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# The Ten Most Wanted Enemies of American Public Education's School Leadership

Fenwick W. English

It should come as no surprise to anyone close to the discourse concerning public education in the U.S. today that educational leadership is under attack from a variety of internal/external critics and agencies, not the least of which is the U.S. Government under the new Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan. This paper is a response to begin to identify those enemies of educational leadership programs, their ideological agendas and their allies. The network involves outspoken individuals with elitist credentials, long time neo-liberals, right-wing think tank pundits and their conservative foundation sponsors, other foundations such as the Broad Foundation. It is not an exaggeration to say as Kowalski did in 2004 that we are in a “war for the soul of school administration” (pp. 92–114). Of prime importance in understanding our enemies is that we find our collective voice in a response to their agenda because as Giroux (2004) has remarked, “There is no language here for recognizing anti-democratic forms of power, developing nonmarket values, or fighting against substantive injustices in a society founded on deep inequalities, particularly those based on race and class” (p. 61).

It is somewhat of an irony that some of us who now find ourselves in a position of defending public education and its leadership have been long time critics of it over many years (English, 1994; 1995; 1997; 1998; 2001; 2002; 2005; 2007; 2008a, 2008b; English & Papa, 2010) The great French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (2003) also found himself saying:

This situation is all the more paradoxical in that one is led to defend programs or institutions that one wishes in any case to change, such as public services and the nation state, which no one could rightly want to preserve as is, or unions or even public schooling, which must be continually subjected to the most merciless critique. Thus I am sometimes suspected of conversion or accused of contradiction when I defend a public school system of which I have shown time and again that it fulfills a function of social conservatism (p. 23).

The similarity from Bourdieu's view and my own is that the enemies cited in this paper want to take public education down a road where it will not perform any better, or even possibly worse, than it does today, and in

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the process substantially degrade or destroy what Bourdieu (1998) called “civic virtue” and Houston reminisced as “the spirit of the commonweal that has always been the central expectation of public education” (Houston, 2006, p. 5). It is this greater threat to the destruction of the fabric of *civic humanism* which Emery and Ohanian (2004) warn is “the hijacking of American Education” (p. 1) that prompts me and many others (Lugg, 2000, 2001; deMarrais, 2006; Kumashiro; 2008) to expose their ideas and their agendas to greater public scrutiny.

### **A Preliminary Classification of the Enemies**

Any sort of classification becomes difficult because our critics often have ideological footings in many camps and draw support from a wide variety of sponsors. While most emanate from the Republican right, a few are democrats. Kumashiro (2008) delineates three forces of the political right in the United States as (1) “secular” whose agenda is to “preserve economic privilege”; (2) Christian which is to “uphold traditional notions of gender and sexuality” and (3) Xenophobic which is aimed at protecting “the privileges of certain racial groups and nations” (p. 10). I shall attempt to make these clearer in this descriptive section. My ten most wanted enemies of public education leadership are located in four categories. They are:

- elitist conservatives such as Charles Murray, Ed Hirsch, Jr. and William J. Bennett
- neoliberals, free marketeers and new public management gurus such as Chester Finn, Fred Hess, Eli Broad, Arne Duncan, and Lou Gerstner
- goos goos such as Arthur Levine
- cranks, crack pots, commie hunters such as David Horowitz

These are my current ten most wanted enemies of public education leadership. There are, of course, many others such as Jack Welch, Chris Whittle, Dinesh D’Souza, Newt Gingrich, Lynne Chaney and Stephen and Abigail Thernstrom, to cite a few. But these names keep resurfacing again and again. While most are Republicans or fellow right wing bon vivants, there are a few democrats among them.

#### **The Elitist Conservatives**

The elitist conservatives fancy themselves as holding onto the cultural icons and heritage that they believe everyone should know and which constituted some cultural apogee or “golden days.” Eatwell (1989) has called this group of individuals “the reactionary right”, though the persons I placed in this group also lap into Eatwell’s “moderate right” category. The positions adopted by persons in the “elitist conservative” group espouse a return to some “idealized past”. They are “aristocratic, religious and authoritarian” (Eatwell, 1989, p. 63). Those in the “moderate right” tend to reject four tenets of liberal philosophy, “liberalism’s individualism; its universalism; its rationalism; and its contractual and utilitarian principles” (Eatwell, 1989, p. 67).

The three “most wanted enemies” of public education school leadership in this category are *Charles Murray*, *E.D. Hirsch, Jr.* and *William J. Bennett*.

### **Charles Murray**

Murray is perhaps best known for his co-authored book with Richard Herrnstein in 1994 *The Bell Curve*. In this book he argued that welfare and early childhood education programs were largely a waste of time for poor and minority children because these children were genetically inferior and could not profit from such programs. According to Brock (2004) the misuse of statistics in this work got him “cut loose” from the conservative Manhattan Institute. He then retreated to the American Enterprise Institute, another right wing think tank. Brock (2004) says that “the Right had spent more than \$1 million promoting Murray alone” (p. 47).

### **E.D. Hirsch, Jr.**

Ed Hirsch is a former English professor at the University of Virginia who published *Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know*. In this book, Hirsch (1988) argues for a curriculum based on a common core which he and two other male University professors identified 5,000 items that every American had to know to be “culturally literate.” Hirsch argued that this amounted to “freezing a culture” in the same way a language is frozen at some state of development in order to become standardized. Cultural literacy works when the society in which it derives its privileged hierarchical status also remains frozen.

### **William J. Bennett**

William J. Bennett was the third United States Secretary of Education under Ronald Reagan. He is a fellow with the conservative Heritage Foundation. He has long espoused competency testing for teachers, merit pay, opening the teaching profession to persons not prepared in colleges of education, a national examination of all students, parental choice of schools and administrative accountability. He is an opponent of same-sex marriage and long time member of the Republican Party. He has benefitted from financial support from Empower America and the John Olin Foundation (Turchiano, 2004, p.29) one of the hard right conservative foundations.

These three personages are the epitome of the issue of social justice in America as captured by Brian Barry (2005):

In every society, the prevailing belief system has been largely created by those with the most power—typically, elderly males belonging to the majority ethnic and religious group, who also run the dominant institutions of the society. It is notable, for example, that almost all religions rationalize a subordinate position for women and explain that inequalities of fortune are to be accepted as part of God’s great (if mysterious) plan (p. 27)

The views of these white males is that of preserving the status quo even as

American society is undergoing profound changes in its racial and ethnic composition. Dougherty (2010) reports U.S. Census data that showed that 48.6% of the children born in the U.S. between July 2008 and July 2009 were to non-white minorities. Ten states now show minority majorities in resident populations not simply California, Arizona and New Mexico, but Maryland, Georgia and Washington, D.C. Some experts estimate that the nation could become white minority as early as 2011.

### **Neoliberals , Free Marketeers and New Public Management Gurus**

Neo-liberalism “is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade. The role of the state is to create and preserve an institutional framework appropriate to such practices. . . . Furthermore, if markets do not exist (in areas such as land, water, education, health care, social security, or environmental pollution) then they must be created by state action if necessary” (Harvey, 2009, p. 2).

The five most wanted enemies of public education in this camp are *Chester “Checker” Finn, Frederick Hess, Eli Broad, Louis Gerstner and Arne Duncan.*

#### **Chester E. Finn, Jr.**

Chester E. Finn, Jr. is long time conservative critic of public education, schools of education, educational leadership programs and teacher unions. His books and perspectives embrace the main tenets of neo-liberalism applied to education including vouchers and charter schools. He has been a fellow at the Hoover Institution and an Olin Fellow at the Manhattan Institute as well as an adjunct fellow at the conservative Hudson Institute. Finn is the President of the Broad funded Thomas B. Fordham Institute where he continues to be an advocate for the neo-liberal agenda in education (see also Finn, 1991).

#### **Frederick M. Hess**

Frederick M. Hess is director of Education Policy Studies at the American Enterprise Institute. Prior to assuming this role at AEI he was an instructor at the University of Virginia and a senior fellow of the Progressive Policy Institute. Emery and Ohanian (2004) note that PPI has received generous funding from the Bradley and Heritage Foundations (p. 70). The Bradley Foundation is one of the four “Big Sisters” previously noted. Its money comes from the sale of auto parts magnate Harry Bradley. The Bradley Foundation has a long history of sponsoring conservative ideologies in education and in the larger policy arena. Hess sits on the Review Board for the Broad Prize in Urban Education and on the Boards of Directors of the National Association of Charter School Authorizers. Hess is a frequent

critic of schools of education leadership programs for failing to teach candidates “proven” business management skills (2003).

### **Eli Broad**

Eli Broad made his fortune in real estate (KB home) and was founder of SunAmerica, now a subsidiary of AIG. He and his wife Edythe established the Broad Foundation “with the mission of advancing entrepreneurship for the public good in education, science and the arts”. The Broad Foundations have assets of \$2.1 billion. According to Wikipedia (2010) “The Eli and Edythe Broad Foundation’s education work is focused on dramatically improving urban K–12 education through better governance, management, labor relations and competition. The Broad Foundation has four national flagship initiatives: (1) The \$2 million Broad Prize for Urban Education; (2) The Broad Superintendents Academy which is a ten month executive management program to train working CEOs and other top executives from business, non-profit, military, government and education backgrounds to lead urban school systems; (3) the Broad Residency in Urban Education which is a two-year management development program that trains recent graduate students, primarily with business and law degrees, who have several years of work experience and places them immediately into managerial positions in the central operations of urban school districts, and (4) The Broad Institute for School Boards which is a national training and support program for urban school district governance teams of school board members and superintendents.

Business leaders such as Eli Broad and Lou Gerstner suffer from what Krugman (2009) has called the “great man’s disease” which “happens when a famous researcher in one field develops strong opinions about another field that he or she does not understand” (p. 29). In a prescient passage Krugman writes [simply substitute the word “education” for “economics” in this quotation]:

Imagine a person who has mastered the complexities of a huge industry, who has run a multibillion-dollar enterprise. Is such a person, whose advice on economic policy may well be sought, likely to respond by deciding to spend time reviewing the kind of material that is covered in freshman economics courses? or is he or she more likely to assume that business experience is more than enough and that the unfamiliar words and concepts economists use are nothing but pretentious jargon? (pp. 31–32).

The Broad Foundation “was the eighth-largest U.S. family foundation by giving in 2008, the last year for which data is available, donating \$116.5 million to various causes, according to the nonprofit Foundation Center” (Lattman & Pilon, 2010). Broad’s opinions about what is wrong and how to fix public education are enjoying bountiful funding, including ten million dollars to the D.C. public schools to install a form of merit pay for teachers (Martinez, 2010, p. A8), another key plank in the neo-liberal ideology to “reform” public education. Broad is optimistic that his agenda is ripe for

implementation, “‘We’re at a golden moment now,’ with a president and an education secretary who, he says, agree with his reform agenda” (Riley, 2009, p. A11).

**Louis V. Gerstner, Jr.**

Louis Gerstner is the former business executive with RJR and American Express who became CEO of IBM in 1993. He is credited with saving IBM from going out of business by, in part, by laying off over 100,000 employees. After he left IBM he received a ten year two million dollar consultancy contract and is required to work only one month out of the year (Wikipedia, p.2).

Gerstner, like Eli Broad, has strong opinions about public education. Like Broad, he has zeroed in on school boards and school districts as “the problem” and has recommended that all 15,000 school districts be abolished (Gerstner, 2008, p. A23.). He sees too many “profit centers” as de-centralization of corporate control and trying to bring order to some national effort. Corporate control is authoritarian not democratic. And whereas the corporatizers in education often promise more transparency and accountability, what they produce is less of both (see Anderson and Pini, 2005, p.230).

**Arne Duncan**

Arne Duncan is the 9th U.S. Secretary of Education. A former professional basketball player with a graduate degree from Harvard, Duncan was Deputy Chief of Staff for Chicago Public Schools for CEO Paul Vallas, another non-educator who headed that school system. Duncan was appointed CEO of the Chicago Public Schools in 2001 and nominated to be U.S. Secretary of Education in 2008. Billed as a reformer he was endorsed by D.C. schools Chancellor Michelle Rhee and former Bush U.S. Secretary of Education, Margaret Spellings (Levy, 2008.) Like Spellings, Duncan had no outstanding education credentials and even after seven years heading the Chicago Public Schools “doesn’t seem to have developed much wisdom from that experience. There is no indication of a broad or deep understanding, or at least an appreciation, of the complicated relationship between education and larger society forces. Nor was his tenure as Chicago’s schools chief an unmitigated success in any of the popular ways politicians and presidents define success, such as increased test scores and lower dropout rates” (Chennault, 2010, p. 30).

Duncan has launched a \$4 billion dollar executive agenda called *Race to the Top* with TARP funds (McNeil & Maxwell, 2010). It contains a huge amount of the neo-liberal education agenda: charter schools; blunting the role of teacher unions; pay for raising pupil performance on tests in the form of individual “merit”; and criticizing schools of education and educators for not promoting more “rigor” in their programs (Sawchuk, 2009), as well as working to create more alternative pathways to licensing (see also Hawley, 2010, p. 28). The fact that Duncan has won the support of

long-time neo-liberal pundits such as Chester Finn, William Bennett and Newt Gingrich is indicative of how deeply the neo-liberal agenda has penetrated the Democratic party. When even the party in power has no solutions except those proposed by the opposing party, it matters little who is in office. Chennault (2010) similarly noted, "President Obama's education agenda is, broadly speaking, indistinguishable from that of his predecessor" (p. 31).

