do a better job integrating technology throughout the curriculum. However, the program has not been completely remiss in the area of digital learning, as the data show that technology has gradually become more integrated within the coursework over the years. This is evidenced by more recent participants in the program who, when compared to earlier graduating classes, are in slightly higher agreement that the programs prepared them for the digital age.

A number of other comments from the survey may provide further insight and suggestions from alumni:

Under the first query, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to develop and articulate a shared vision for comprehensive integration of technology and the use of digital age resources to support effective instructional practice and to promote the success of all students?, one respondent provided the following comment: "Lack of resources decrease[s] opportunities for tech integration within the program. Fantastic program in general, but limited in the area of tech integration. Because of the steep learning curve in this innovative area, I feel that through the efforts of the graduate students themselves, articulation has become stronger in tech use. This includes utilizing technology resources for teachers/administrators to streamline data, [using] resources to support diversified learning, and integration of technological tools like PowerPoint, email, sending attachments, and sharing files." Similarly, a number of other respondents commented on the lack of resources, trouble with wifi connections, and other access issues.

To address the question, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and meeting the diverse needs of all learners?, a couple of respondents commented: "The program taught me how to be an advocate and how to sustain a culture of learning to meet the needs of diverse learners. This could be applied to digital age learning; it isn't framed by technology alone," and "the coursework I took was mainly based on theory and practical application of administrative situations. From the time I took the course to now, there has been such an

increase in digital age learning. A focus on this is a must for today's administrators." These were common themes in that a number of respondents were satisfied with the foundational skills and knowledge provided by the program but felt that technology was advancing so rapidly that a preparation course would be challenged to address new technologies at a fast enough pace to keep up with the changes. The strong leadership foundation, therefore, remains critical.

Under the third query, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to advocate and sustain a digital age learning culture that supports long-term staff professional growth and development in technology fluency and integration?, respondents said: "Although I answered somewhat agree, I feel that I gained much more from the program. The digital portion of the program was minimal, but the lessons learned were invaluable to my work as an administrator. The digital portion is easy to learn with basic knowledge," and "even still, technology is evolving so fast, once cohorts finish their 18 month program, the technology becomes obsolete." Similar to Query 2, most respondents received foundational skills but acknowledge that the program did not directly address digital age learning issues.

The fourth question, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to improve the management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe and effective learning environment through the appropriate use of technology?, resulted in comments such as: "Ongoing additional networking supports and resources will continue to be needed to complement and grow previously acquired foundational leadership skills developed given the impermanence of technological innovation,"
and "the program taught me how to be an advocate and how to work toward management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe and effective learning environment; it isn't framed by technology alone." Although only by a slight variation, this area scored lowest in the Likert scaled section of the survey- indicating that participants generally felt least prepared in this critical area. Today's technology leaders must be well prepared in digital age leadership and management skills to achieve student success.

Under the fifth query, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to, collaborate with families and community members to meet diverse needs, mobilize community resources, and effectively communicate information about the school through the use of technology and digital media? Here is a comment: "Although we discussed communication theoretically, analyzing actual digital communication and setting priorities for my school's digital communication through study would have been beneficial." Communicating with school stakeholders is an area where school leaders can readily use technology and model its use to teachers and staff and parents.

To address the sixth question, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to model a personal and professional code of ethics and fairness related to digital culture, such as ensuring equitable access to digital resources, and responsible social media interaction?, alumni responded, "Not specific to new demands in the digital age." Again, it is clear that the program must directly address the issues relevant to the digital age of teaching and learning.

Finally, under the seventh query, did the Educational Leadership & Policy Studies (ELPS) Program provide you with the foundational leadership skills to promote the success

of all students by understanding and responding to the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context by establishing policies for the legal and safe use of digital information and technology?, responses included: "digital information and technology wasn't a target of our classes" and "the law class especially helped in this area." Future administrators must be informed regarding changes in the laws concerning freedom of speech, search and seizure, privacy, copyright, and other legal areas affected by the rapidly changing digital landscape.

In reviewing the responses to all seven queries, researchers found that, while alumni generally agreed that the ELPS program provided a solid leadership foundation and skills that can be applied to technology, additional preparation directly addressing technology integration in educational settings and curriculum is needed to best prepare 21st Century educational administrators.

Recommendations

There are several recommendations from the literature. McLeod, Bather, & Richardson (2011) suggest three areas of focus for principal preparation: 1) use digital technology, not just to enhance traditional educational leadership content delivery, but to transform the content itself; 2) train future school administrators not only to use digital tools but also how to better use digital technologies to improve course content to improve student achievement; and 3) prepare school administrators to become better technology leaders, focusing on the leadership itself as well as the technology tools.

Woelfel, Murray, & Hambright (2004) found three successful strategies to keep technology current in their educational leadership program. First, identify the national, state, and university standards; second, align the curriculum and the instruction; and, third, support technology for instructors and students.

The recommendations from alumni of the program were varied. The most common recommendations include: provide better resources and networking support, focus on and use technology to sustain digital age learning, keep a strong leadership foundation, emphasize leadership and management in technology, study school digital communication systems, and, most mentioned, integrate technology throughout the entire program, including pertinent content areas such as the law.

After reviewing all of the various recommendations and findings, it becomes clear that the status quo is not an option. The state standards are in revision and change is here. By listening to those who have completed educational leadership programs and are now practitioners within the community, we can infuse our administrative program with dynamic digital age learning opportunities and make sure technology is integrated into all facets of each course. A plan that aligns with both ISTE and state standards will provide a solid foundation to bring our programs into the digital age. Using the educational law course as an example, faculty can make sure to supplement textbooks and course materials with the latest statutes, caselaw, and regulations regarding legal technology issues, such as on and off-campus online speech, cyberbullying, student cell phone searches, teacher cell phone usage, acceptable use policies for use of school computer networks, and copyright issues. Faculty teaching the special education course might cover assistive technology and use of tablets as a curriculum tool. An online leadership instructor might use Moodle or another course management system to set up timed assessments, create online discussion forums, and connect students to another university through learning networks. Each course in the

curriculum would be scrutinized for technology integration and to ensure that principals are prepared to be technology leaders.

Upon implementation of the phase two portion of this study, involving face-to-face interviews of sitting principals to gather their perspective on technology leadership and principal readiness, additional recommendations are anticipated.

Conclusion

A survey of program alumni can provide valuable data in determining effective changes in the curriculum. While most alumni surveyed in this study gave positive ratings to the current Educational Leadership program, most alumni also identified a need for additional preparation that specifically addresses the role of the principal as technology leader. As standards change and programs are realigned to meet those standards, university principal preparation programs should take a hard look at where their programs excel and where they might be improved. Preparation for the principal as technology leader must be more than learning to use PowerPoint presentations and how to create an online course on Moodle. Proficiency in the use of technology tools is necessary but simply using digital technology to deliver traditional content in the classroom will not meet the needs of the "net generation" (English, Papa, Mullen & Creighton, 2012, p.26). Technology must be fully and comprehensively integrated into the content of every class, and universities need to provide professional development for instructors and network support in classrooms. Neither the "net generation" students nor the "millennial" administrators will tolerate a principal preparation program that does not integrate technology leadership into the course of study.

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Appendix A

The International Society for Technology in Education's Standards for Administrators (ISTE Standards-A):

1) Visionary Leadership: Educational administrators inspire and lead development and implementation of a shared vision for comprehensive integration of technology to promote excellence and support transformation throughout the organization.

2) Digital Age Learning Culture: Educational administrators create, promote, and sustain a dynamic, digital-age learning culture that provides a rigorous, relevant, and engaging education for all students.

3) Excellence in Professional Practice: Educational administrators promote an environment of professional learning and innovation that empowers educators to enhance student learning through the infusion of contemporary technologies and digital resources.

4) Systematic Improvement: Educational administrators provide digital age leadership and management to continuously improve the organization through the effective use of information and technology resources.

5) Digital Citizenship: Educational administrators model and facilitate understanding of social, ethical and legal issues and responsibilities related to an evolving digital culture. (https://www.iste.org/standards/standards-for-administrators).

Appendix B

The Preliminary Administrative Services Credential: Standards of Candidate Competence and Performance Standards:

1) Vision of Learning: Each candidate is able to promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

2) Student Learning and Professional Growth: Each candidate is able to promote the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

3) Organizational Management for Student Learning: Each candidate promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

4) Working with Diverse Families and Communities: Each candidate promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

5) Personal Ethics and Leadership Capacity: Each candidate promotes the success of all students by modeling a personal code of ethics and developing professional leadership capacity.

6) Political, Social, Economic, Legal and Cultural Understanding: Each candidate promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2004, p.51-58)

Equitable Education of English Learners in the Common Core Age: Implications for Principal Leadership

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This paper highlights the importance of school principals in English Learners' academic achievement in the age of the Common Core State Standards. Revising the curriculum of administrator preparation programs to include a greater emphasis on curriculum and instruction is one approach to enhancing principal leadership for English Leaners. Another approach is to reculture site-level instructional leadership through professional development to address the academic learning needs of English Learners.