### **The Goo Goos**

#### **Arthur Levine**

The Goo Goos are the social do-gooders who want to do things right and improve things, but make them worse. To this category of the ten enemies of public education leadership I add Arthur Levine, formerly of Teachers College, Columbia University and now the sixth president of the Woodrow Wilson Foundation. Levine authored a report in 2005 called *Educating school leaders* which not only indicted educational leadership programs in general, but failed to follow sound research based practices in doing his national study. He subsequently ran into a buzz saw in Teachers College over it and left as Dean.

Levine's study promised to let his "data speak for themselves" but he provided no data. He claimed that no program he examined was "exemplary" he never disclosed his sample except by saying two of the programs were acceptable at Vanderbilt and University of Wisconsin at Madison. Levine recommended the abolition of the Ed.D. but he never examined the quality of Ed.D. research directly, something which was done recently by English & Papa, (2010). His so-called "study" would fail to meet even the most minimal standard acceptable for the National Research Council's 2002 *Scientific Research in Education*. Levine is enamored with the MBA and business schools (Maranto, Ritter, & Levine, 2010) despite the very loud criticisms of the inadequacies of the MBA and business schools in the literature (see Khurana 2007) and especially with the large number of CEOs, COOs, and CFOs in jail, indicted, or on their way to jail for financial improprieties. Business school reputations have been severely tarnished and a host of new deans is trying to change the "win at all costs culture" of them (Middleton, 2010).

### **Cranks, Crack pots, and Commie hunters**

#### **David Horowitz**

This category of public enemy is reserved for David Horowitz, a former leftist Vietnam War protestor, editor of *Ramparts* a radical leftist newspaper, and member of the Black Panther Party who did a 180 degree turn and now, because he was wrong, believes he is permanently right. At some point Horowitz underwent a convergence and wrote a book on his own generation and how they were to blame for the social ills of the day. He wrote



speeches for Senator Bob Dole and finally, “by 2000, [was ushered] into the circle of Bush advisor Karl Rove” (Brock, 2004, p. 101). He established the Center for the Study of Popular Culture in Los Angeles with funds from the Bradley and Scaife Foundations where he runs several right wing web pages, among them FrontPage, an instrument “for smearing leading Democrats” (Brock, 2004, p. 102) and liberal professors whose views he finds anti-American or anti-George Bush.

But Horowitz’ attack on professors in higher education he finds too liberal or named Communists is part of his claims that there is a bias in higher education that can only be put right via state intervention. As a result he has sponsored an “Academic Bill of Rights” initiative that would guarantee that students with conservative views would not be discriminated against (Kronholz, 2005) there is no evidence that such is the case. Horowitz founded an internet web site called RateMyProfessors.com where students can complain about professors who are too liberal. He also has been involved in creating such an outlet for students in elementary and secondary schools (Cavanagh, 2006). Horowitz had worked with the American Enterprise Institute to do a “study” of university faculty that were liberal and that study reported that “the Left dominated university faculties by a factor of eleven to one” (Brock, 2004, p. 370). What Horowitz neglected to say was that, “the survey . . . examined only social science faculties, leaving out more conservative schools of medicine, law, business, and engineering” (Brock, 2004, p. 370).

English (2008c) has analyzed Horowitz’ 2006 book *The Professors: the 101 Most Dangerous Academics in America*. Forty-five percent of the “dangerous” professors resided in the humanities; 33% in the social sciences and 22% in other fields such as journalism, communication, music, law, education, criminal justice and engineering (p. 256). None were in the hard sciences. The views that Horowitz found “dangerous” were that 31% of his “dangerous” professors were anti-Iraq war; 28% were either Marxist in orientation or advocated or shared Marxist perspectives; 28% were anti-Israel or opposed to Israeli treatment of the Palestinians; 19% were Anti-American or anti-American policies; 19% were anti George Bush; 18% embraced feminist/lesbian programs, critical race theory, queer theory or homosexuality; 9% were anti-capitalistic; 7% were generally against war; 5% were pro Cuba and another 5% were anti Vietnam War (English, 2008c, p. 256).

Horowitz’ attacks are an example of what Eatwell (1989) has called “the extreme right” which “has tended more to produce propagandists, interested in telling people what to think rather than how to think, and lacking in originality” (p. 71). And within Horowitz’ “dangerous professors” one can clearly see the outline of conspiracy theory, a hallmark of the extreme right. Conspiracy theory, notes Eatwell (1989) is a form of political myth and “in its extreme right-wing form involves a particular set of views: these center mainly around nationalism and racism, which can involve mobilizing, integrating and simpliste-explicatory myths” (p. 72).

## The Final Ranking of the Ten Most Wanted Enemies of Public Education Leadership

Here is my final ranking and commentary on the top ten enemies of public educational leaders and leadership programs in the U.S. Whether they are democrats or republicans makes little difference since they are all neo-liberal advocates or fellow travelers.

1. Eli Broad—Eli Broad's millions are going towards a top-down corporate takeover of urban school systems. His promoted non-educators have no historical awareness of the field in which they work, are beholden to efficiency management tactics and simplistic economic models, discourage innovation and privatize formerly non-commodified public spheres while failing to bring about the dramatic improvements they advertise. The Broad approach proffers nothing new on all fronts because it assumes that everything that is necessary to be known to improve schools is already known, if not in education than in business. Broad's superintendent and school board academies have never released their curriculum, never indicated what in traditional preparation programs is not necessary to know or who their "experts" are. Whereas most public university curricula is in fact public, available on their web pages in course syllabi and reading lists, the Broad approach eschews any such disclosures. Broad CEOs are called "gunslingers" and their record of success is spotty at best in urban settings (see Eisinger and Hula, 2008).
2. Arne Duncan—Arne Duncan, the 9th U.S. Secretary of Education, has shown he is a captive of the neo-liberal "boxed" thinking about school improvement. He has proffered no new bold reforms. He is not an innovator but an orthodox administrator that has accepted the diagnosis and the solutions proffered by the Republican, right wing think tank pundits. He is busily implementing their agenda in Race to the Top which has found protests coming from the missing parent voice ". . . from the top down, often draconian policies put forward by U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (Haimson & Woestehoff, 2010, p. 34). He has an advocate for more mayoral control of urban school systems which means the loss of the elected or appointed school board, a long time agenda of the neo-liberals (Hechinger & Sataline, 2009, p. A12).
3. Chester E. Finn, Jr.—Chester "Checker" Finn continues to push his long time neo-liberal ideology as President of the Thomas Fordham Institute supported by the Broad Foundation. He is fond of using corporate metaphors in his writing (Saltman, 2005, p. 37). He has been a leading advocate of the privatization of education and was "co-founder of the education management organization Edison Project" (Kumashiro, 2008, p. 21).
4. William J. Bennett—Bill Bennett is a Republican party stalwart with very deep ties to the neo-liberal education agenda. Bennett is a former board member of the Bradley Foundation which has been a long time op-

ponent of affirmative action and welfare (Kumashiro, 2008, p. 12). He has been supported by the Heritage Foundation, the “mother” of all right-wing think tanks. He also co-owns a private company, K12, Inc. which “according to the federal Government Accountability Office, has improperly received millions of federal grant dollars from the U.S. Department of Education” (Kumashiro, 2008, p. 18).

5. Frederick M. Hess—Currently the Director of Policy Studies at the American Enterprise Institute, Hess proffers the tried and true neo-liberal ideology in education: privatization, vouchers, non-educators in leadership roles; run schools like business or the military; alternative certification; anti teacher unions and schools of education. He is one of the reputed anonymous authors of the Thomas B. Fordham and Broad Foundation’s political broadside against educational leadership programs *Better Leaders for America’s Schools: A Manifesto* (2003).
6. Louis V. Gerstner, Jr.—Lou Gerstner believes public education can be improved by the way he ran IBM. Gerstner wants to abolish all of the school districts in the nation which remain one of the few arenas where Americans exercise local control of anything. The abolition or marginalization of local school boards has also been advocated by Eli Broad and Chester Finn.
7. Charles Murray—A eugenics elitist, Murray has helped propagate the dogma of racial superiority in education and to weaken the commitment of public opinion for the advancement of the poor and most vulnerable classes in the larger society. As Conason (2003) noted, “Speaking from the commanding heights of the American right, they informed the nation that blacks are destined to fail, that racial discrimination is logically and morally defensible as well as natural, and that the government should stop trying to enforce civil rights and help the black underclass” (p. 138). Murray’s work is an example “the new racism” within what Ansell (1997) has termed “the New Right worldview” where “the disproportionate failure of people of color to achieve social mobility speaks nothing of the justice of present social arrangements . . . but rather reflects the lack of merit or ability of people of color themselves” (p. 111). Murray’s work is the epitome of the New Right worldview.
8. David Horowitz—Horowitz is the only one on my list of the top ten enemies that I would call a member of the extreme right. He is a populist demagogue.
9. Arthur Levine—Arthur Levine portrays himself as a reformer but his “reforms” proffer nothing new and are a rehash of much of the internal change agenda within educational leadership that was already in the literature.
10. Ed. Hirsch, Jr.—A linguist whose efforts to capture the “core curriculum” are futile efforts to preserve white privilege in a burgeoning multi-racial and multi-cultural society. Hirsch’s “core curriculum” is a prime example of Bourdieu and Passeron’s (2000) “cultural arbitrary”

being imposed by political power on the rest of a specific society. The school serves as the legitimizing agent of this form of “symbolic violence.”

In summarizing the agendas of the political right and left in America, Brian Barry (2005) saw tremendous success of the right because there is “a network of lavishly financed foundations, and the books and journals that they promote at enormous expense, have rationalized all the most mean-spirited impulses of affluent American whites” (p. 233). Further he added, that “. . . the only honest case that can be made for the agenda of the right is that it suits the people who benefit from it nicely” (p. 234). The purpose of this paper was to identify the most significant figures and forces that are involved in that assault.

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# Principal Preparation Program Growth and Shifting Landscapes: A View from Indiana

William R. Black and Justin Bathon

This paper profiles building level administrator (principal) program growth and shifting preparation landscapes by examining training and occupational choices for all individuals initially licensed as building-level administrators in the state of Indiana between October, 2001 and October, 2005. We present descriptive trends of initially certified building administrators' choices for university-based training in each of the 17 state approved institutions, as well as initial placement in administrative roles. Production of new building-level leadership licensures increased and outpaced the growth in new administrative positions, as 53% of program completers acquired administrative positions within the five-year period of analysis. A variety of private institutions began small principal preparation program. However, one newly established private university program grew from zero production to becoming the largest producer of aspiring principals. More established programs lost relative market share, and in some cases, absolute numbers of students gaining initial licensure. We describe ways in which the principal preparation landscape shifted and explore implications for educational leadership programs.

## Introduction

Concurrent with the widespread implementation of standards-based licensure and program approval/accreditation requirements by state education agencies, university-based educational leadership preparation programs continue to engage questions about how to best prepare and produce diverse, committed, and professionally capable principal candidates. The educational leadership professoriate is expressing greater interest in understanding how educational leadership preparation occurs across various preparation program contexts. Researchers have begun systematically investigating the impact of university preparation program characteristics on individuals' knowledge and skills and subsequent actions in school leadership positions (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Murphy, 2006; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007; Young, Crow, Murphy, & Ogawa, 2009).

While concerns over the efficacy of principal preparation have long been



with the profession, so have efforts to improve university-based preparation programs (Willower & Forsyth, 1999). However, more recent and well-publicized critiques that question the fundamental purpose, coherence, and rigor of university-based educational leadership preparation programs have held particular sway with some policy makers and district level educators (Young & Brewer, 2008). As a result, many policy makers are championing alternative means of licensing educational administrators (Smith, 2008). Others express concerns about leadership programs' recruitment, admission, and training processes, citing too many programs that produce many administratively licensed individuals who possess no intention of applying for leadership positions. Critics note that these "low quality" administrator preparation programs remain appealing to universities because of their financial attractiveness (Fordham & Broad Foundations, 2003; Hess, 2003; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005).

It is within the context of internal and external critique and a standards-based program approval and recertification policy environment that many educational leadership programs have reinvigorated their previous self-reflection and formative evaluation efforts. The new efforts are demonstrate increasing concern with tracking program graduate outcomes (Glassman, Cibulka, & Ashby, 2002; Murphy, 2002, 2003; Orr, 2007; Orr & Pounder, 2006; Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002). For example, NCPEA (National Council of Professors of Educational Administration) and UCEA (University Council for Educational Administration) have called on educational leadership faculty to challenge the climate of timidity that emerges from the politics of fear and critique of the profession. These voices explicitly call for collective and thoughtful action in developing research on the preparation of school leaders that can be widely disseminated and serve as form of advocacy for the integrity of profession (Hemmen, Edmonson, & Slate, 2009; Hoyle, 2007; Young, 2009).

One useful point for engagement with the myriad issues involved in the debates around educational leadership preparation quality and purpose is to understand particular state-level landscapes for preparation. This involves coming to know where pre-service administrators receive their training and how institutional distribution of this training may shift over time (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007). In this paper, we profile educational leadership programs' licensure production trends across one state, Indiana.<sup>1</sup> As a result, a portrait of where individuals get prepared and what they do with their administrative certification emerges in a state with 17 approved principal (initial administrative licensure) programs. While limited, we hope this analysis contributes to emerging national efforts to collaboratively study principal preparation and to design new means of mapping principal preparation program features

<sup>1</sup>The paper draws from a study commissioned by the Indiana Department of Education and the Wallace Foundation. The full report citation is Black, W., Bathon, J., & Poindexter, B. (2007). *Looking in the mirror to improve practice: A study of Administrative Licensure and Master's Degree Programs in the State of Indiana*. Indianapolis, IN.: Indiana State Department of Education, Center for School Improvement and Performance.

and outcomes. We provide an example of descriptive inquiry that can serve as a foundation to further inquire into the relationship between individual principal preparation programs and career outcomes (Darling-Hammond, et. al; Orr, 2006; Orr & Pounder, 2006; Orr, Rorrer, & Jackson, 2010; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007, Young, Crow, Murphy, & Ogawa, 2009).

What follows is a brief review of salient national production trend studies and methods for this study. We then present select findings around principal preparation production trends and conclude with a discussion of implications this study has for principal preparation programs and further inquiry by educational leadership faculty and stakeholders.

## **Licensure and Production**

### **Purpose of Licensure**

A central concern of administrator preparation programs is the selection, training, and certification of individuals as licensed building-level administrators. The state licensure and accreditation agencies that approve and review principal preparation programs have an interest in assuring sufficient preparation production and quality to meet the needs of school communities. Initial licensure signals foundational knowledge that forms a base from which one may develop more complex leadership competencies over time. Adams and Copeland (2005) argue that it is important to recognize that with time and support, individuals can develop greater capacity, including the complex and interrelated set of skills, knowledges, and dispositions, to lead difficult school reform and student achievement improvement efforts. At a minimum, initial licensure should represent skills and orientation that does no harm. Much literature points to the limitation of licensure, suggesting that it is a substantially limited indicator of the type of political and leadership skills principals need in order to improve schools (Adams & Copeland, 2005; Cambron-McCabe, 2002; Farkas, Johnson, & Duffet, 2003; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1998). For this study, we only examine which institutions graduate individuals with initial administrative licensure and do not make any claims as to effectiveness beyond initial placement. However, it represents a point of entry in which the field can utilize descriptive data on licensure a program's roles in licensure production trends across a state.

### **Select National Trends**

In a study of national educational administration degree production, Baker, Orr, and Young (2007) found that there has been an increase in degree production, with much of the growth occurring not at Carnegie Research 1-level institutions, but rather at comprehensive universities and other relatively new providers. They found that the number of Masters Degree programs in educational administration grew 16% from 1990–2003, while educational administration degree production increased 90% from 1993 to

2003. In comparison, nationally there was a 7% rise in principal positions between 1987 and 1999–2000, with a dramatic increase in female administrators and a very modest increase in minority administrators. In particular, in 1993–1994, only 35% of public school administrators were women, while in 1999–2000 54% of new principals (with less than three years experience) were women and 44% of all principals were women. During the same academic year, 55% of public elementary schools were led by women administrators, while women were leading in administrative roles at 21% of high schools. In 1999–2000, 18% of public school administrators were from ethnic/racial minorities (Ringel, Gates, et al., 2004). As will be revealed in the analysis below, this represents greater ethnic/racial and gender diversity than exists for the full sample of Indiana’s licensed administrators studied for this report.

## Methods

This paper emerges from a larger study commissioned to describe and evaluate principal preparation in the state of Indiana (Black, Bathon, & Poindexter, 2007).<sup>ii</sup>The data that we gathered for the larger report came from two major sources: A narrative survey sent to program chairs and coordinators; and state-level licensure and accreditation data bases as well as K–12 personnel files. Through communications with the Indiana Division of Professional Standards (IDPS), we determined that certification and licensure databases at the IDPS could be cross referenced with the Indiana Department of Education’s K–12 School Data and personnel file. From the Indiana Division of Professional Standards we solicited and received certification records on all licensure-only and Masters plus licensure program completers<sup>iii</sup> receiving initial building-level administrative licenses in the state of Indiana from October, 2001 to October, 2005. This allowed the researchers to use a snapshot date (October 31, 2005) and tie individual licensure granting institutions to specific program graduates, who were not identified by name. We were therefore able to analyze each of the 17 approved educational leadership programs’ trend data on the full set of individuals who obtained initial building-level administrator licenses in the state over a five-year period (October 31, 2001–October 31, 2005) and present those trends in this paper.

Subsequently using individual level identification numbers for each ini-

<sup>ii</sup>Seeded with Wallace Foundation support through the Indiana Department of Education’s Center for School Improvement and Performance the authors served as the principal investigator and graduate assistant on the study. The Indiana Building-Level Leadership Preparation Study was initiated with four objectives: to comprehensively describe the state of educational leadership preparation in the state; to report on methods utilized to evaluate and improve educational leadership preparation; to provide data that will inform policy decisions made at the state level as to how programs are approved/accredited and how they are evaluated; and to provide analysis and data to colleges and universities in ways that would inform their program development and operational procedures. IRB approval was obtained from Indiana University.

<sup>iii</sup>The terms program graduate and program completer interchangeably for the purposes of discussion in this paper. Program graduate refers to those individuals who earn their masters along with initial building-level administrative licensure, while program completers refers to those individuals who entered University-based programs with a Masters degree “in-hand” and who were pursuing licensure-only.

tially licensed building administrator, licensure data was merged with publicly available personnel files from the Indiana Department of Education. These files contained a job and school assignment code for each initially licensed building administrator in the state of Indiana. This allowed us to examine placement outcomes, as of a snapshot date of October, 31, 2005, of all Indiana initially licensed program completers from the previous 5 years (October 31, 2001 to October 31, 2005). Through this effort, we examined and present in this paper descriptive trends on initially certified building administrators' statewide placement rates, as well as placement rates of each of the 17 state approved institution's program completers.

While we utilized a full sample of initial building-level administrative licensures granted in the state of Indiana from 2001 to 2005, we recognize that there are limitations in the data that may result in a slight undercount of the total number of preparation program completers. For example, Indiana University—Southeast trains a large number of future principals that obtain Kentucky licensure and work in Kentucky, while the University of Notre Dame primarily prepares administrators for placement in jobs outside of Indiana. A number of program completers may not have sought licensure in Indiana for a number of reasons. Furthermore, the training of persons seeking licensure renewals was not included in this dataset, which only contained initial building-level administrator licenses. Licensure-only refers to individuals with a Masters Degree in a field other than educational leadership who enrolled in certification-only programs, while Masters plus licensure refer to individuals who earn a Masters degree in educational leadership or administration while also becoming licensed.

### **Building-Level Administrator Preparation Programs' Licensure Production Trends**

#### **More Programs**

In Indiana, from 2001 to 2005, the number of approved preparation programs grew from 11 programs to 17. Building-level administrator preparation programs approved during that period include Anderson University, Bethel College, Indiana Wesleyan University, University of Indianapolis, University of Notre Dame, and the University of Southern Indiana. All six of these programs reside in private universities and four of the six have religious affiliations. Of the previously approved building-level administrator preparation programs, only two are affiliated with private universities and only one of the programs has a religious affiliation. It is also noteworthy that the major land grant universities: Ball State University, Indiana State University, Indiana University, and Purdue University dominated the traditional preparation landscape over a decade ago.

#### **More Graduates**

Similarly, there has been a rise in the number of building-level administra-

tive licenses granted in Indiana, from 368 in 2001 to 435 in 2005 (an 18.2% rise). This growth is reflected in Figure 1.

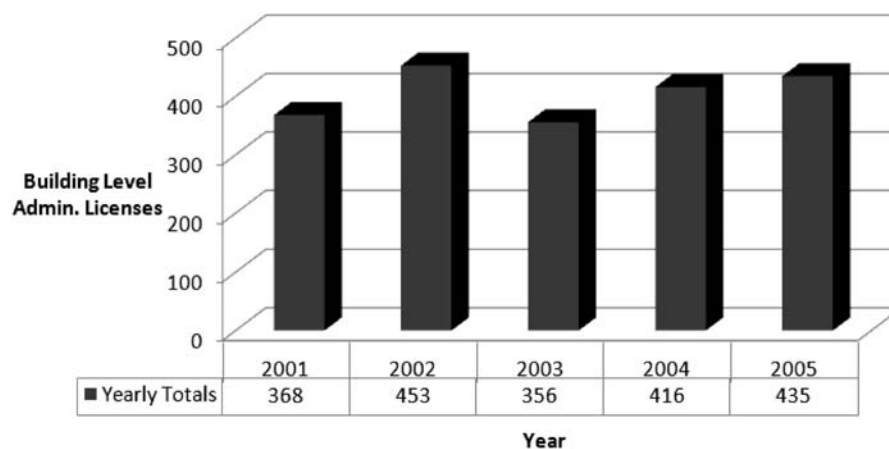
What is noticeable is the substantial rise in the numbers of licenses granted from 2001–2002 and 2003–2004, with a slightly more muted rise from 2004–2005. There is a dip in licenses granted in 2003. We suspect that the passage and initial implementation of new licensing and accreditation regulations, Rules 2002, and the beginning of the phase-out of previous regulations, Rules 46–47, impacted the number of licenses granted in 2003. Program administrators we consulted reported that students were possibly avoiding the licensure exam, the SLLA, by attempting to graduate before the SLLA became a requirement.

### Meager Administrative Job Growth

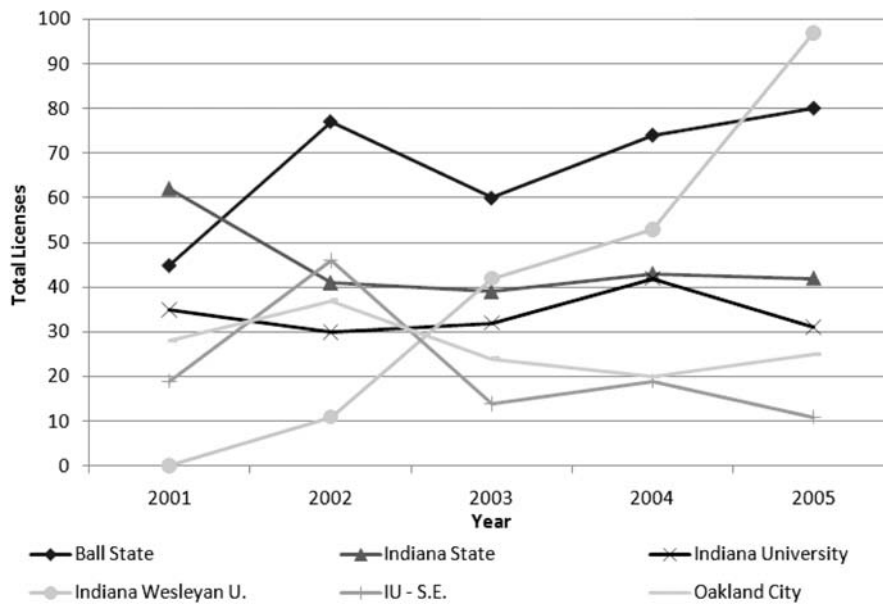
While there has been growth in numbers of institutions granting licenses and a slight rise in the number of building-level administrative licenses during the examination period, it is important to note that the total number of employed school administrators in the state of Indiana remained relatively constant, growing very slightly from 3,147 in 1998 to 3,312 (less than 5% growth) in the 2005–2006 school year (Indiana Department of Education, 2006).

### Program Completer Trends by Institution: More Programs, Yet Greater Concentration

Our analysis found that while more programs have been approved, fewer programs account for a larger percentage of building level administrator licensure production. Additionally, a high degree of variation was evident in the number of initial building level administrative licenses produced by the 17 approved building-level administrator preparation programs in Indiana, with growth highly localized across two programs. As an example,



**Figure 1.** Total Indiana Building Level Administrator Initial Licenses Granted by Year. Source: Indiana Professional Standards Board, July, 2006.



**Figure 2.** Yearly Totals of Original Principal Licensures Granted Per Selected Institutions (2001–2005). Source: Indiana Professional Standards Board, July, 2006.

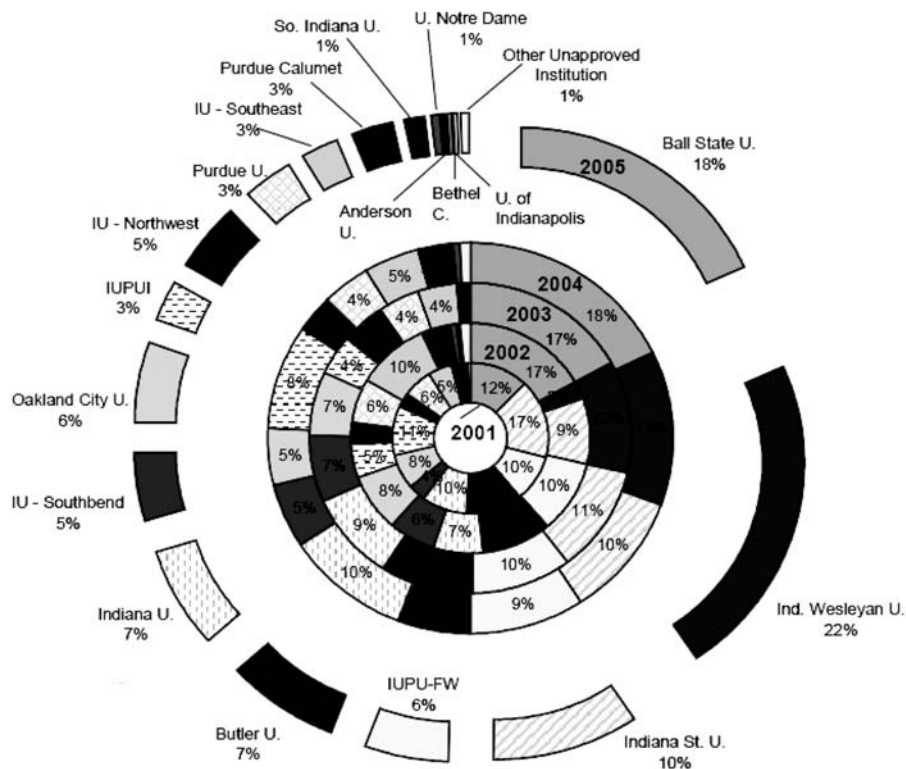
Figure 2 profiles six geographically and institutionally representative programs and the numbers of their program completers who received initial building level administrative licenses from October, 2001 to October, 2005.