Introduction

Dramatic demographic shifts are occurring in the student population in U.S. public schools. In that shifting demographic context, 43 states have adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). As a result, in most U.S. states, particularly California, today's principals face the daunting challenge of leading teachers' implementation of the language-intensive CCSS with large and increasing numbers of students who are learning English as a new language. One way to address that challenge is through reculturing principal leadership.

Mendoza-Reis and Flores (2013) have articulated a tri-level model for reculturing instructional leadership to address the academic learning needs of English Learners. Included in that model is the notion that the principal at schools with English Learners must be capable of instructional leadership that is informed in part by the knowledge of the teaching and learning of English Learners. Such knowledge encompasses at least familiarity with and ideally expertise in implementing some of the instructional approaches that are most widely used in teaching English Learners.

English Learners comprise almost one-fourth of the K-12 public school population in California (California Department of Education, 2014a, 2014b), and their numbers are high and rising in other U.S. states. Although school leadership quality is second only to quality of curriculum and teacher instruction among within-school factors related to student achievement, schools with large numbers of English Learners are more likely to be staffed by principals with lower levels of preparation and academic attainment (Mendoza-Mendoza-Reis and Flores, 2014). It is important, therefore, to consider how to address the learning needs of English Learners, particularly related to the CCSS, both in the preparation of principals and in reculturing instructional leadership at the school-site level.

Background Context
The number of public school students in the U.S. participating in programs for English language learners (ELLs) increased by more than 400,000 between 2003-2012. While California, Texas, Florida, New York, and Illinois remain the states with the most English Learners, the largest growth rates among that population are found elsewhere. During that time period, the numbers of English Learners more than doubled in Arkansas, Delaware, Kansas, Mississippi, and North Dakota. South Carolina's English Learner population more than quintupled. English Learners account for approximately one in every 11 public school students in the U.S. (U.S. Department of Education, 2013b).

While their numbers may be on the rise, an academic performance gap persists between English Learners and other students. For example, since 1996 non-ELLs consistently have outscored ELLs by 24 points on the Gr. 4 Mathematics National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)—by 25 points since 2011 (U.S. Department of Education, 2013a). Because the CCSS emphasize language and articulation of thinking in all subject areas (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2014), the performance gap for English Learners could increase in the absence of instructional approaches that account for their particular learning needs. The concern about pedagogical capacity raises the issue of educational leadership preparation.

The effective teaching and learning of English Learners, indeed, ought to be addressed explicitly in Preliminary Administrative Services Credential Programs; however, the curriculum of those programs tends to include courses on leadership, management, human resources, legal issues, and the like to the exclusion of courses related directly to curriculum and instruction (see, e.g., California State University San Bernadino, 2014; San José State University, 2014). For veteran teachers who have developed instructional expertise related to teaching English Learners—through, for example, a master's degree program in curriculum and instruction or extensive professional development—the absence of English-Learner-focused courses in administrator preparation programs has less of a negative impact. But not all aspiring principals have developed that level of content knowledge and instructional expertise.

For example, a related and problematic phenomenon exists in districts that serve high numbers of English Learners and have trouble retaining principals. Accompanying the high demand for principals in those districts is a tendency to place young teachers who show promise onto the administrative fast track. That practice has two negative unintended consequences: it removes a developing, effective teacher from the classroom, and it fosters the preparation of a principal who, in the absence of significant professional development, will be inadequate as an instructional leader, given the current state of administrator preparation programs. Pushing newer teachers into administration further underscores the need to address in administrator preparation programs the teaching and learning of English Learners. One potential source to address said phenomenon may be the adoption of programs such as the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model.

Nature of the SIOP Model
The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol Model consists of 30 features grouped into 8 components. For example, content objectives and language objectives are two features of the lesson preparation component (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000). Since the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol was first published 14 years ago, it has become widely used

and in professional development and practice to meet the academic language and content learning needs of English Learners.

In addition, much research has been conducted on the SIOP Model. For example, Short, Fidelman, and Loughit (2012) used a quasi-experimental design across two school districts to examine the effects of 77 teachers using SIOP-based instruction on the academic language performance of 386 English Learners in middle and high schools over three years. Students' results on the Writing, Oral Language, and Total English (oral language, reading, and writing) scores of the IDEA Language Proficiency Tests indicated statistically significant differences favoring the treatment group.

In the intervening years since the SIOP was first published, more specialized versions of the model have appeared, including for elementary grade English Learners (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2010a), secondary grade English Learners (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2014), and for particular content areas, such as mathematics (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2010b; Mushi, 2011). Echevarria and Vogt (2010) describe how the SIOP Model can be used with Response to Intervention (RtI) to help meet the learning needs of English Learners.

One approach, then, to preparing principals to be instructional leaders who can address the academic learning needs of English Learners is to revise the curriculum of administrator preparation programs to include a greater emphasis on curriculum and instruction through pedagogical modeling such as SIOP.

Professional Development and SIOP

Another approach to reculturing instructional leadership to address the academic learning needs of English Learners (Mendoza-Reis and Flores, 2014) is through professional development. Extant literature related to the SIOP Model includes several descriptive accounts of its introduction through professional development at the school or district level to address the needs of English Learners (Fratt, 2007; Pascopella, 2011; *Principal Leadership*, 2012; Wells, Gambero, Allen, & Juarez, 2012). One of the authors of the SIOP Model — Short (2013)— provides guidelines for using the SIOP Model in sustainable professional development. O'Neal, Ringler, and Lys (2009) studied a state-wide effort in rural North Carolina to introduce the SIOP Model to 17 teachers through summer professional development. Data indicated significant differences between treatment and control teachers' respective levels of implementation of SIOP practices. Varela (2010) surveyed grade-level teachers, special education teachers, reading specialists, and English Learner teachers in both elementary and secondary schools in Virginia. Most teachers surveyed indicated that the SIOP Model addressed the primary instructional issues related to teaching English Learners. Another study of SIOP professional development took place in Long Island, NY, where Honigsfeld and Cohen (2008) examined a professional development initiative for 22 provisionally certified teachers that included both the SIOP Model and lesson study. The researchers stated that student artifacts demonstrated the SIOP Model's effectiveness. Friend, Most, and McCrary (2009) used standardized math and reading assessments as the outcome measure in their examination of the impact of a two-year professional development program for 70 teachers featuring the SIOP Model. The 235 participating English Learners in two Kansas middle schools had achievement gains that were statistically significant in comparison to English Learners throughout the state.

While the SIOP-related literature mentioned so far has not focused on any particular subject area, there are pieces that include a content focus. Bergman (2011) compares the

components and features of the SIOP Model with the characteristics of inquiry science and concludes that the two instructional approaches are complementary. Two separate publications focus on the same research through the Center for Research on the Educational Achievement and Teaching of English Language Learners (CREATE) that included 12 teachers and 1,021 students. One study (Echevarría, Richards-Tutor, Canges, & Francis, 2011) examined the effects of the SIOP Model on the acquisition of academic language and science concepts among Gr. 7 English learners. Assessments measured the acquisition of academic language and science concepts. Results indicated that students in the SIOP group performed better than controls, although not to a significant degree. The related study (Echevarria, Richards-Tutor, Chinn, & Ratleff, 2011) found that the extent to which teachers implemented the SIOP Model with fidelity was positively correlated with students' gains in their scores on reading comprehension tests related to the science content of the lessons taught using the SIOP Model. Echevarria, Short, and Powers (2006) compared the achievements of 346 Gr. 6-8 English Learners to examine the effects of nominated teachers' social studies lessons that were taught using the SIOP Model. Results revealed positive effects of the SIOP Model on English Learners' literacy achievement measured with the IMAGE writing assessment.

In light of the aforementioned literature related to successful professional development efforts focusing on the SIOP Model, it seems reasonable to consider that similar efforts could be beneficial toward reculturing instructional leadership to address the academic learning needs of English Learners. Moreover, given the current importance of STEM content in education (White House, 2009), a closer look at the SIOP Model specifically in mathematics instruction seems warranted. To address more precisely the achievement gap in the Gr. 4 NAEP Mathematics scores of English Learners, examining SIOP-Model teaching related to the topic of fractions, which is central to the Grades 3-4 CCSS-M Standards, would be particularly timely.

Finally, it seems prudent to strategically incorporate into the SIOP-Model teaching of Gr. 3-4 fractions the two recommendations for teaching English Learners that have strong evidence according to a recent U.S. Department of Education Institute of Educational Sciences Practice Guide (Baker, et al., 2014, p. 6):

Recommendation one

Teach a set of academic vocabulary words intensively across several days using a variety of instructional activities.