The upward trend in the number of licensed completers from Indiana Wesleyan University is striking, as their licensure-only program produced its first completers in 2002 and by 2005 it was by far and away the leading institutional producer of initially licensed building level administrators in Indiana, as IWU produced 97 individuals with initial building-level administrative licenses in 2005. Indiana Wesleyan's program is characterized by comparatively robust marketing efforts and "just in time" types of curricular delivery, in which local administrators are contracted as adjunct professors to teach at sites throughout the state that were convenient to students, most often K–12 school buildings. Also, Ball State, which employs a higher percentage of electronic and distance education teaching than most other programs, also experienced significant program growth (Black, Bathon, & Poindexter, 2007). Further, with the exception of Indiana Wesleyan, other newly approved programs have not yet had a significant impact on the production of building-level administrative licenses during the period examined in this study. This phenomenon is represented in Figure 3, which presents data on institutions' licensure production for each year under examination, by percentage of total yearly production.

In 2005, three programs: Indiana Wesleyan (22%), Ball State (18%), and

Indiana State (10%), produced exactly half of all initially licensed building-level administrators in the state. Another nine programs produced 47% of initial building level licenses. Listed in descending order of production, these programs include Butler, IU-Bloomington, IUPU-FW, Oakland City, IU-Northwest, IU-South Bend, IUPUI, IU-Southeast, Purdue, and Purdue-Calumet. Taken as a whole, IU system schools (including Bloomington, Ft. Wayne, Indianapolis, South Bend, Northwest and Southeast) produced 29% of licensed administrators, while the two Purdue programs produced 6% of licensed administrators. Five remaining programs, which are recently beginning cohorts or produce administrators for other states (Anderson, Bethel, Notre Dame, Southern Indiana, and University of Indianapolis) produced only 2% of initial building level administrator licenses in 2005.

By comparison, in 2001 five programs- Indiana State (17%), Ball State (12%), Butler (12%), IUPU-Ft. Wayne, (10%), and IU-Bloomington (10%) produced slightly more than 50% of the initially licensed graduates. This represents a large growth in market share over five years for only two



**Figure 3.** Institutional Original Licensures Percentage by Year. Source: Indiana Department of Professional Standards.

programs: Indiana Wesleyan (0% to 22%) and Ball State (12% to 18%). From 2001 to 2005, the number of building-level administrative licenses granted grew from 368 to 435, a growth of 87 licenses. During this time period, Indiana Wesleyan and Ball State gained 137 licenses between the two programs. This translates to a reduction of 50 licensures produced by the remaining programs. There was a relative proportional reduction for Indiana State (17% to 10%). The IU system schools combined production share declined significantly from 43% in 2001, to 29% in 2005.

The large shift in relative production outcomes from three out of the four traditional land grant University systems to Ball State and the new institutional presence, Indiana Wesleyan, had occurred quickly enough to go gone relatively unnoticed and was one of the first issues that the State Superintendent of Schools, as well as program representatives viewed as important confirmation of phenomena that they had suspected. As a result of this information, discussions were initiated about halting approval of any new programs and the IU system dean convened other regional campus deans to plan a coherent systematic approach to principal preparation.

### **Building-Level Administrator Preparation Programs' completers: How Many Find Jobs as Principals?**

#### **Aggregate State-level Trend Data**

While the number of state-approved principal preparation programs grew over this period of time, and the number of licenses granted increased by 17%, the number of administrative jobs remained relatively stable. In this section, we analyze exactly how many completers served in the capacity of: Elementary School Assistant or Vice Principal, Elementary School Principal, Elementary/Middle School Principal, High School Assistant or Vice Principal, High School or Combined Principal, Junior High/Middle School Assistant or Vice Principal, or Junior High/Middle School Principal. An overall summary of the employment status as of October 31, 2005 of the 1559 individuals who earned initial licensure as a result of completing one of the 17 state approved programs between October 2001 and October 2005 is presented in Table 1.

Taking a snapshot date of October 31, 2005 we found that 53% of completers found administrative positions (833), whereas 47% (726) did not. Of those that did get placed, 42% are at the elementary, 27% junior high/middle, and 31% at the high school level. Forty-five percent of those placed in administrative positions were placed at the principal level and 55% at the assistant principal level. This is consistent with national studies that highlight the fact that administrator preparation programs are just as likely to prepare non-administrators as administrators. Papa, Lankford, and Wyckoff (2002) found that less than half of principal preparation program completers from 1970–1971 to 1999–2000 ever advanced to administrative positions. Examining data from 1995–2005, Fuller, Young, and Orr (2007) found that in Texas, a state experiencing much higher rates of stu-



dent enrollment growth than Indiana, 60% of all certified candidates became school administrators within 7 years.

During the five-year period we examined, 51% of all licensures produced were female, and 49% male. Yet, in Indiana during the 2005–2006 school year, only 39% of presently employed administrators were women. For the five year period of examination, programs produced completers that are 91.3% White, 7.8% Black, and 1% other minority. Minority representation in building level administrator programs compares favorably with the teaching force in Indiana, which only had 5.5% teachers of color during the 2005–2005 school year. However, during the 2005–2006 school year, the Indiana student population was 78% White, 12% Black, and 6% Latino.

Additionally, there was disparity in placement at the state level, with 64% of males being placed in administrative positions, while 51% of females licensed between October, 2001 and October, 2005 were placed in administrative positions as of October, 2005. Fifty-eight percent of White completers ( $n = 1,423$ ) from 2001–2005 being placed in administrative positions, while 48% of Black candidates ( $n = 121$ ) were placed, compared to 54% of Latino candidates ( $n = 13$ ).

### Occupational Placement by School Level by Gender

Generally, programs placed men more frequently than women, with only

**Table 1**  
Demographics and Employment Characteristics of Initially Certified Building-Level Administrators.

Characteristic	Number	Composite Percentage
Male	764	49.0%
Female	795	51.0%
White	1423	91.3%
Black	121	7.8%
Hispanic	13	0.8%
Native Am	1	0.1%
Multi-Racial	1	0.1%
<b>Total Minority</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>8.7%</b>
Elementary School Asst. or Vice Principal	118	7.6%
Elementary School Principal	255	16.4%
Elementary/Middle School Principal	6	0.4%
High School Asst. or Vice Principal	200	12.8%
High School or Combined Principal	74	4.7%
Jr. High/Middle Sch. Asst. or Vice Principal	174	11.2%
Junior High/Middle School Principal	6	0.4%
Total Principals	833	53.4%
Total Non-Principals	726	46.6%
Total Graduates	1559	100.0%

one program demonstrating equal placement rates. For those placed in positions, 40% of placed males ( $n = 197$ ) are principals and 60% of placed males are assistant principals ( $n = 290$ ). By contrast, 51% of placed females ( $n = 207$ ) are principals and 49% ( $n=199$ ) are assistant principals. Thus, the numbers of men and women program completers who are principals are roughly equivalent (197–207), but there is a large discrepancy in placement of men and women at the assistant principal level, as many more men (290) have been placed than women (199). At the elementary level, there were a total of 368 assistant and principal placements, and nearly a 2 to 1 placement disparity emerges, with women occupying 63.5% of the positions and men occupying 36.4% of the positions. Similarly, of the 241 Middle or Junior High Placements, 6 out of 10 placements are men. At the high school level, the male placement advantage is even more marked, as of the 274 positions occupied by program completers in our sample, 3 out of 4 (74.8%) were occupied by men.

### **Occupational Placement by Program**

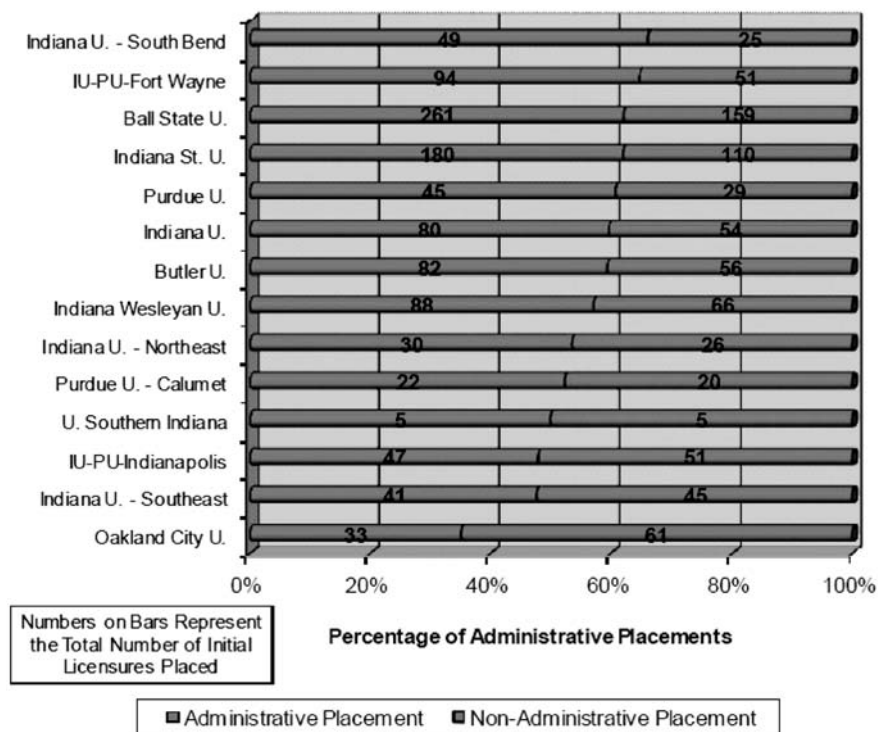
As evidenced in the table below, four programs placed over 60% of graduates in administrative positions. The four largest producers had the following administrative placement rates over the five year period: Ball State—62%, Indiana State—62%, Indiana Wesleyan—57%, IU-core campus—51.4%. IWU, the largest producer in 2005, had a 57% placement rate, slightly higher than the state average. Oakland City had the lowest placement rate for that time frame at 35%.

The placement rate of the largest producers, who did produce graduates who worked throughout the state, were either just above the state average (Indiana Wesleyan) or significantly above the state average (Ball State). The highest placement rates came from two smaller programs in more urban environments and lower placement rates are associated with more southern locations in the state. Institutional placement rates are further highlighted in Table 2 and distinguished by gender and position.

## **Analysis and Discussion**

### **Shifting Landscape in Principal Preparation Production**

While the number of state-approved principal preparation programs grew over this period of time, and the number of licenses granted increased by 17%, the number of administrative jobs remained relatively stable. Our program narrative survey instrument provided us with information about program characteristics that may help to explain why some of the growth and shift in institutional market share may be occurring. With the exception of one program, there is, in effect, an open door policy to licensure in the state of Indiana: virtually all students (over 94%) who apply to an expanded number of accredited programs are admitted and virtually every single one of those students will finish the program and pass the state licensure examination (over 90%) (Black, Bathon, & Poindexter, 2007). The result: the num-



**Figure 4.** November 2000–November 2005 Initial Licensures Placed in Administrative Position in the 2005–2006 School Year by Institution.

bers of licensed building level administrators in Indiana rose significantly over six years, while the amount of available positions has grown at a much slower rate. Thus, approximately half of the licensed administrators in Indiana find positions as administrators in the five years after they graduate.

This growth was not universal, however, as we also witnessed a reduction in the absolute number of program graduates from a handful of institutions. Growth in initial licensure production was concentrated in only two programs: Indiana Wesleyan and Ball State. From our program narrative, we were able to note that these programs were distinct and the only programs that might legitimately be discussed as statewide programs (Black, Bathon, & Poindexter, 2007). At the time of the study, Indiana Wesleyan's program was housed in continuing education, had previously prepared modules for instruction that could be used by adjuncts. The program operated almost exclusively with adjunct professors and could be characterized as quite nimble, as students could form a cohort and have the university come to them. The program was advertised extensively, the website was user friendly and inquiries were very quickly returned. The program length was amongst the shortest, as the program had the fewest hours required for the internships and students could finish their coursework within 12–14

**Table 1**  
Institutional Placement Rates by Gender and Position.

Institution	Male Placement %		Female Placement %		Assistant or Vice Principal		Principal		Elementary School Asst. or Vice Principal		Elementary School Principal		High School Asst. or Vice Principal		High School or Combined Principal		Jr. High/Middle Sch. Asst. or Vice Principal		Junior High/Middle School Principal	
	Principal	Assistant or Vice Principal	Female Placement %	Male Placement %	Principal	Assistant or Vice Principal	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Ball State U.	35	63	53%	68%	42	19	14	9	16	24	0	0	33	5	12	2	16	5	7	6
Butler U.	17	21	59%	59%	16	28	6	14	9	13	0	0	7	6	4	1	8	8	4	2
Indiana St. U.	36	34	51%	69%	26	14	2	1	10	19	2	0	22	6	16	3	10	7	8	4
Indiana U.	13	22	55%	67%	24	21	0	16	8	19	0	1	10	3	1	1	12	2	4	3
Indiana U. - Northeast	6	7	45%	72%	10	7	0	1	2	8	0	0	3	5	1	0	4	1	3	2
Indiana U. - South Bend	13	10	57%	82%	14	12	0	5	9	11	0	0	6	2	2	1	4	5	2	2
Indiana U. - Southeast	12	11	40%	56%	6	12	0	5	5	5	0	0	4	3	5	1	7	4	2	0
Indiana Wesleyan U.	9	34	56%	58%	19	26	10	10	4	14	0	2	15	8	3	0	9	8	2	3
IU-PU-Fort Wayne	19	40	55%	73%	16	19	2	4	7	11	1	0	19	6	8	4	19	9	3	1
IU-PU-Indianapolis	11	12	43%	55%	11	13	2	4	7	10	0	0	6	3	1	1	4	6	3	0
Oakland City U.	9	16	24%	41%	3	5	1	2	4	3	0	0	7	1	3	0	8	2	2	0
Purdue U.	12	12	54%	69%	11	10	1	3	7	9	0	0	9	3	3	0	2	4	2	2
Purdue U. - Calumet	3	6	45%	69%	5	8	1	3	3	5	0	0	2	2	0	0	3	3	0	0
Others	2	2	64%	44%	4	5	0	1	1	2	0	0	2	0	1	2	0	4	0	0
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>197</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>50%</b>	<b>63%</b>	<b>207</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>PERCENTAGE</b>	<b>40.5%</b>	<b>59.5%</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>51.0%</b>	<b>49.0%</b>	<b>33.3%</b>	<b>66.7%</b>	<b>37.6%</b>	<b>62.4%</b>	<b>50.0%</b>	<b>50.0%</b>	<b>73.2%</b>	<b>26.8%</b>	<b>78.9%</b>	<b>21.1%</b>	<b>60.9%</b>	<b>39.1%</b>	<b>62.7%</b>	<b>37.3%</b>

months. Ball State was perhaps the leader in distance education and was also able to enroll and place students throughout the state.

The data indicated that broad generalizations about production in all preparation programs was not warranted, as significant growth was limited to two programs. While these programs did offer features unique from other programs in terms of convenience and accessibility, other traditional features such as a focus on research and inquiry was not evident in the growth programs. Clearly, this study suggests that programs need to consider access and ease of enrollment in order to increase local and statewide enrollment. Yet, these may also need to be linked with purpose and content in ways that may distinguish programs as having a particular niche. Evaluation of program outcomes such as knowledge and application of instructional leadership and social justice leadership and the ability to disseminate that information in simple, yet sophisticated ways will continue to be important to program development and growth (Darling Hammond, et al., 2007; Young, et al., 2009).

While a license provides an opportunity to become an administrator, many are opting not to become administrators. The literature suggests this happens for a variety of reasons, but perhaps more attention should be given to teacher leadership development, given the complex and distributed nature of effective school leadership and the desire of many program enrollees to take on leadership responsibilities outside of traditional administrative roles (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Grogan & Andrews, 2002; Kochan, Bredeson, & Riehl, 2002; Lashway, 2003). Some myths, such as the expectation that graduates from some programs deemed less rigorous by some colleagues would not find jobs turned out to be inaccurate. This finding asks us to consider not just the supply side of the equation (the programs themselves), but the demand side of district recruiting, tapping, and hiring strategies. Ideally, there would be greater alignment.

### **Implications for Future Studies**

This presentation of production trends generates further questions for inquiry around issues of production, placement, access, and program purpose. While some of the more interesting outcomes from the production investigation are detailed here, additional analysis and discussion as well as state level policy recommendations can be found in the larger study (Black, Bathon, & Poindexter, 2007).

This study demonstrates not only details about production for the period under examination, but that the data to conduct such examinations are readily available in Indiana. A recent study of southeastern states conducted for the Southern Regional Education Board indicates that this type of data is readily available in most states (Sanders, Fuller, Bathon, & Bussey, 2009). These analyses of shifts in the educational leadership landscape are invaluable in determining the larger picture of leadership preparation and specific program roles within more complicated and ex-

panding markets. Analysis of production and placement trends should occur on a yearly basis and be distributed to leadership preparation programs in order to help them plan their program and to envision where they might want to concentrate limited resources. These activities not only inform leadership preparation programs, but also inform school district representatives so that educational leadership candidates make better decisions about choice of licensure institution. The data in Indiana were found to be fairly readily accessible, but no one had requested it and had done the time consuming analysis and interpretation of the data.

One challenge comes from the difficulty of tracking educational leaders across state lines. Clearly, some programs in Indiana were producing significant numbers of educational leaders for out-of-state markets, while other out-of-state programs may have been placing significant numbers of graduates into the Indiana market. At this point in the development of the data infrastructure of educational leadership preparation, single state studies seem daunting, however, national level studies and national level datasets should be explored in the coming years. While differing state regulations may make direct comparisons between programs difficult, there would be significant benefit if the capability existed to track educational leaders as they crossed state lines. Similarly, further study needs to be conducted on other leadership positions within schools. The authors were surprised by the variety and depth of the placement of newly licensed building-level leaders into these positions, but as leadership has been conceptually expanded to include teacher leadership and quasi-administrative positions such as academic deans, such distinctions need to be built into the data infrastructure.

While the linking of licensure information with K–12 school data in the datasets used for this study generated valuable information about administrators licensed in the previous five years, the researchers did not turn the data around and investigate the schools operated by administrators from different preparation programs. In an outcomes oriented era, such a study of the schools where school administrators are placed is a valuable investigation. The dataset used for this study, while only examining a five-year period, provided the necessary link between leadership preparation programs and K–12 schools to allow for multiple future studies. With the use of similar datasets that span career pathways, not only can we learn more about the schools where educational leaders choose to serve, but we may be able to begin to measure second order effects of leadership preparation on school-level leadership behaviors and student outcome measures, with the potential to delineate those school-level effects by licensure institution. But, while exploring the depths of these state licensure datasets remains an elusive future goal, researchers across the country can immediately engage in the type of production and landscape analysis presented here. As these studies proliferate, a more comprehensive picture of the field of educational leadership and the principalship will emerge and inform debates about the future of educational leadership.

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# Legislation, Financial Self-Interest, and Bond Election Success

Wesley D. Hickey and Vance Vaughn

Understanding bond election dynamics are important in the development of educational leaders, especially for aspiring superintendents. Bond elections often represent factors of community relations, state legislation, and voter self-interest. The factor of self-interest can often be influenced by legislation. The purpose of this study was to examine legislative influences on the self-interest of voters as measured through bond election “yes” votes. The data show that trends exist to support a shift in the balance for self-interest in property poor districts that are provided increased state assistance for bond payments and wealthy districts that are not subject to fund recapture requirements for bond taxation. This data may provide increased understanding for educational leaders regarding bond election processes.

## Legislation, Financial Self-Interest, and Bond Election Success

Bond elections are often important for superintendents. Buildings in many school districts are aging, and some superintendents have the challenge of educating students in an environment of increasing enrollment that creates the need for facilities. A superintendent is often expected to develop a bond election plan that obtains public support. This requires an understanding of the basic motivations of voters, as well as an understanding of legislation that may trigger positive responses. Educational leadership programs, in addressing bond election dynamics, may find value in addressing the importance of community relationships, legislation, and human self-interest.

Psychologists state that self-interest is an important factor in human motivation (Pinker, 2002). This suggests that bond elections, which request of voters to make long-term sacrifices for the good of many, may provide a potential measure of self-interest. Citizens vote to allow for an increase in taxes in exchange for better school facilities (Agron, 2006), which is in the interest of voters connected in a positive way to the school. Getting better facilities while minimizing the potential tax liability is of interest to most individuals who want to support the school, but there is always the balance between voters approving a measure that requires an increase in monetary support for the district versus keeping the money for personal use. A situation in which state policy provides increased financial support for bonds may change self-interest and increase support for these elections. This connects to the research questions for this study: What is the correlation between “yes” votes in bond elections and legislation designed to benefit certain districts based upon property wealth? Do trends in bond election

“yes” votes suggest that legislation is capable of tipping the balance of voter financial self-interest in favor of the school district?

Self-interest can be difficult to recognize because it is context specific. Self-interest is defined for the purpose of this research as the desire of the voter to get the greatest quantity or quality of resources for monetary expenditures. There is a natural interest in keeping money (through minimizing tax liabilities) for personal use. However, if the school district is able to get better facilities with minimal local tax funding or state aid, then the balance of self-interest may change to the approval of bond referenda.

Texas bond elections provide two possible measures of financial self-interest. Extremely poor schools may receive state funding support to provide a lower tax rate for the local citizens (Texas Education Code, 2006b); thus, there may be the perception of self-interest to vote for the bond elections to get better facilities with help from the government. Self-interest may also be measured in wealthy schools. In Texas, property rich schools must equalize funds for maintenance and operations taxes that exceed a set threshold with districts that are less wealthy (Texas Education Code, 2006a). This process is designed to provide relatively equal financial resources among school districts, but wealth equalization processes are not a part of bond payment (interest and sinking) taxes. Thus, a wealthy district is able to keep all taxes associated with bonds. This provides a potential change in self-interest because most districts are wealthy due to a large business or resources within the taxable region. The tax increase is minimized because the bulk of the wealth comes from these sources instead of individual taxpayers.

Superintendents analyze these laws and other factors associated with bond success. Recognizing trends in bond elections are important for superintendents in developing strategies for elections. The use of public school funds for bond election promotion is illegal, but superintendents that create a plan aligned with the self-interest of voters is important. Superintendents are not able to control factors of wealth, but awareness of benefits that occur as a result of legislation may impact an approach to communicating with voters. Furthermore, the data may provide insight into the effects of laws on educational equity, which will be important for state legislators and those who influence them.

### **Bond Election Processes**

A bond election is a process by which voters approve tax increases through the formal approval of specific referenda at the polls. The referenda must be designed for capital projects in the district; thus, maintenance and operations funds are not involved. This means that the project is not an ongoing expense to the district (Agron, 2006).

There are many timelines and technical requirements associated with bond elections, and most superintendents use lawyers and bond agents to keep the district in compliance. In addition, most strategies for bond election success use facility committees to provide for community feedback

and communication. Previous studies suggest that bond election strategies that fail to involve major stakeholders are often unsuccessful (Hickey, 2006). This is often due to the importance of communication.

The factors of communication and trust are difficult to measure quantitatively, but they tend to be the qualitative issues that create large fluctuations in voter approval of bond elections (Faltys, 2006; Hickey, 2006; Schrom, 2004). Community members need to feel as if school district leaders are honest and competent based on prior interactions. Relationships are important, and they are not developed overnight.

Relationships are developed in part by responding to the needs of others. Parents and general citizens relate to school issues that impact them (Hoyle, English, & Steffy, 1998). This self-interest is often a factor that creates both interest and support, and bond elections that are successful have changed the voter belief that their interest lies to keeping taxes low to an interest in supporting the school in capital improvement projects.

### **Bond Elections and Self-Interest**

Parents have an interest in issues related to their child (Pinker, 2002). An increased connection to a bond proposal occurs when part of it relates to the school in which the parent's child is enrolled. A self-interest strategy used by many districts is to include some component of the capital improvement project at every level of education. Connect to the self-interest motive of parents by having part of the bond money spent on the campus where their child is located, and there is a greater likelihood of support, regardless of whether the child is pre-school or high school. Any facility decisions that relate to this type of self-interest should come from the consensus of involved voters and not forced on the community (Kelly & Zieper, 2001).

Connecting with senior citizens is often more difficult than with parents of school age children. There is often less of a relationship between the school and this demographic, and the results are predictable. Many studies suggest older voters are less favorable of bond elections (Dismuke, 1994; Hickey, Linn, & Vaughn, 2008; Speer, 1993). This is likely due to an inadequate relationship with the schools, along with the perceived increase in tax rate that is believed to be against their self-interest. If the school district wants this demographic to vote in favor of the bond, a consistent building of relationships must occur that connects senior citizens to the educational processes of the district. When this happens, senior citizens are more likely to see the bond proposal as being in their self-interest.

A study on senior citizen voting (Tedin, Matland, & Weiher, 2001) suggests there is a way to change the balance of financial self-interest for this group. Senior citizens who are made aware of a tax freeze for individuals over 65 are much more likely to vote for a bond. These voters recognize good school facilities are a beneficial part of a community, and when the bulk of the taxes come from someone else, then their view of self-interest moves toward bond approval.

Tedin et al. (2001) also suggested that self-interest issues may occur

within racial categories. A largely white population in their research did not vote favorably as often for a school with a student enrollment that was heavily minority. This is not to suggest racist attitudes, but that there was a decrease in self-interest. Minority groups voted in favor of the bond in the majority minority study at disproportionate rates due to a strong self-interest of quality facilities for their racial demographic.