- Choose a brief, engaging piece of informational text that includes academic vocabulary as a platform for intensive academic vocabulary instruction.
- Choose a small set of academic vocabulary for in-depth instruction.
- Teach academic vocabulary in depth using multiple modalities (writing, speaking, listening).
- Teach word-learning strategies to help students independently figure out the meaning of words.

Recommendation two

Integrate oral and written English language instruction into content-area teaching.

- Strategically use instructional tools—such as short videos, visuals, and graphic organizers—to anchor instruction and help students make sense of content.
- Explicitly teach the content-specific academic vocabulary, as well as the general academic vocabulary that supports it, during content-area instruction.
- Provide daily opportunities for students to talk about content in pairs or small groups.
- Provide writing opportunities to extend student learning and understanding of the content material.

A carefully designed and sustained Gr. 3-4 mathematics professional development program focusing on fractions and taught using the SIOP Model, incorporating the recommendations above, could make a targeted contribution to the reculturing of instructional leadership to address the academic learning needs of English Learners.

Facilitating Reculturing

To facilitate the reculturing of instructional leadership to address the academic learning needs of English Learners, it is necessary to build related instructional capacity, which consists of instructional knowledge, tools, relationships, and organizational structures (Jaquith, 2013). Principals' instructional knowledge related to English Learners can be built through revised administrator preparation programs and professional development, which could also build teachers' instructional knowledge.

The SIOP Model can serve as a multi-faceted instructional tool. To be wielded effectively, principals need to foster collaborative and trusting relationships with and among teachers. With those relationships as a foundation, principals can put in place organizational structures to allow teachers to engage in ongoing, collaborative cycles of inquiry that focus on student work and are guided by DuFour's (2004) three crucial questions for professional learning communities:

- What do we want each student to learn?
- How will we know when each student has learned it?
- How will we respond when a student experiences difficulty in learning?

Summary and Conclusion

The role of school principals in the academic achievement of English Learners in the age of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) is essential. One way to prepare site-level instructional leaders who can address the academic learning needs of English Learners is to revise the curriculum of administrator preparation programs to include a greater emphasis on developing aspiring principals' pedagogical content knowledge, particularly related to English Learners. Another approach to addressing the academic learning needs of English Learners is to reculture instructional leadership at the school-site level through professional development (PD). In any case, building instructional capacity though university programs or site-based PD, can certainly facilitate the reculturing of instructional leadership.

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Two-way Bilingual Education and Latino Students

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Two-way bilingual immersion (TWBI) programs have demonstrated great success in improving Latino English learners' educational outcomes. Nevertheless, TWBI classrooms are not immune to the greater power dynamics and influences of United States society. This Participatory Action Research study brought together eight two-way bilingual immersion teachers from two school districts. The participants explored awareness of power imbalance and validation of cultural capital. They then collaborated to develop practices that promote cross-cultural competency in their TWBI classrooms. This study highlights changes that generate higher educational benefits for Latino English learners, thus fostering stronger, more socially just two-way bilingual immersion programs.

The Issues

Presently, the educational outcomes for Latinos in the United States are discouraging. According to data from the National Center of Education Statistics (2010) the achievement gap between White and Latino students has remained measurably unchanged for the past 20 years. Latino elementary and secondary students continue to score over 20 points lower than their White peers in both reading and math. When compared to White and African American students, Latinos have the highest high school drop out rate. Of the almost three million students in the U.S. who are English learners, the majority, 73 percent, speak Spanish (NCES, 2010). Given the large number of students identified as Spanish-speaking English learners, national and state education agencies cannot ignore the impact of Latino English learners on schools. Gándara (2010) noted that most current educational programs and teacher practices are not adequately meeting the needs of Latino English learners; Latino English learners continue to lag behind academically.

Ameliorating the dire state of Latino education will require a comprehensive net of political, social, and economic support. Fervent anti-immigration sentiment and debates regarding the political and civil rights of immigrants and their children have led to legislation and policies that control the language, curriculum, and resources in the classroom. Gándara (1995), Gay (2010), Pizarro (2005) and Valenzuela (1999) assert that Latinos are often trapped in alienating classrooms where they are expected to achieve in spite of curriculum, environment, and teacher practices that are linguistically incomprehensible, culturally irrelevant, and socially demeaning. As Horwitz et al (2009) uncovered, the education of our Latino English learners is often based on politics rather than on sound educational practices.

Gándara (2010) argues that addressing the serious concerns in the educational outcomes of Latino students requires a multifaceted continuum of support systems that follow the child from birth to bachelor's degree. Berliner (2009) further affirms that out-of-school factors associated with poverty, prejudice, and instructional policies and programs

affect the educational achievement of this population. Yet, effective educational programming *can* improve these students' achievement and, as Lindholm-Leary and Genesee (2010) discovered, effective programming can help close the achievement gap. Alexander, Entwisle, and Olson (2001) noted that "schooling plays an important compensatory role" and that "schools do matter, and they matter the most when support for academic learning outside school is weak" (p. 184).

Culturally and linguistically appropriate education impacts students' school success and life chances. As Delpit (1995), Gándara (1995) (2010), Gay (2010), Irizarry & Raible (2011), Ladson-Billings (1995) and Sleeter (2012) have shown, improving the effectiveness of programs and teacher practices is a crucial step toward remedying the grave state of Latino educational outcomes. Teacher practice needs to be responsive to the linguistic, cultural, and social realities of Latino English learners.

Researchers such as Genesse, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders & Christian (2006) have demonstrated that Latino English learners in two-way immersion programs— that simultaneously provide native Spanish-speakers primary language instruction while teaching native English-speakers Spanish— have made great gains in closing the White-Latino achievement gap. TWBI programs provide academic content instruction to native English-speaking students and native speakers of the target language in the same classroom. Instruction is in both languages, one of which is the primary language of each group. Howard & Lindholm-Leary (2007) have established that high academic achievement in two languages, raising the status of the minority language and culture, and promoting integration and cross-cultural competence play a central role in TWBI programs. TWBI programs place a high value on the language and culture of Spanish speakers and challenge the notion of English and Eurocentric superiority. TWBI recognizes the value of the linguistic and cultural assets of Latino English learners.

Moreover, according to Howard, Sugarman and Christian (2003), students in well-implemented two-way immersion bilingual programs have reduced drop out rates, most students reported more positive attitudes to bilingualism and biculturalism, and by secondary school, native Spanish speakers achieved at or above grade level in reading and math. In an earlier longitude study, analyzing the achievement data of 210,054 English learners in several school districts and program models throughout the United States, Thomas and Collier (2002) concluded that students in dual language, bilingual immersion outperformed language minority students in all other program models. The authors further concluded that well implemented dual language programs could "reverse the negative effects" (p.5) of socioeconomic status when compared to other program models for English learners. In addition to improved performance on English standardized tests, Kohne (2006) found that Latinos in TWBI programs were also more likely than their peers in mainstream English-only programs to enroll in advanced coursework.

Theoretical Framework

Despite its effectiveness, TWBI faces a cultural bias that favors English, as well as an inequitable power balance among students. Teachers struggle with implementing cross-cultural competency because of the overarching societal forces that influence the classroom

social dynamics. Bourdieu's (1977, 1984, 1991) theories on cultural capital, offer a theoretical foundation for understanding said power relations.

The authors compared the general cultural background, knowledge, skills, and education of an individual to economic goods. They termed the value of this background cultural capital. Individuals use their "capital" to negotiate and position themselves within social structures. This "socially inherited 'linguistic and cultural competence'" as Swartz (1977) explains, "facilitates achievement in school" (p. 547). Thus, an imbalance in the cultural capital between native English-speakers and native Spanish-speakers in a TWBI classroom will likely lead to inequitable educational outcomes. In order to achieve the goal of equitable linguistic and cultural balance, TWBI teachers should facilitate the distribution of cultural capital in their classrooms. Without this, TWBI programs will continue to "favor those who are culturally privileged" (p.550) and reproduce inequitable social class structures and power relationships. Thus, establishing organizational routines that promote the cultural capital of Latino English learners may strengthen cross-cultural competency, which in turn would lead to the creation of stronger, more equitable TWBI programs.

Purpose of the Study

Certainly, an abundance of research has shown that TWBI is a sound model for English learners. The research of Block (2007), Christian, Genesse & Lindholm-Leary (2004), Howard et al. (2003), Kohne (2006), Lindholm-Leary (2005), Lindholm-Leary & Genesse (2010) and Thomas & Collier (1997) (2002) bear out the success of the TWBI model for English learners. Therefore, the effectiveness of TWBI in comparison to other programs is well established. The aim of this study is to explore concerns within the TWBI program and fortify an already strong program model.

Methodology

Design of the Study

This study examined teacher awareness of cultural capital between native English-speakers and native Spanish-speakers in the TWBI classroom. The study operationalized this inquiry by analyzing teacher descriptions of the social dynamics in their classrooms, specifically noting teacher awareness of power imbalance regarding the validation of cultural capital between native English-speakers and native Spanish-speakers.