Discussions of self-interest are not to suggest that there are no altruistic voters. There probably are, but developing strategies that require this level of selflessness is not likely to be successful. One demographic group that appears to be voting regardless of self-interest is the educated. A study has shown that individuals with a Bachelor's degree or higher vote disproportionately in favor of bond elections (Hickey, et al., 2008). This trend does not suggest reasons, and a clear self-interest factor like children in school may be part of the influence. Even if the vote is due to recognizing the benefits of education, self-interest may be a factor. If education is seen as better for society, favorable votes are designed to improve the educational system, which improves the overall living environment for all, including the educated voters. Once again, self-interest may be a factor in getting bond support.

## Method

The study used a complete sample of bond elections held in Texas over a year-long period. There were a total of 200 districts analyzed, but 13 of these had incomplete data. Thus, 187 districts were included in the study. The data on bond election results (percentage of "yes" votes) and bond size was obtained from the Texas administrative website [Texasisd.com](http://Texasisd.com) (2008) and phone calls or emails to sample districts. The data on district property wealth and enrollment numbers were obtained from the Texas Education Agency (2007) website.

This study analyzed financial trends in bond elections through the means of "yes" votes and trends among district wealth. The data analysis for determining trends in this research was through a Pearson  $r$  bivariate correlation using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences software. The correlations were added to a scatterplot graph in order to provide a visual representation of the trend. The "yes" votes were correlated with different levels of wealth according to legislative thresholds that create financial incentives to approve a bond election. Traditionally, the poorest districts have received state assistance with a wealth level of \$185,000/Weighted Average Daily Attendance (WADA) and below (property poor districts). Medium property districts have a wealth level between \$185,00/WADA and \$305,000/WADA. Property wealthy districts have a wealth level over \$305,000/WADA. WADA takes into account the increased expense for certain enrollment populations, such as special education; thus, a student in a special population may be weighted to represent 1.35 students instead of 1 for funding purposes.

## Results

Property wealth is a measure of taxable value in the district per WADA. The districts in the sample varied with a range of \$22,336/WADA to \$1,984,622/WADA. Bond size is not as important as its relationship to the overall property value. The bond amount as a percentage of total district value ranged from 0.19% to 114%.

Voters in property poor districts ( $n = 97$ ) voted “yes” for a bond 62.3% of the time, as compared to 59.4% for medium property wealth districts ( $n = 49$ ) and 67.8% for property wealthy districts ( $n = 41$ ). Property poor districts passed 80.4% of bond elections, middle wealth districts passed at an 85.7% rate, and property rich had an 85.4% passing rate.

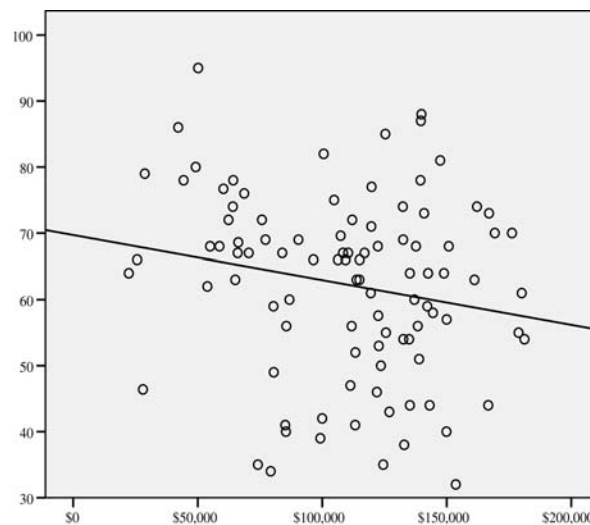
Property poor districts have a slight advantage for taxpayers in that more state aid is available. The trend for “yes” votes in property poor districts is shown in Figure 1.

This graph illustrates that “yes” vote percentages decrease ( $r = -0.19$ ;  $n = 97$ ) with property wealth within the range used for property poor districts.

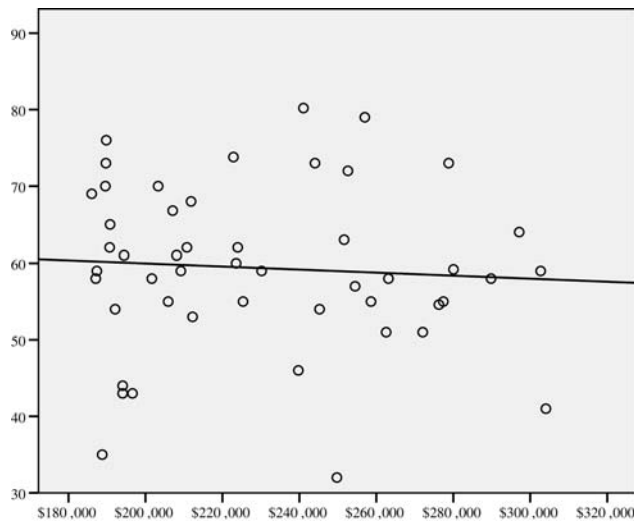
Medium property wealth districts often must pay for bond interest and sinking solely through local property taxes. Figure 2 shows the trend line for these districts.

This trend suggests a very slight downward “yes” vote percentage ( $r = -0.07$ ;  $n = 49$ ) for districts within the medium property value range.

Property wealthy districts are subject to wealth equalization for maintenance and operations taxes, but they are able to keep all local funds taxed to pay for bonds. Figure 3 shows the trend for property wealthy districts and “yes” vote percentage.



**Figure 1.** Trend line for “Yes” vote Percentage and property poor districts.

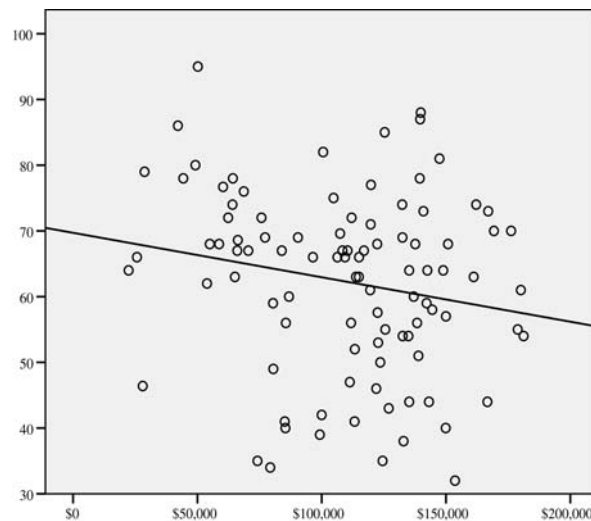


**Figure 2.** Trend line for “Yes” vote Percentage and medium property wealth districts.

The trend for property wealthy districts illustrates that there is a large increase in “yes” votes as property wealth increases ( $r = 0.39$ ;  $n = 41$ ).

### Discussion

Districts choose to hold bond elections due to a perceived need for capital improvements. The strategies used to educate district stakeholders may vary some according to the unique cultures among the voters. There are cit-



**Figure 3.** Trend line for “Yes” vote Percentage and property wealthy districts.

izens who are consistently in favor of any issue associated with education, and there are others who vote against most elections that increase taxes. The fact that any bond referenda approval results in a tax increase causes a financial sacrifice that may be difficult if the voter does not have feeling of self-interest in the matter.

There are numerous factors that may exist in any bond elections, which is why determining generalizable statements is difficult. Factors for determining approval may be qualitative issues such as personality conflicts with the superintendent and school board that cannot be aligned with quantitative measures. These are often related to a perceived lack of trust and communication among voters. Nevertheless, property wealth and the ability for the taxpayer to get the greatest financial benefit (a balance between personal and community benefit) out of a bond election measure may provide some measure of the impact of self-interest in the process.

Poor schools in Texas are more likely to receive state aid for interest and sinking payments associated with bond elections. These data suggest that property poor districts may have more support than medium property wealth districts. The property poor district "yes" vote percentage was 2.9% higher than those in the medium property wealth sample. In addition, the trend suggests that the less the property wealth in the district, the greater the voter support. This suggests that legislation designed to increase support for these districts is proving beneficial in tipping the balance of self-interest in favor of the schools.

There is much less of a trend with property poor districts than property wealthy ones. Property wealthy districts votes "yes" to bonds 8.4% more on average than medium property wealthy districts. The trend line is strong in showing more support as property wealth increased. This is not surprising because significant amounts of money can be raised in property wealthy districts with much lower tax rates. This occurs because legislation in Texas allows property wealthy districts to keep any money taxed for bonds, although there is a redistribution of wealth for other monies collected through taxes. This legislative decision is a clear advantage for property wealthy districts who want to make capital improvements.

These results suggest that government support for property poor districts, and policies that allow property wealthy districts to keep all bond funds, provide characteristics needed to change the balance of self-interest in favor of bond election support for school districts. Bond election strategies often include plans that respond to the desires of the voters. This is an attempt to create self-interest in the process, and as a result, increase approval rates in the bond election. The trends of this research suggest legislation may be a factor in voting according to the wealth of the district. Property wealth is not something that can be controlled by district leaders, but these data suggest the need to clearly educate voters to possible financial benefits to a bond passing, such as state aid or money retention.

Although these bond elections occurred in Texas, there are lessons from our data that may be transferred to bond election dynamics that other super-



intendents in other states may face. First, any state legislation related to public school bond repayment may have similar outcomes if there is a benefit for local voters. In addition, these data may make superintendents in all states more aware of circumstances within bond elections that provide for greater perceptions of self-interest. Voter awareness of factors related to self-interest may increase support.

These data are also important to state policy makers. Every district has multiple factors related to the bond process, but if legislation related to property wealth creates changes in voting behavior, legislators may want to analyze the impact. State policymakers have a responsibility to develop a financial system that does not create inherent inequity in the system. Understanding the trends related in wealth and legislative decisions provide the information needed to develop strategies for success at both the district and state level of government.

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# **Managing Yourself and Others for Personal and Organizational Satisfaction and Productivity: Critical Components in Contemporary Leadership Programs**

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This paper synthesizes research related to contemporary leadership stress and the personal coping needs or dispositions necessary to effectively deal with change and promote self-survival and organizational success in this contemporary era of dynamic change. Key individual dispositions that facilitate both personal and organizational satisfaction and productivity are analyzed and their implications for educational leaders, especially current and aspiring school superintendents, are reviewed. The results of three recent studies conducted by the authors in Delaware, Georgia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia are correlated with previously conducted research on the topic to reinforce the significance of attending to the personal needs of individuals engaged in change, including the change leaders themselves. The significance of incorporating these key dispositions into contemporary educational leadership preparation programs is also addressed.

## **Introduction**

The ability to survive the stress associated with contemporary educational leadership positions, especially the superintendency, requires that leaders develop their personal resiliency dispositions so that they are not “ground down” by the various people, events and ideas that constantly affect them. Recent research suggests that the amount of stress that educational leaders and their followers face is increasing and becoming very emotionally draining as well as physically disabling. It is significant for educational leaders to be knowledgeable about the research related to stress and to consider specific recommendations on improving individual resiliency for personal and organizational satisfaction and productivity.

## **Theoretical Framework**

### **Contemporary Leadership Stress**

Contemporary educational leaders are charged with the responsibility to re-

invent, reshape, and transform their respective school districts (Peterson & Short, 2001). They are expected to conduct most of their roles and duties in a transparent public manner. However, the contexts in which educational leaders work are continually impacted by various social, political, and economic factors that exert pressures on their leadership skills and affect them personally and professionally (Norton, 2005). A growing body of research (e.g., Cooper, Fusarelli & Carella, 2000; Author B & A +1; 2009; Fuller, 2003; Glass & Franceschini, 2007) has shown that school leaders, especially superintendents, encounter considerable stress in their work and it is directly related to the roles and responsibilities of their position. And, the amount of stress that leaders face is increasing and can become, “a disabling condition affecting behavior, judgment, and performance” (Glass & Franceschini, p. 47). Therefore, there is a need to provide current and aspiring educational leaders with information about the stress of leadership and how to manage it for their personal as well organizational satisfaction and productivity.

### **2008 Study of Mid-Atlantic Superintendents and Stress**

A 2008 quantitative study of superintendents in Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Virginia reconfirmed the significance of contemporary leadership stress and the need to provide current and aspiring educational leaders with more information about it and how to cope with it. The study examined the extent to which superintendents experienced stress as compared to a normative sample of executives; and, examined differences in stress, strain, and coping among groups of superintendents with respect to gender, age, and years of experience as a superintendent (Author B & A +1, 2009). The survey instrument used to collect data for the study was The Occupational Stress Inventory, Revised Edition (OSI-R) (Osipow, 1998). It consists of six subscales that assess different sources of stress in various occupational roles; as well as four subscales that examine different types of personal strain, or perceived difficulty that can result from stress; and an additional four subscales that assess various resources that can be utilized to cope with stress.

The survey was distributed to 300 superintendents and 117 (39%) usable surveys were returned. Participants included 40 females (34%) and 77 males (66%). Almost two-thirds of the superintendents indicated that they were between the ages of 50 and 59, and almost three-quarters of the participants indicated that they had been in their present position as superintendent for less than six years.

The mean differences between the superintendents and a normative sample of executives were compared to examine the extent that superintendents experienced excessive stress and strain as contemporary educational leaders. A series of t-tests were applied to the data to determine differences between the superintendent sample and the normative sample. Accordingly, superintendents experienced significantly higher sources of stress in the following categories: “Role Overload”, “Role Ambiguity”, “Role Responsibility” and “Interpersonal Strain” (Author B & A +1, 2009).

Table 1 shows the results of the t-tests between the superintendent group and the normative group.

The study also investigated differences in stress, strain, and coping among superintendents using a series of additional t-tests. Subsequently, it was determined that female superintendents experienced higher levels of “Role Overload” than did males as well as significantly higher levels of “Physical Strain”. Females also reported significantly less involvement in the “Use of Recreation” as a coping resource and were less likely to consider “Self-Care” as a coping strategy. The age of the superintendent was also a variable in this study. It was determined that younger superintendents (those under age 50 years of age) reported significantly higher levels of “Role Overload” and “Responsibility Stress” when compared to older superintendents (those at 50 years of age or higher). Younger superintendents also reported significantly higher levels of “Physical Strain” and “Psychological Strain”. In terms of years in their present position as superintendent, results showed significantly higher levels of “Role Overload”, “Role Responsibility” and “Interpersonal Strain” for the younger leaders. But, there were no significant differences between the groups with respect to the “coping” category scales (Author B & A +1, 2009).

Thus, this recent study reconfirmed that superintendents are particularly vulnerable to job stress related to their leadership role expectations such as unreasonable workloads and a lack of necessary resources to perform the job well, as well as to being given unreasonably high levels of responsibility for the performance of subordinates. Results also pointed to the particular difficulties for superintendents who are female, younger, and with less

**Table 1**  
Occupational Stress Inventory Comparison of Superintendent Sample.

OSI Scale Category	Superintendents	Normative Executives	t (2-tailed)
	Mean (SD) N=117	Mean (SD) N=184	
Role Overload	3.34 (0.74)	2.76 (0.70)	8.69*
Role Insufficiency	2.53 (0.84)	1.87 (0.64)	7.82*
Role Ambiguity	2.31 (0.81)	2.17 (0.66)	1.61
Role Boundary	2.23 (0.892)	2.31 (0.69)	-1.27
Role Responsibility	3.28 (0.50)	3.10 (0.66)	10.38*
Vocational Strain	1.67 (0.53)	1.86 (0.51)	2.83
Psychological Strain	2.04 (0.82)	2.10 (0.75)	-0.62
Interpersonal Strain	2.37 (0.63)	2.06 (0.58)	2.52*
Physical Strain	2.35 (0.90)	2.23 (0.79)	1.25
Recreation Coping	2.42 (0.82)	2.49 (0.63)	-0.81
Self-Care Coping	2.58 (0.73)	2.51 (0.62)	0.84
Social Support Coping	4.06 (0.97)	4.11 (0.79)	0.51
Rational/Cognitive Coping	3.57 (0.71)	3.58 (0.68)	-0.05

\* $p \leq 0.05$ .

time in the superintendency. Subsequently, there is definitely a need to provide current and aspiring educational leaders with this information so that they may better prepare themselves and their colleagues for the realities of contemporary educational leadership. Knowing how to cope with the inevitable stress associated with leadership is a key to personal and organizational satisfaction and productivity as well as survival!

### **Coping with Stress of Change**

Research about coping with stress during the past twenty-five years has identified five individual personal needs or dispositions that are associated with successful stress coping in a climate of pervasive flux (Csikszentmihaly, 1990; DePree, 1989; Glasser, 1990; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982; Author A +2, 2000; Stossel, 1992). Those five personal needs or dispositions are as follows: *challenge*, *commitment*, *control*, *creativity* and *caring* (Author A & B, 2007). Accordingly, each individual involved in dealing with potentially stressful changes must possess a sense of:

- *Challenges*—to see change as an opportunity, not a crisis;
- *Commitment*—to themselves, their families, and their organizations;
- *Control*—to believe, and act as if they can influence the course of change;
- *Creativity*—to envision optimal experiences with change and new options;
- *Caring*—to experience a nurturing attitude at home and at work.

The above five personal needs for effectively coping with change were also referenced as key “hardiness factors” of management personnel that contributed to the success of organizations classified as those companies that, “. . . have made the leap from good to great” (Collins, 2001, p. 82). This personal needs approach is consistent with effective change researchers who identify that, “Both thinking and feeling are essential, and both are found in successful organizations, but the heart of change is in the emotions. The flow of see-feel-change is more powerful than that of the analysis-think-change” (Kotter & Cohen, 2002, p. 2). And, leaders must focus on their own personal needs as well as those of their respective subordinates to make meaningful and sustainable changes. As amplified by the following: “Everyone must take responsibility for understanding the concerns that they and other people have about change, and they must also be willing to ask for what they need and be there for others in their time of need . . . Effective change is not something you do to people. It is something you do with them” (Blanchard & Waghorn, 200–201). This perception has been associated with leaders who sustain change in school contexts according to Fullan, “. . . they find well-being by making progress on problems important to their peers and of benefit beyond themselves” (Fullan 2005, p. 104).

### **Study of Georgia Educators Implementing the Performance Standards**

The significance of the personal coping dispositions or needs of: *challenge*, *commitment*, *control*, *creativity*, and *caring* was researched in a 2007 Georgia study about educators implementing a large-scale K–12 curriculum change initiative of the Georgia State Education Department known as Georgia Performance Standards (GPS). The quantitative survey used to collect data for this study contained fifty-five statements from personal, professional and organizational need categories identified in change literature. A total of 420 surveys were distributed to known GPS implementers throughout the state and 229 (54.5%) useable surveys were returned (Author A, 2009).

The sample rated their respective personal needs in facilitating the implementation of the Georgia Performance Standards (GPS) on a 1 to 5 point Likert scale. Key statistical procedures were applied to the data and it was determined that there were no significant differences in terms of the personal coping needs for this change based on the demographics of the sample. Thus, it was concluded, that no matter the age, gender, teaching experience, time spent implementing GPS, subject matter taught or class size made any significant difference on the value of the personal needs expressed by this sample (Author A, 2009, p.210).

The following were the rank order importance of the personal need categories as identified by this sample Caring (4.36), Creativity (4.14), Commitment (4.11), Control (4.10), and Challenge (3.98). The high aggregate mean scores of each of the five personal needs is illustrative of the significance of these needs to educators implementing major changes and coping with the associated stress.

Table 2 illustrates the degree of importance that respondents ascribed to specific personal need statements from each of the general need categories.

Therefore, educational leaders, especially superintendents of schools must be aware of the importance of the personal needs of their followers for coping with the impact of changes in their professional lives. Leaders need to remember that change is a process not an event, and is accomplished first by individuals, then by organizations (Hall & Hord, 2006). Leaders themselves should recognize the importance of these needs not only for their organizations as they implement changes but also for themselves as they are subjected to similar changes in their professional lives promulgated by various position related contextual factors and forces. And educational leaders, also, need to be aware that there are observable behaviors associated with change that are manifested by change agents who are personally associated with innovations as concisely identified by the following reflection: “Personal change is the way to avoid slow death. When we are continually growing, we have an internal sense of meaning and impact. We are full of energy and radiate a successful demeanor” (Quinn, 1996, p. 35). The acute continuous re-sharpening of the leader’s enthusiasm for change is definitely another key component of successful hardiness, resiliency and cop-

**Table 2**  
Rank Order of Georgia Educator Top 10 Specific Need Statements  
for Coping with Change.

Rank Order	Personal Need Category	GPS Survey Statement Concept	Mean
1	Caring	Risk without fear	4.47
2	Caring	Assistance in implementing change	4.33
3	Creativity	Ability to change GPS strategies	4.31
4	Caring	Change leaders demonstrate concern	4.27
5	Challenge	Seeking new ways to implement change	4.24
5	Control	Select degree of use of GPS products	4.24
7	Commitment	Ability to see "long-term" advantages	4.21
7	Control	Individual control of GPS products	4.21
9	Commitment	Personal commitment to GPS	4.16
9	Control	Modifying the use of GPS	4.16

ing (Henderson & Milstein, 1996). But, how prepared are our educational leaders to cope with the stress of leadership in contemporary America?

### **Mixed-Methods Study of School Superintendents in both Georgia and New York**

In 2006, a mixed-methods study of school superintendents in Georgia and New York was conducted to ascertain the specific issues that caused career stressful situations to develop and those resiliency behaviors that contributed to the superintendent's ability to overcome the trauma associated with being a professional victim (Author A & B, 2007a, p. 5). A total of 845 survey instruments were initially distributed to superintendents in both states and 492 (58.2%) were returned. The qualitative component of the study consisted of 30 "face-to-face" interviews with superintendents who had identified their willingness to participate and discuss their own professional victim experiences.

The key findings of the quantitative component of this study were that 28% of the superintendents indicated that they had encountered at least one of the experiences listed in the survey as a key indication of being treated as a "professional victim" in their position of superintendent of schools such as: being fired, forced to resign, mutual decision to leave, contract not renewed and sought legal advice.

In both states, the percentage of female superintendents responding positively to this series of questions was slightly higher than that of males (31% female, 28% male). Also, 29.4% of the superintendents who indicated a positive response to those "professional victim" related questions were in their first superintendency while 37.3% were in their second superintendency. Subsequently, the probability of experiencing the professional victim syndrome (being fired, forced to resign, mutual decision to leave, contract not renewed and /or need legal advice) increases if the superintendent is female and in her first or second superintendency.



A second conclusion is that superintendents, both current and aspiring, should be very cognizant of the politics and relationships between them and the individual members of the Board of Education as well as the Board as a whole. The qualitative interviews revealed that these superintendents were often victimized by: (a) board members who had personal agendas and vendettas; (b) the changing makeup of the board—particularly within the first year or so of the superintendent’s tenure in the district; and, (c) the political maneuverings of certain members of the community who had power and influence with individual members of the Board of Education (Authors A & B, 2008).

The third conclusion relates to the emotional and physical toll of such an experience upon a superintendent. Because of the nature of the “professional victim” crisis, superintendents often tried to deal with this by becoming isolated from family, friends and colleagues, and several individuals began to experience changes in their general life-style as well.

The final conclusion relates to the preparation of the superintendent as he/she faces a crisis. The two most significant qualitative findings related to the significance of superintendents keeping their core beliefs and values at the forefront before, during and after the crisis. First, the chances of surviving a professional victim crisis depends on whether or not the person has core beliefs and values as a foundation, and whether or not, he/she is persistent in using them throughout the experience. Secondly, superintendents need to ensure that a network exists of family, friends and trusted colleagues, including a trusted mentor and a personal lawyer, who are available to provide personal support. It was apparent that those who did have a commitment to their core beliefs as well as such a support network were able to survive the crisis better than those who did not (Authors A & B, 2008).

Subsequently, the researchers developed COMPASS, a leadership guide for educational leaders, especially school superintendents. COMPASS is an acronym or mnemonic for the following key dispositions to cope with the stress of contemporary educational leadership: Composure, Optimism, Mentoring, Principles, Awareness, Support, and Self-Actualization.

COMPASS is based on previously cited stress research related to the personal needs or dispositions for coping with change as well as the above 2006 study (Authors 1 & 2, 2008, p. 171–176):

- *Composure*—resilient leaders maintain their personal and professional control and commitment.
- *Optimism*—resilient leaders continuously display a balance between being optimistic and a sense of reality.
- *Mentoring*—resilient leaders have mentors and become mentors.
- *Principles*—resilient leaders possess a ‘never give up’ attitude and work tirelessly to accomplish their personal and professional missions in an ethical manner.
- *Awareness*—resilient leaders maintain a vigilance regarding their personal and professional contexts.

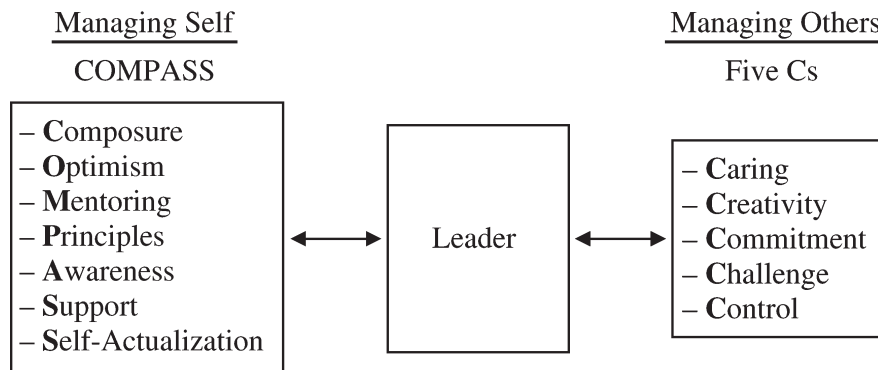
- *Support*—resilient leaders know that “family matters” and develop a nurturing support system of family and close friends.
- *Self-actualization*—resilient leaders possess the ability to effectively cope with and eventually learn from career crises. They believe that they will continue to grow and be successful.

Thus, it is essential for leaders to learn and apply the above dispositions to reinforce the coping and resiliency skills necessary to survive and effectively lead in this age of focused educational accountability and intense public pressure.