This was a qualitative study that involved Participatory Action Research (PAR). The author, the principal investigator, chose to use PAR because this research method is a well-suited approach to analyze the concern of power dynamics within the TWBI classroom. The principal investigator sought a research approach that is democratic and equitable in nature among all participants: a cadre of eight two-way bilingual immersion teachers from two school districts and the principal investigator. The participants are stakeholders embedded in the area of concern and have a mutual interest to bring about change. Berg & Lune (2004) and Walter (2009) note that PAR is a commonly used approach in educational research because it focuses on improving teaching and learning practices.

The study adhered to the five action research goals and the associated validity criteria addressed by Herr and Anderson (2005): democratic, dialogic, process, catalytic, and outcome validity. The principal investigator honored the democratic nature of the action

research framework by being collaborative and sensitive to the needs and recommendations of the co-participants.

While being receptive to collaboration, the researcher executed the study with process validity and rigor. The study followed a qualitative research format using Creswall's (2011) six steps in analyzing and interpreting qualitative data: (a) prepare and organize the data for analysis; (b) explore and code the data; (c) use codes to develop general themes; (d) represent and report findings; (e) interpret findings; and (f) validate the accuracy of the findings. The data included over 30 hours of individual interviews and focus group conversations. This discourse was recorded and transcribed. Later, the transcriptions were analyzed using the HyperResearch qualitative analysis software. The process of analysis involved multiple readings of the transcriptions, applying codes to the participants' responses, and examining these codes for themes. To reinforce the trustworthiness of the data and findings, the researcher followed Cresswell's (1994) recommendation of triangulating the data through classroom observation, member checking, and external audit. Participants checked the accuracy of the transcripts and findings and non-participant two-way immersion teachers reviewed the process and findings.

The goals and outcomes of this study were also aligned with the catalytic and outcome validity criteria of action research. The participants in the study stated that becoming involved with the focus groups helped raise their awareness of power and cultural capital imbalance and influenced their teaching. Classroom observation revealed the accuracy of the teachers self-reporting. Furthermore, the participants expressed a desire to continue to network with other teachers.

This study included eight fourth through sixth grade teachers at two dual immersion programs from two different school districts and the principal investigator. In the first phase of the study the researcher interviewed the teacher participants. They discussed their background, understanding of cross cultural competency, the social dynamics between native English-speaking students and native Spanish-speaking students and the organizational routines they use to promote cultural capital in their classrooms.

After the first phase of individual interviews, the eight participants met, in phase two of the study, as a community of inquiry, action and reflection. The community reviewed the research results and looked at the pedagogy implemented in the classroom. The community then reflected on and discussed practices which promoted equitable linguistic and social interactions among students. The teachers planned how they could incorporate these strategies into their classroom practice. Throughout the week, this community of eight teachers kept journals. They reflected on the successes and challenges they encountered in their efforts to incorporate culturally responsive teaching strategies and encourage equitable distribution of centrality and status in their classroom. The community met frequently to review the initial study results, studied the literature, shared insights from their struggles and successes and reflected on how, as a collective, they could incorporate the learning into an action plan in their classrooms.

At the end of the study, phase three, the eight teachers participated in a final individual, structured interview series. As a triangulation tactic, the principal investigator also observed each teacher during classroom instruction.

Setting

Four of the teacher participants and this writer, the principal investigator, taught in the Ridgeline Unified School District (RUSD). These four teacher participants were teachers at Creekside Elementary School. With 730 students, Creekside is one of RUSD's three Title I schools. The school population is predominately White (59%), followed by Latino/Hispanic (27%), Asian (7%) and African American (2%) (Ed-Data Website, 2012). Because of the high housing costs in the area, most of the students come from affluent families. However, 19% of the student population is on free or reduced lunch. Spanish is the primary language of the majority of the school's limited English proficient students. About 15% of the Creekside students are limited English proficient. 13% of the school's students are Spanish-speaking English learners (Ed-Data Website, 2012). The school's dual immersion program began in the fall of 1998 as a 90:10 model with one kindergarten and one first grade class. By 2012, about half of the school's classes were dual immersion classes, including a long, mostly native English-speakers waiting list.

The other four teacher participants were from Main Street K-8 School in the Vineyard Valley Unified School District (VVJUSD). Main Street has a total enrollment of 770 students. It is designated as a Title I school. At Main Street, the majority of the school population—61%—is Latino/Hispanic, followed by 24% White and 4% African American (Ed-Data Website, 2012). Main Street has 38% of the student body identified as English learners. Most of the school's limited English proficient students' primary language is Spanish. A majority of the student body (61%) receive free or reduced lunch (Ed-Data Website, 2012).

The Main Street dual immersion program is a strand in a small elementary program. This dual immersion program follows the 50:50 model. It was formerly a transitional bilingual program. Initially, the program had difficulty attracting and keeping native English-speakers; as a result, the first few cohorts are predominately Latino Spanish-speakers. The sixth and fifth grade classes became almost entirely native Spanish-speakers. As word about the program spread, more native English-speaking parents enrolled their children. The kindergarten through second grade classes now have close to a 50 percent mix of each student group.

Findings and Discussion

Teacher Awareness of Distribution of Cultural Capital

The participants' descriptions revealed that socioeconomic background has a stronger influence on social dynamics and cultural capital disparity than linguistic and ethnic factors. Isabel, a teacher participant, emphasized, "[I]t's all tied into socioeconomics. . . .I see that the dominant English group, for the most part—there are exceptions—but for the most part are just at a higher socioeconomic range" (I. Cruz, personal communication, November 1, 2012). Certainly, throughout the study's findings, participants stressed that the imbalance of power and participation in the classroom was more closely associated with class than with linguistic or ethnic background. Lola, another teacher participant, described her classroom academic and power dynamics as divided by class status. She stated, "I don't see an actual language division, but I see more of a socioeconomic division in my class" (L. Peña, personal communication, November 7, 2012).

The participants expressed that the chief influence on socially valued linguistic and cultural competencies was the socioeconomic background of the students. Data showed that a student's social class had a greater impact on the students' classroom social interactions and academic outcomes. In the classrooms studied, the majority of the native English-speakers shared a middle class background, whereas, most of the native Spanish-speakers came from a lower social class. Language and ethnicity were often linked with socioeconomic status. Students from a higher social class, usually the native English-speakers, displayed more confidence and, if left unmanaged, dominated classroom participation. Teacher participant, Ana Lucia, described her native English-speaking students. "My English-speakers are aggressive, dominating, outspoken, control classroom discussions. My Spanish speakers are passive, pretty much as a whole, passive, aren't outspoken. . . . .They don't see themselves as equals in some ways" (A. Reyes, personal communication, February 6, 2013).

Although the participants emphasized that socioeconomic status had the greatest impact on social dynamics and cultural capital, they also pointed out the effect of societal attitudes towards racialized groups and English dominance. In fact, the participants repeatedly mentioned their efforts to combat depreciating societal attitudes towards Latino culture and Spanish language. They felt that Euro-centrism and English preeminence were prevalent forces with which to contend. All of the teacher participants spoke of a society that placed a greater esteem on English and American norms. The surrounding culture in the community and the school favored English and American culture. Assemblies, support classes, visitors, announcements and tests that assess many of the "important" aspects of school life are in English. Students receive messages of which language and culture is valued. Susan, a participant from Main Street, stated that it is difficult to fight against the society and culture that surrounds us. "So one of the dynamics is that just English is the language of interaction in the school, on the playground. It's really hard to fight that tide. In some ways it's what the culture is around us, the society." (S. Parker, personal communication, November 11, 2012) The participants indicated that the Latinos' passivity was not due to ethnic factors but to class distinctions. Native Spanish-speaking students from educated, middle class families also dominated and took on central roles in classroom interactions. As one of the teacher participants from Creekside, Veronica, stated, "I do have Latino kids that are participating… It's not so much Anglo/Latino" (V. Bell, personal communication November 5, 2012).

Bourdieu and Passeron's (1977) theory of habitus—internalized self-perceptions and demeanor, influenced by an individual's social relations, class status and cultural capital— explained these social dynamics. Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) posited that schools perpetuate the culture and preeminence of the dominant class. The dominant social classes possess the linguistic and cultural competence that is considered legitimate and valued in the educational system. Through social interactions, a student internalizes her subordinate status; she develops an identity, behavior patterns, and aspirations in response to her social class and expected role in society. Thus, the Spanish-speakers' submissive demeanor fit Bourdieu and Passeron's theories of social class dynamics.

TWBI educators often use a native English-speaker/native Spanish-speaker lens to monitor and make instructional decisions. This two-way lens may not reveal the predominant distinctions between the student groups. As a result, TWBI educators may not be sufficiently cognizant of the impact of socioeconomic differences on equity concerns. Awareness of

socioeconomic influences will provide TWBI teachers with greater clarity to fine-tune their instructional decision-making.

Cultural Capital Awareness Influence on Teacher Cross-cultural Competence and Practice

As the participants in this study expanded their awareness of power imbalance in their classrooms they sought to develop practices to build up the native Spanish-speakers' cultural capital. They felt a personal responsibility to reflect and master cultural competency within themselves and then to model and convey that capability to their students. Isabel emphasized the importance of internalizing cultural competency and then transmitting it to her students stating, "We have to be the number one model for them, to be the example for them. Make them feel proud and encourage them. . . .Build that capital. Give that power" (I. Cruz, personal communication, February 1, 2013). The participants sought ways to create "an even playing field" in their classrooms. They believed that they played a role in advocating for and managing equitable social interactions. This commitment and sense of responsibility positively impacted the participants' teaching practice.

Developing awareness of the ramifications of unbalanced distribution of cultural capital influenced the participants' teaching practice. Identifying the need to establish more equity in their classrooms prompted the participants to incorporate organizational routines that promoted the cultural capital of their native Spanish-speaking students. By taking responsibility for their teaching practice, they took steps to counter the societal forces that led to inequitable classroom social dynamics and contributed to unfavorable Latino educational outcomes. These routines focused on teacher accountability, awareness, and advocacy. The participants recognized that if left to chance, inequitable power dynamics would take over. The teachers acknowledged their role in nurturing a culturally competent environment; they needed to be cognizant of unbalanced situations and be willing to intervene. Cross-cultural competency required constant vigilance, monitoring, and implementation.

The participants noted that an important organizational routine to promote cultural capital in the TWBI classroom was to involve parents and students beyond the school day. The Main Street participants pointed out the effectiveness of after school programs. Main Street participants indicated that these programs contributed to student academic success, connectedness with school, sense of cultural pride and confidence. The dual immersion teachers at Main Street took an active role in promoting these activities and involving families. The Creekside participants noted that their economically disadvantaged Latino families did not have the access to expensive classes, extra-curricular activities, and tutoring that advantaged many of their native English-speaking students. The participants identified family and student outreach as an important organizational routine that promoted cross-cultural understanding, built students' cultural capital and minimized the discrepancies between the students with different financial resources. The participants realized that to achieve equity among all of their students, the teachers, school, and district needed to cast out a net that reached beyond their classroom walls.

Promoting Cultural Capital, Confronting Challenges, Taking on Advocacy Roles

Despite this strong commitment to promote the cultural capital of their native Spanish-speaking students, the participants struggled. They were mindful to incorporate effective routines into their practice, yet they saw that they did not always reach their goals: English

ruled as the language of status, native English-speaking students dominated classroom participation, and students often continued to self-segregate socially. The participants felt that they needed more support. Most had received some training. Project GLAD was specifically identified; the participants had implemented the concepts and strategies they had learned, yet they felt they still needed additional instruction. The participants voiced needing more professional development in improving their practice to develop cross-cultural practices. Their voluntary participation in this study indicated their active search for more training.

Most of the participants shared a high degree of motivation to seek training, implement new learning, and modify their practice. The participants were interested in an opportunity to collaborate with other teachers in order to improve their teaching. Several of the participants related how their background and experiences had prompted them to teach in a two-way program. They may have fallen into teaching in a two-way program because they had the language skills, but they continued to teach in the program because of a strong commitment to the goals of TWBI. All eight participants had experienced living in a country where they spoke the non-dominant language. Six were Latinos(as). They possessed similarities in ethnic, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds that led them to be sympathetic to the difficulties that Latino, English learners experience. Confronting the difficulties of establishing the balance required by TWBI pushed the participants to take on advocacy roles.

Witnessing social, cultural, and linguistic imbalance, and struggling to ameliorate this inequity creates a fertile ground for teachers to become advocates. The demands and challenges of implementing TWBI equity goals may lead TWBI teachers to develop greater awareness of inequitable educational outcomes and power balance. As a result, they may be more disposed to assume much needed advocacy roles on behalf of their students. The teacher participants in this study possessed personal backgrounds that primed them to notice injustices in their classrooms. They were receptive to developing greater awareness of the inequitable power distribution. In turn, they applied their expanded consciousness to building the cultural capital of their Latino students.

Recommendations

Address the Effects of the Social Class Gap in the TWBI Programs

I recommend that TWBI educators acknowledge and address the effects of the social class gap in the TWBI programs. Differences in socioeconomic status influence the social dynamics and validation of cultural capital. Educators need to be cognizant of how this may play out in the classroom and address it with professional development and training that focuses on meeting the needs of low-income students. Furthermore, policymakers and educators need to recognize that teacher classroom practices will not make the many consequences of poverty disappear. Federal, state, and district policymakers need to dedicate resources to cast a wider net of support for economically disadvantaged native Spanish-speakers.

When making program decisions, distributing resources, and fine-tuning instructional practices, TWBI educators need to discard the traditional two-way lens that categorizes the student groups by language and heritage background; TWBI educators should consider and address socioeconomic factors as well. Furthermore, policymakers, educators, and social justice advocates need to muster the political courage to develop multi-faceted approaches to

Latino student education that entail social supports that extend beyond the school walls. Although student language/ethnic background and social class usually converged in the classrooms studied, this confluence may not occur in every situation/classroom. Social class distinctions exist within the native Spanish-speaking population as well. In order to clarify the predominant factors impeding equitable power balance and integration, TWBI educators need to reconsider the two-way lens and put on trifocals.

Implement and Strengthen Two-way Bilingual Immersion Programs to Address Latino English Learner Educational Needs
When examining program options for English learners, policymakers and district administrators should adopt a long-term approach to educating Latino English learners. Policymakers, administrators and teacher education programs should be mindful of the research supporting the effectiveness of TWBI programs in combating the inequitable educational outcomes for Latino English learners. They should seek ways to develop TWBI programs, strengthen program components, and support two-way immersion teachers.

Extend Studies to Include the Role of Social Class in TWBI Social Dynamics
Additionally, I recommend researchers continue to explore ways to strengthen the cultural competency component of TWBI. This study can be extended to include larger numbers of participants, school sites, and different demographical combinations. I also suggest that researchers study the effects of the student demographical make up on the social dynamics and educational outcomes of TWBI students. The demographic mix should take into account socioeconomic class in addition to language and ethnic background. Studies analyzing the social dynamics and cultural capital of students when the majority of the Latino native Spanish-speakers are of a higher socioeconomic class than the native English-speakers may shed more light on the role of social class in TWBI social dynamics, cultural capital and cultural competency.

Improving Latino Education through Stronger, More Socially Just TWBI Programs
To summarize, as socially responsible leaders and educators, we must explore ways to better address the educational and sociopolitical issues that confront Latinos in the United States. Extensive research supports that Latino English learners in two-way bilingual immersion programs make greater academic gains and have more favorable attitudes about school and their heritage than Latino English learners in other programs. Through the core TWBI goals of ensuring equity, valuing diversity, encouraging integration, and promoting academic rigor for all students, TWBI program educators have the opportunity to empower the underserved Latino population. To implement TWBI programs properly, it is crucial that the status of the minority language and culture be on par with English and American culture. Both languages and cultures must have equal capital. Despite the TWBI emphasis on equity, teachers and students are impacted by social, cultural, and political influences of the communities to which they belong. This study shed light on the challenges TWBI teachers face implementing culturally competent educational environments. It also explored teacher awareness of cultural capital distribution, and the ways which teachers can improve their practice to promote cross-cultural competency and equitable interactions and engagement in the TWBI classroom. Such changes generate higher educational benefits for Latino English learners, thus fostering stronger, more socially just two-way bilingual immersion programs.

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New Principal Coaching as a Safety Net

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This study examines new principal coaching as an induction process and explores the emotional dimensions of educational leadership. Twelve principal coaches and new principals—six of each—participated in this qualitative study that employed emergent coding (Creswell, 2008; Denzin, 2005; Glaser & Strauss, 1998; Spradley, 1979). The major finding: new principal coaching provides a safe place for first and second-year principals to express how they relate to demands from both a personal and professional perspective, including offering a safe place for emotional intensity.

Keywords: coaching, new principals, principals, head teachers, adult learning, work-related stress, emotional leadership, emotional intelligence, and emotional management.

In a time when the demands placed on principals and their impact on student outcomes is unmistakable (Bush, 2009; Darling-Hammond, Orphanos, LaPointe, & Weeks, 2007), administrators are required to transform schools into systems-thinking organizations that promote student and adult learning (Moore, 2009). According to Bush (2009),

> [These]…additional responsibilities…[and] greater complexity of the external environment, increase the need for principals to receive effective preparation for their demanding role […] there should be *an entitlement* for them to be developed appropriately; a moral obligation. (p. 377)

Schmidt (2010) adds, "Leadership preparation programs in the new millennium need to train and assist our school leaders emotionally as well as cognitively" (p. 626). New principal coaching offers the potential of responding to this "moral obligation."

Nonetheless, little attention seems to be paid to the importance of emotion in leadership development preparation programs and research. In a high-stakes accountability era, the preparation and induction of principals have focused primarily on school effectiveness and improvement, and the role of the educational leader in both of these, with little attention given to emotional preparation (Brennan & Ruairc, 2011; Notman, 2012). According to Brennan and Ruairc (2011), "[…] the quality of staff relationships and the emotional climate of schools influences and shapes the emotional experience of principals, impacting their actions and decisions, which in turn affect the quality of relationships, the emotional climate of schools and the emotional experience of

principals" (p. 145). Boyland (2011) citing Colbert (2008) suggests that work-related stress is closely associated with the emotional experiences of principals and role performance. Implying the importance of attending to job-related stresses, work overload, emotional demands, and burnout to mitigate high principal turnover.

Gmelch and Torelli (1994) argue:

> […] the problem of task overload due to the huge variety and number of duties principals are responsible for each day […] Keeping job-related stress under control is a critical step towards avoiding health issues, burnout, and job or career change. (p. 7)

The purpose of this study was to explore new principal coaching as an induction process that could be responsive to work-related stress, the emotional dimensions of leadership, and the personal domain of principals. The study was guided by the following research questions: 1) How do new principal coaches structure the coaching process in support of new principal learning? 2) How do new principals experience their coaching program? and 3) How does coaching enhance their experience as novice administrators?

Literature Review

In theory, new principal coaching offers the promise of serving as an effective component of new principal induction, where learning entails personal, professional, emotional, and social transformation. The underlying assumption is that learning and development involve a progression along trajectories of participation and self growth, with the learners developing patterns of participation that add to their identities as learners. It is assumed that they increasingly take initiative and responsibility for their learning and goal achievement (Greeno, 1997; and Lave & Wenger, 1991). This is consistent with transformative learning theory and "deep learning," as learners make their assumptions explicit and reflect upon them (Dirkx, 2006).

Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2007) contend that "it is especially important to know who the adult learner is, how the social context shapes the learning the adults are engaged in, why adults are engaged in these learning activities, how adults learn […]" (as cited in Sammut, 2014, p. 39). While there has been considerable research into stress in teachers, there has been comparatively little work on head teachers in the United Kingdom (Howley, Andrianaivo, & Perry, 2005), or principals in the US. A few studies, such as those by Anderson (1991), Daresh (1995), Parkay, Currie, and Rhodes (1992), and Parkay and Hall (1992), conducted *before* the implementation of high-stakes accountability, document emotional stresses like anxiety, doubt, and frustration among new principals.

A few studies focus on the coaching of new principals (Silver, Lochmiller, Copland, & Trips, 2009). However, there is more extensive literature related to the broader field of mentoring new principals (Silver et al., 2009). Consistent with the literature on socialization and induction, coaches and mentors of new principals are reported as helping to support the fulfillment of professional, career, and psychosocial functions. Mentors are also found to socialize new principals into the profession, sharing with beginners the norms of being a leader (Crow & Matthews, 1998). Finally, mentors appear to serve a psychosocial function by providing a relationship that alleviates new principals' sense of isolation and anxiety (Hopkins-Thompson, 2000).

This study's theoretical framework was based upon sociocultural and constructivist theories of learning and transformative learning theory. Sociocultural and constructivist learning theory posit that social interaction precedes development; consciousness and cognition are said to be the end product of socialization and social behavior (Vygotsky, 1980). From this perspective, in an effort to make meaning, the learner is seen to draw upon prior knowledge, schemas, experience, and sociocultural context (Hudson, 1999; Lave & Wegner, 1991; Palinscar, 1998; Voss, Wiley, & Carretero, 1995). Learning and understanding are viewed as fundamentally social, taking place in socially and culturally shaped contexts, which are continually changing with dynamic interactions between the external and the internal aspects of development (Palincsar, 1998). The perspective of transformative learning adds the dimension of critical reflection and the potential of life-altering transformation to the adult learning process. According to Mezirow (1990) "[…] reflection includes making inferences, generalizations, analogies, discriminations, and evaluations, as well as feeling, remembering, and solving problems." (p. 5)

Consistent with a social-constructivist lens, emotional experiences are embedded in the conditions that construct them. Thus emotions do not exist in a vacuum, nor can we completely understand what we are feeling based solely on introspection due to the presumed sociocultural nature of cognition (Armon-Jones, 1986). Culture "plays a role in the organization of emotions at a variety of levels. Most importantly, culture provides the content of the appraisals that generate emotions" (Cornelius, 2000, p. 5). In addition to sociocultural and constructivist theories of learning, the study's theoretical framework was informed by research on adult learning and work-related identity and learning. According to Shuck, Albornoz, and Winberg (2007) understanding the interaction between learning and emotion "through the constructivist perspective presents a unique opportunity to appreciate the learner's perspective and the construction of knowledge through experience" (p. 108).

Eteläbelto, Littleton, Lahti, and Wirtanen (2005), and Sfard and Prusak (2005) argue that a work-related identity becomes the missing link between learning and the sociocultural environment, where identity is formed at the intersection of the social and the individual. Collin (2009) similarly asserts "[b]oth the organizational context and individuals' positions in the organization as well as personal aims and previous experience together form the basis for the individual's identity construction and learning processes" (p. 32). Dutton, Roberts, and Bednar (2010) understand change in identity or self-definition as a developmental process occurring over time, in that identity is dynamic—progressing and adapting.

In the field of adult education, emotions are understood as an important characteristic of learning and a feature of everyday experience (Callahan, 2002; Dirkx, 2006; Yorks & Kasl, 2002; Perry, 2006; Reeve, 2001; Wolfe, 2006). According to Dirkx (2001 and 2006) and Shuck et al. (2013), emotions serve as motivation to pursue desires, create purpose, and provide the context for learning experiences. "As our bodies respond biologically, our minds respond cognitively to create the affective component of feeling. The experience of emotion revolves around the creation of feeling and is operationally defined as the participatory effect of the biological and cognitive response" (Heron (1992) as cited in Shuck et al., 2007, p. 110).

Recent research on the emotional practices of school leaders offers both a better understanding of the emotional dimensions of the principalship, and "provides an additional much needed challenge to the recent proliferation of a technical-rational, managerial discourse on leadership" (Brennan & Ruaric, 2011, p. 129). Gross and Thompson (2007) highlight the important roles that emotions play as they "ready necessary behavioural

responses, tune our decision making, [and] enhance memory for important events and facilitate interpersonal interactions" (p. 4). Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2008) point to the importance of emotionally intelligent school leaders being able to "improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions" (p. 3).

Ilies, Curseu, Dimotakis, and Spitzmuller (2013) underscore the importance of the emotional exchange between leaders and those they lead. Their findings "support a model by which emotional expressiveness relates to leadership outcomes through idealized influence, and also support the importance of relational authenticity as a foundation for influencing followers" (p. 10). Notman (2012), too, notes the importance of attending to the personal domain of principals within the framework of holistic leadership, while citing the lack of attention to personal development in existing principal support structures. As Beatty (2008) states, "Leaders who know themselves, are far more likely to be able to get to know others in a non-defensive non-aggressive way. Having faced their own anxieties […] (p. 152)" (as cited in Notman, 2012, p. 474)

In the 1980's, researchers attributed moderate levels of job stress to the principalship (Hembling & Gilliland, 1981). Carr (1994), Whitaker and Turner (2000), and Federici and Skaalvik (2012) identified job-related stress as a growing problem for principals. Since the advent of No Child Left Behind in the U.S. and high-stakes accountability internationally, researchers have begun to describe the principalship as a stressful position, with levels of stress increasing (Brock & Grady, 2002; Queen & Queen, 2005; Whitaker & Turner, 2000). In a study by Fields (2005), findings indicate that first-year principals were stressed most by uncontrollable job-related demands on their time:

> Participants described how difficult it is to manage time when there are overwhelming job responsibilities… This in turn had a negative effect on their personal life and resulted in feelings of guilt for lack of time spent with family members and for their own health and well being. (p. 4)

This study sought to add to the understanding of the relationship between new principal coaching, principals' work-related stress, and their emotional development. This led to the exploration of new principal coaching by investigating the role the coaches played in supporting principals when they experienced loneliness, role strain, self-doubt, and emotional stress. The study was therefore designed to learn about coaching from both the new principals' and the coaches' perspectives.

Methodology

Design

This qualitative study explored the experiences of new principal coaching as an aspect of new principal induction from the perspective of both the coach and principal. Interview data were analyzed through a qualitative, constant-comparative approach; the participating coaches' and principals' voices were employed to discover their views. Data analysis employed emergent coding (Creswell, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1998; Spradley, 1979). The study took place in the San Francisco Bay Area, in the state of California, USA.

The study focused on discovering what coaches and principals had to say about new

principal coaching as a practice. We were not concerned with controlling, limiting, or measuring responses. We attended to what coaches and new principals thought, the ways they described coaching, and the significance they attached to the work.

Sampling

The overall target population was comprised of coaches of new principals and new principals themselves. The accessible sample consisted of two broad groups. The first group was 34 new principal coaches, all affiliated with a San Francisco Bay Area university. They were retired principals coaching first-and second-year principals as part of an established induction process. The second group was made up of 23 principals from a San Francisco Bay Area mid-size urban school district that was ethnically, linguistically, racially, and socio-economically diverse.

When asked to participate in the study, the coaches' and principals' response rate was strong. Eighty-two percent (28 out of 34) of the coaches and 74 percent (17 out of 23) of the principals participated in the initial telephone interview phase of the study. Ultimately, six of the 28 coaches and six of the 17 principals who had participated in the phone interview were subsequently selected to participate in the case study portion of the study. The six coaches represented four school districts, both genders, and all three levels of schools (elementary K-8, middle school, and high school). The new principals represented differing years of experience, school levels, and degree of satisfaction with coaching as captured by the survey.

Data Collection

Data collection for the study involved gathering data on three primary areas: 1) How the coaches structure the coaching process in support of new principal learning during an induction process; 2) How new principals experience coaching; and 3) In what ways coaching enhances their experience as novice administrators. Data collection procedures for the coaches involved an initial telephone interview followed by three face-to-face interviews. The telephone interview posed three major questions. For each question there were follow-up probes on accessibility and adequacy of contact time.

Data gathered from principals were conducted in two phases. The first phased involved a school district satisfaction survey consisting of 57 questions. This served as the starting point for participant selection. The survey was divided into the following sections: background information, contact time between principal and coach, characteristics of the principal-coach relationship, effectiveness of coaching, and additional professional development. Survey data were included in the study for the comparability participants' levels of satisfaction with current and prior program participants and participant's responses relative to subsequent phone and in-person interview data.

General research approach. Six coaches participated in three face-to-face interviews using semi-structured interview protocols and four scenarios. The interviews comprised the second phase of the data collection. Coaches were asked nine questions. During the interviews they were encouraged to express their ideas freely and provide information that they considered important. Topics and questions were presented to the interviewees to draw out their thoughts about their roles, the coaching relationship, effective and ineffective strategies or processes, and how they supported the development of new principal knowledge and problem solving.

The six new principals participated in two additional face-to-face semi-structured

interviews in order to allow for their conceptions of the coaching experience and its impact on them to naturally emerge. Following Henning's (2004) admonitions, "we do not want to place this understanding in the boundaries of an instrument that we designed beforehand, because the boundaries of the instrument will limit the data to those very boundaries" (p. 9).

Data analysis. In the study all face-to-face interviews were recorded live and transcribed verbatim. Using procedures established by Spradley (1979), Glaser and Strauss (1998), Denzin and Lincoln (2008), and Creswell (2008), all data were reviewed first to identify emerging descriptive codes. Examining the data again for interpretive codes, the codes were clustered to investigate relationships between categories, resulting in the identification of findings. The data were then re-examined for negative examples and outliers.

For interview transcripts, systematic content analysis were conducted in order to identify how coaches articulated their learning designs for new principals, how new principals conceptualized the coaching experience, and what its impact was on them. First-level coding classified coaches' and principals' statements to better understand how they designed new principal learning. Second-level coding produced the following categories: the roles coaches performed, the behaviors they described, and the actions they took to support new principal learning.

Findings

The major finding of the study suggests that coaching serves as a safe place for new principals to express how they relate to the new demands of the job from a personal and professional perspective. New principal coaching appears to provide a place for the expression of emotional intensity; it offers a person to talk with and support while making difficult work decisions. It reports that new principal coaching offers a space of support to grow into the principalship, and to identify areas of strength and needed professional growth, and underscores the importance of the coaches' responsiveness to the emotional stress and isolation of the new principals, acting not as supervisors or evaluators but as supporters. Central to the finding is the importance of relationship and enhanced psychosocial functioning.

A Safe Place Humanistically and Professionally
Finding that coaching is a safe place humanistically and professionally indicates that coaching can potentially play a substantive role in enabling new principals to lead while learning. Coaching was found to provide principals with a safe person to talk with and a supportive thought partner when making difficult workplace decisions. This finding is divided into four areas:

The need for conversations that provide a sense of safety. Coaching provides first year survival for beginning principals, supporting them through challenging and difficult conversations. Hannah, a first year principal, recounts, "I think you feel more assured in your decisions for having had a coach […] there's always this sense I could have done it differently or I could have done it better…." Giselle, another first year principal, states,

> I would find myself feeling not so deflated... It would reassure me I was on
> the right path... receiving affirmation. There are times where the position is
> just so lonely and you just question 'Am I doing this right?' and…[my coach]

would reassure me [...] reassuring me, I'm not a failure.

The prior passage captures the emotional tenor of Giselle's experience of feeling "hopeless" and "lonely." Coaching kept her from feeling like a "failure." She goes on, "I felt I wasn't being judged by her... I'm not going to be self-editing... I could be on the verge of crying or saying 'I don't think I'm coming back. I don't think I can do it.'"

In these statements Giselle describes the emotional intensity of coaching conversations where she was "on the verge of crying." Having a coach "who would totally listen and have the time every time" led to Giselle considering herself "lucky." Hannah and Mateus, another first year principal, provide similar descriptions of "feeling down," discouraged, and "isolated" as the sole administrators of an elementary school. Mateus recounts,

> Having the coach... very nurturing. They can also build confidence 'oh look
> at what you're doing.' If you're feeling down, 'oh, look at what you did.' It's
> like reinforcing the positive and it's so often, especially at an elementary site,
> there's no other administrators, it's super isolating...

Mateus' coach played a "nurturing" and "validating" role: one that Mateus identified as pivotal in his staying in the position.

> Many moments that I just didn't want to do it anymore and I would call my
> coach, and she talked me down of the ledge. Literally, 'why am I doing this?
> I hate it. ...And it's like 'well, you know—think about this.' Just kind of
> naming it, framing it, this is normal... Not having the guidance...would have
> been too much...

Mateus' statement evokes a powerful image of what it meant for Mateus to feel like he could not remain a principal—"she talked me down off the ledge." Once again, the coach was depicted as "lifesaver." Like Hannah, Mateus describes an emotional intensity in coaching conversations when he reported, "I just didn't want to do it anymore" or said, "why am I doing this? I hate it." The images of the "lifesaver" or the coach who "talked me down off the ledge" illuminate the considerable stress involved in being a new principal and the positive benefit of coaching as a safety net.

A safe person who can provide the space to have emotionally charged conversations. The principals in the study understood the power and benefit of someone listening and providing a supportive presence. The coaches understood what it meant for new principals to simultaneously lead and learn the requisite roles and functions in an often stressful and lonely enterprise. In addition to supporting principals' professional growth, the coaches provided emotional support. In Maria's words, "my role is to support them in any way they want support." In the end, coaching was primarily about being in a relationship, as Cheryl, another induction coach, stated: "[Coaching is] a relationship in which the principal is able to share her reality, where she genuinely feels safe and accepted." Half of the coaches described having formed a relationship with new principals that persisted beyond the formal coaching encounter for several years. As Trish, a seasoned coach, noted, "The need for a safe and trusted person to talk to about what is happening at the school continues after the coaching has stopped. Five years out, I get calls from principals I coached."

Space to confront insecurities when making difficult decisions. Decision-making was a primary leadership competency identified by coaches and principals as a key growth area. Giselle's recollection of how her coach carefully talked her through past and future difficult encounters echoes the coaching experience of other principals. Her coach debriefed

tough conversations by asking her, "What's the background of this person? What led to her freaking out? How did I handle it? Did you think about doing this?" According to Giselle, such questioning strategies pushed her to think through the complexities of the exchanges. "... she'd make me talk it through and kind of practice or we would predict or at least we would just come up with worst case scenarios of what could happen next and prepare myself ." Through role-playing, Giselle was able to prepare for "worst case scenarios." Her coach pushed her to think through the intended and unintended consequences of conversations and decisions.

Support for new principal decision-making. The coaches used questioning and reflective practices to support new principal decision-making, problem solving, and independent thinking. For example, Ruth's intent as a coach was to "develop [the new principal's] problem-solving abilities and become an independent thinker" through the use of processes she believed would support the development of self-questioning.

Connie, a new principal coach, put it this way: "The [new] principal will be reflective and intentional as she grows in the position…be[coming] less reactive and more proactive." Paul, another coach, asserted, "By the time the two years are up, they're able to reflect." Connie reflected, "When a new principal has to make a tough decision, coaching gives them a place to turn… as they are trying to come to that final decision." Coaching appears to provide new principals a safe and thoughtful person to talk with about the many challenging decisions that they need to make. As Maria notes, "They are relieved to have someone to talk with when preparing for a difficult meeting with their supervisor, teacher or parent. As they talk, their body and voice become less tight, calmer…"

New Principal Coaching as a Safety Net
The new principals' experiences of isolation and emotional stress were a dominant theme. Study participants characterized new principal coaching as a safety net that gave them the space and support they needed to identify and address the uncertainty and stress associated with being a principal. Coaching afforded them a sense of security as they grew into the job, supported by a relationship where they were free to acknowledge what they did not know while taking on the demanding work of being a principal. This finding is divided into two areas:

Allowing for emotional stress. When the new principals discussed the stress and isolation involved in transitioning into the principalship, they described emotional intensity, isolation, and uncertainty in the position, as well as the emotional support provided by their coaches. Giselle, Hannah, and Mateus, all first year principals, each recount vivid feelings of being overwhelmed to the point of contemplating leaving the profession. Constance and Sam, too, recalled the onslaught of administrative demands.

When talking about the experience of being coached, the principals recollected sharing with their coaches the emotional costs of serving as a principal. Having someone safe to share what they experienced and felt provoked the following: "I could be crying or saying '… I'm not coming back.' (Constance)."

The emotional stress and isolation that the new principals experienced included anxiety, doubt, and frustration, as exemplified the statements of Giselle and Mateus. Giselle's recounted "…the position is just so lonely and you just question 'Am I doing this right?' and [my coach] would reassure me. … Just…reassuring me, I'm not a failure." Captured in the way Mateus' talked about coaching as

> …very nurturing. '…oh look at what you're doing.' If you're feeling down,
> 'oh, look at what you did.' It's like reinforcing the positive and it's so often,
> especially at an elementary site. There [are] no other administrators. It's
> super isolating, and not having validation is difficult.

Feelings of anxiety, doubt, and frustration come through in these passages, a sense of "Am I doing this right?" or "...I could have done it better." New principals felt their coaches provided them with needed emotional support.

Acknowledging and working through emotional stress. The coaches understood the emotional stress and isolation experienced by principals while simultaneously leading a school community and learning how to be a principal. They expressed the importance of a safe place, which meant a relationship where the new principal could expose and explore lack of knowledge, make mistakes, and work through emotional stress as they developed their leadership skills with increased confidence, independence, and a diminished sense of isolation. Cheryl stated, "Where coaches come in, is making it okay. [It's] okay not to know..." Committed to new principal success, the coaches attended to the principals' immediate needs and sense of self. As Connie reported,

> … [T]he skill I bring to coaching is the ability to listen, reflect, and provide
> feedback to the person and help them…to be able to achieve their vision.

The Importance of Relationship

New principal coaching, as described by these coaches, was aligned with Rogerian beliefs and values (Rogers, 2003). Overwhelmingly, establishing and maintaining a positive relationship of unconditional positive regard with the new principal was perceived as an essential aspect of the coaching process. The data indicated that the coaching relationship was supportive, nonjudgmental, accepting, non-supervisorial, and confidential. Coaches approached the principals as a whole person.

Discussion and Implications

Demands placed on principals and school heads are high throughout the world (Bush, 2009; Darling-Hammond et al., 2007), as nations consider the appropriate changes needed to compete at an international level. Leading schools during times of change is an emotionally charged pursuit. Principals are constantly being challenged by the conflicting demands placed on them by their districts, teachers, students, and members of the community. Yet according to Brennan & Ruaric (2011), "The exploration of the emotional practice of school leadership is a recent focus of inquiry with respect to scholarship on school leadership and management" (p. 129).

The story of new principal coaching presented in this study, woven from the reflections of six coaches and the personal stories of six new principals, reveals potentially significant insights. The findings suggest that new principal coaching, as external agency, could be useful in attending to work stress, isolation, and emotional stress, and also offer a counterbalance to the tendency to study the technocratic dimensions of school reform and the role of educational leadership in impacting learning outcomes; this type of research ignores the emotional dimensions of being a principal, and fails to acknowledge the existence of emotions in the workplace, let alone how they impact performance. According to Grandey (2000) how an individual attends to emotional regulation in the workplace matters. We want

to elicit two major emotional spheres emerging from our study: stress and intensity.

Emotional Stress

What becomes clear in this study is the critical role a safe place and a safety net plays in lessening the sense of isolation and emotional stress associated with being a new principal. Both the principals and coaches described the coaching experience with consistency. The coaches supported the new principals as they went through what they were experiencing, in all their uncertainty, and without judgment. They allowed them to express the emotions and self-doubt without overreacting. This represented a stance consistent with Costa and Garmston's (2002) cognitive coaching recommendation regarding nonjudgmental responses, Peterson's (1996) characterization of mutual trust, and the Rogerian (2003) humanistic psychology approach of unconditional positive regard.

The importance new principals placed on having someone to talk with when experiencing the isolation and emotional stress associated with the principalship is consistent with the assertions of Anderson (1991), Daresh (1995), and Parkay et al. (1992) about the benefit of having a non-evaluative person to talk with when experiencing anxiety, doubt, and frustration. Overwhelmingly, the principals in the study experienced deep stress and anxiety in their new positions. Although Constance and Sam felt overwhelmed by the administrative demands of being a principal, they did not consider leaving the profession. On the other hand, Giselle, Hannah, and Mateus were all so overwhelmed that they nearly did leave the administrative field. Yet what helped all of them was having a coach, a safe person to talk with during times of challenge, not knowing, and crisis.

The coaches in the study offered support to principals in personalized ways, providing a safe place from where they could lead their school communities while learning how to be a principal. The descriptions of new principal coaching in this study are consistent with what is reported in the executive coaching literature. Work is done with clients - i.e. school principals - in ways that acknowledge these clients' strengths and areas of need, helping them learn more about themselves and others, becoming more conscious about their actions, and being more effective (Sherman & Freas, 2004).

The gratefulness that the new principals expressed toward their coaches is consistent with the findings of Coleman, Low, Bush, and Chew (1996) and Dukess (2001). The new principals appreciated having a specific individual to go to who would listen to their problems and conduct a conversation that was confidential and non-judgmental to reduce their sense of isolation and anxiety. Providing another perspective, these conversations also improved their self-confidence and self-esteem as a leader, helping them understand that the problems they encountered were not unique and that their solutions were satisfactory (Bolam, McMahon, Pocklington, & Weindling 1995).

Emotional Intensity

The principals' candid discussions of the emotional stress and challenges of being a new principal and the coaches' attention to these needs all suggest the importance of providing new principals with a safe place to authentically acknowledge the challenges, frustrations, and areas of needed growth. This is congruent with the discussions of Anderson (1991), Daresh (1995), and Parkay et al. (1992) concerning these same issue areas. Brennan and Ruairc (2011), too, have identified the impact of a principal's emotional management and emotional intelligence.

Coaching as a safety net appears to play a critical role in the development and retention of new principals. For instance, when Hannah talked about her coaching experience, she expressed the overall sense of being supported. Using a developmental framework, she drew a parallel where principals, like teachers, go through a developmental trajectory where the first year is an overwhelming one given the sheer amount of paperwork and protocols. Having someone she could go to, for even as she put it the "lamest questions", made it possible for her to survive the first year.

> I think you feel more assured in your decisions…for having had a coach, especially in the beginning…there's always this sense I could have done it differently or I could have done it better… just the idea of the coach and working with a coach just really builds your sense of self in the job…you can go to them for like the lamest question… You can share with them things that I don't think that most people would share even with their peer or even with their friend.

The full impact and potential benefit of the coach as a safe person for conversations, together with the development of emotions-related management approaches and emotional intelligence in school leaders, are certainly areas for further research. This study suggests that there is a potential benefit of coaching in alleviating the sense of isolation, uncertainty, and doubt as well as the development of emotions-related management and emotional intelligence as articulated by the participants.

Conclusion

This study suggests that new principal coaching as an induction practice has the potential to attend to both the work-related stress and emotional dimensions of being a novice principal. Additionally the study suggests that coaching—though not therapy—has the potential to enhance new principals' psychosocial and emotional functioning. Coaching provided a safe place for new principals to express how they relate to the new demands from both a personal and professional perspective. As a result, new principals reported being better able to manage the emotional and professional demands of the job.

While the findings of this study seem promising, the issue of attending to stress and other emotional dimensions of leadership continues to be a neglected area in field of principal preparation, based upon a review of the 2014 California Professional Standards for Education Leaders and the 2011 Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards (ISSLC) for Educational Administration. In the California standards, for instance, there are no references the emotional dimensions of leadership. In the ISSLC standards there is only one statement about "modeling emotional intelligence […]" (p. 138).

Although the findings of this study are limited to the sample, the potential for application to similar school settings in other locations exists. Researchers are encouraged to examine new principal coaching and the emotional dimensions of school leadership as a developmental process. The role of new-principal coaching affecting the number of principals leaving the profession—which typically occurs at the end of their first and second year—represents an important line of research. Exploring coaching as a safety net for new principals during times of emotional stress, isolation, self-doubt and uncertainty would also be a worthwhile pursuit due to the limited research and attention given to date to these characteristic demands of the principalship.

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