### Summary

Educational leaders, especially superintendents of schools, are constantly faced with personal and organizational change in this initial decade of the twenty-first century. They need to keep their leadership COMPASS working and comprehensively practice the dispositions of challenge, commitment, control, creativity and caring with their followers on a regular basis to enhance survival and to promote their personal enjoyment and organizational success (Authors 1 & 2, 2007) as illustrated in Figure 1:

Several personal characteristics of resilient people consistent with the above figure have been enumerated in coping-resiliency literature as, “. . . good decision making skills, assertiveness, impulse control, and problem solving skills as well as sense of humor, internal focus of control, autonomy, positive view of personal future, self-motivation, personal competence and feelings of self worth.” (Henderson and Milstein, 1996, p. 9). Moreover, researchers contend that improving resiliency, via coping strategies, is a process more than a list of traits and it can be learned (Higgins, 1994). Therefore, current superintendents and/or those aspiring to the position can learn how to survive in leadership positions and help others successfully cope with changes.



**Figure 1.** Managing Yourself and Others for Personal and Organizational Satisfaction and Productivity.

The works of Schon (1983) and Smith (1995) have contributed to the knowledge, understanding and application of learning, reflection and action as key components of coping and resiliency. These studies support the position that leaders in education who have reflective thinking skills are more adept at recognizing that problems and difficult decisions as solvable, providing a foundation for effective planning, and helping the leader address the issues of fear and isolation when it comes to decision-making (Schon, 1983). Smith (1995) suggests that reviewing events can enhance the practice of effective leadership by avoiding situations that were not handled properly in the past, and will allow leaders as practitioners to cope with situations that may be unique to leadership itself. Schon (1987) advocates the idea of reflective leadership in which the leader is reflecting and being mentored throughout the entire process.

Reflection is often used as a method to mentor and support leaders. Reflection is essential for the leader to think about previous actions, improve one's leadership abilities, and cope with the unknown consequences of decisions. In particular, reflective thinking about coping strategies will allow superintendents to identify the gaps in their knowledge base and practices, including but not limited to decision-making and problem solving. Beatty (2000) reports that there exists a climate of "denial of emotionality" (p. 335) within the educational leadership environment, and this can have the effect of having leaders "limiting the potential for professional renewal and synergy" (p. 335). While it might be that reflective practices as coping strategies to buttress resiliency may be natural in all humans, to a certain degree; perhaps, a more formal understanding and application of reflective leadership may help to alleviate the stress and anxiety of being a leader in today's educational environment. According to Lao Tzu, "If you understand others, you are smart; if you understand yourself, you are enlightened" (2005). Subsequently, it is recommended that reflective leadership should be an integral part of leadership preparation and development.

But, Gosling and Mintzberg (2004) propose, "Study after study has shown that leaders work at an unrelenting pace, that their activities are characterized by brevity, variety, and discontinuity, and that they are strongly oriented to action, and actually dislike reflective activities" (p. 151). Thus, deeper questions may need to be posed: Do educational leaders have the knowledge and understandings, skills, and dispositions to reflect adequately for personal and organizational success? In addition, if so, do they have the time, support and resources to use reflection to improve their leadership skills and abilities as well as to enhance their resiliency for coping with the inevitable stresses of contemporary leadership? Researchers such as Ackerman, Bolman and Deal, Greenleaf, Patterson, Sergiovanni, and Wheatley are but a few who suggest the importance of reflection and reflective leadership for personal and organizational satisfaction and productivity. The issue, thus, is not a lack of research available to help our educational leaders cope with the emotional stress of being a principal or superintendent, but how often are leaders-both current and aspiring-ex-

posed to the theories and applications of being reflective and of being a reflective leader for their personal well being and that of their followers?

Bolman and Deal (1995) suggest that: “Leaders who have lost touch with their own soul, who are confused and uncertain about their core values and beliefs inevitably lose their way or sound an uncertain trumpet” (p. 11). It is critical, therefore, that if superintendents and principals are to provide the necessary leadership to ensure that no child is left behind, then it is just as critical that those same leaders are provided with opportunities, resources and support to better understand themselves and the dimensions of educational leadership in the 21st century. Hopefully, the theories, practices and application of reflective leadership focusing on personal needs including resiliency development will help to resolve the shortage of educational leaders and ensure that no educational leader-now or in the future-is ever left behind.

Therefore, it is the opinion of the researchers that much has to be done in the preparation of aspiring superintendents and in the support of current superintendents in both areas. Higher educators, policy makers, superintendents’ associations and boards of education associations need to re-examine preparation programs and emphasize providing both aspiring and current leaders with opportunities and resources to learn how to persevere, survive and succeed. Education needs superintendents and principals who understand themselves and have the knowledge, skills and dispositions to survive and continue to lead their respective organization from “good to great”.

Thus, these three recent studies are important to educational leaders and those involved in their preparation because they facilitate the awareness of the significance of these personal needs or coping dispositions. The studies also illustrate that leaders must be prepared to provide for these needs in appropriate ways according to the demographics of their respective educational contexts for personal and organizational satisfaction and productivity. And, it is critical that leadership preparation programs incorporate more comprehensive and intensive studies of these leadership and followership coping needs and resiliency attributes for all aspiring school administrators.

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# No More Silos: A New Vision for Principal Preparation

Frederick Buskey and Kathleen Topolka-Jorissen

This paper shares the evolution of an online Master of School Administration program from a traditional program of single courses (e.g. finance, law) to a program of scaffolded courses integrated with field experiences and designed to prepare leaders grounded in an ethics-driven vision of school leadership. The redesign process included reviews of the literature on ethical leadership (Fullan, 2003; Pellicer, 2007; Starratt, 2004), school leadership that works (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005), and recent thought on preparation programs (Hess & Kelly, 2005; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Murphy, 2001; SREB, 2006; Young, Fuller, Brewer, Carpenter, & Mansfield, 2007). Program development involved university faculty, practicing teachers and administrators, and candidates in the old masters program. This paper presents an overview of strategies used in the redesign process and links strategies to specific outcomes.

## No More Silos: A New Vision for Principal Preparation

Criticism of educational leadership programs is nothing new (Leaders for America's Schools, 1987). However, the scrutiny and criticism of such programs has increased significantly in recent years (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005; Murphy, 2001). Countering the criticism of traditional approaches to leadership preparation, researchers are reaching consensus on practices that hold the greatest promise for preparing effective school leaders (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Waters & Grubb, 2004; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Therefore, those in higher education who take on the task of redesigning programs will have little problem finding research-based practices to consider.

What they will rarely find, however, are descriptions of the internal processes of successful program redesign. In fact, the conscious or unconscious reluctance to engage in the process of change within stereotypically intransigent higher education faculty may be a greater cause of the lack of change in this field than knowledge of the changes that are needed. In tracing the process of program redesign at Western Carolina University, we intentionally weave a narrative of process and product strategies that may provide a model for others working toward a vision of a powerful leadership preparation program. Specifically, this paper addresses the questions:

1. What strategies were critical in influencing the design process or outcome?
2. How did critical strategies influence the design?
3. What lessons in this effort may be useful to other faculties?

## Stages

Hackmann and Wanat (2007) documented historical examples of how external forces, including mandates, have influenced program redesign. However, as several authors point out, redesign for the sake of compliance usually results in documents designed to illustrate programmatic changes rather than in actual systemic, sustainable change (Hackmann & Wanat, 2007; Hess & Kelly, 2007). In Western's case, although there certainly were external forces, the faculty perceived the catalysts as more internal than external (Buskey and Jacobs, 2009). This section gives an overview of the history of Western Carolina University's (WCU) principal licensure programs. It also explores the catalysts that led to the redesign effort, including issues with program structures, new faculty, the move to an online program, and concerns raised by and about the program's students.

### History

In the early 1990s the North Carolina State Legislature eliminated all school administration programs in the state. Universities were required to redesign their programs and apply for permission to offer the Masters in School Administration (MSA). The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (NCDPI) specified numerous requirements for the degree, including a year-long internship. In addition, an "add-on" principal licensure for advanced degree holders was eliminated. WCU's principal licensure program dated to this time, and the program remained largely unchanged until the spring of 2005 when the program moved online at the request of local school superintendents. The program was and remains North Carolina's only fully online principal licensure program.

Early in 2006, the North Carolina State Board of Education responded to predictions of a principal shortage by reauthorizing the add-on license for principals and allowing universities to define their programs with few stipulations. WCU hastily designed and implemented a Principal Add-on Licensure program, which began operation in spring, 2007. In the fall of 2006 NCDPI replaced the Interschool Leadership Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards with a set of standards developed by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction—The 21st Century Standards for School Executives (NCDPI, 2006). In July 2007, the North Carolina legislature passed and the governor signed House Bill 536, mandating a redesign of all principal licensure programs in the state (General Assembly of North Carolina, 2007).

### Dissonance

In August of 2007, prior to becoming aware of HB 536, Western's MSA

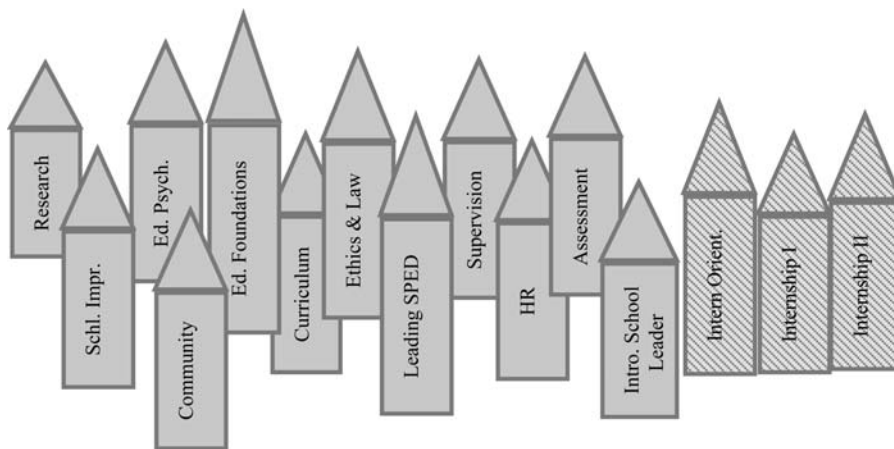


faculty decided to redesign the program. The decision was prompted by faculty changes, systems problems resulting from growing online enrollments, and experiences and feedback of students enrolled in the program. These factors are discussed briefly below but were examined more closely by Buskey and Jacobs (2009).

Faculty turnover in the WCU MSA Program was one factor that contributed to the redesign process. The years 2002–2007 were filled with faculty retirements and transfers. By fall, 2007, each of the four tenure-track MSA faculty members had been at Western for less than two years. The faculty readily questioned the course requirements and sequencing they had inherited (Figure 1). None of the new faculty members exhibited any territorial claims over curricular areas, and all had recently transitioned into their positions from school and district leadership roles. This critical mass of faculty with common backgrounds and dispositions became a critical factor in the redesign process and product.

Not only did the new faculty question the curricular foundation for the program, but also they experienced implementation stress, as the program shifted from a face-to-face delivery system to an online system. A rapid exponential enrollment increase was the most significant unintended consequence of the transition to a completely online program in 2005. Program enrollment increased from 25 in fall, 2004, to 120 in fall, 2007, and 220 in fall, 2008. The program had always maintained rolling admissions, but the constant flood of new students overwhelmed the existing methods of tracking and advising. The increased demand that online teaching placed on faculty time, compounded by continually growing advising challenges became another factor in a gradually shifting vision of the MSA program.

The faculty might have been willing to continue the status quo, but they were moved by the stories and feedback of the program's students. While



**Figure 1.** Old program consisting of individual course silos and three internships.

feedback was generally positive, many students relayed stories of the ineffective leadership of school administrators they knew and with whom they worked. Some students found themselves emulating poor leadership, consciously or unconsciously. The faculty saw three types of leadership problems: ethical failings in which leaders took harmful or illegal shortcuts to address needs or respond to accountability pressures; the tendency of leaders to try to “sell” personal projects rather than to work collaboratively to address school problems; leaders’ failure to see and address issues of social injustice. As such, the faculty began to discuss how to prepare a generation of leaders skilled in these areas.

### **Beginnings: Critical Decisions**

The first official re-design meeting took place at a weekend retreat in fall 2007. In addition to the four MSA faculty members, the department head (and previous MSA coordinator), Ed. D. coordinator, and a senior member of the department faculty attended. These additional faculty members were very engaged and influential in the early and middle phases of the redesign process, during which the conceptual foundation of the program was defined and the content and structures were developed and aligned.

The work completed at the retreat laid the foundation for both the objectives and the process of the redesign. The faculty coalesced around four critical decisions, agreeing on a set of objectives, the extent of the redesign, core program beliefs, and a method for identifying key content.

### **Objectives**

After a short discussion, the faculty identified four important objectives:

1. Design and implement a program that would dramatically improve the ability of principal licensure candidates to engage in leadership for positive change in schools
2. Incorporate current research on administration preparation programs
3. Address but not be limited by North Carolina’s 21st Century Standards for School executives
4. Comply with House Bill 536

In regard to the fourth objective, the faculty took a major departure from both the intent of the Bill and the traditional method of program redesign. House Bill 536 specifically uses the term “redesign,” although Department of Public Instruction officials would later emphasize that programs were expected to do more than “rename courses” (personal conversation, October, 2008). The first critical decision the MSA faculty faced was whether to adjust and adapt the old program or to start from scratch. It took the faculty about ten minutes of discussion to decide to jettison the old program and begin from nothing. In making this decision, faculty members were explicit about their desire to dream and to begin with the assumption that anything was possible.

**Mission vs. Mantra**

Once the decision was made to start from scratch, faculty started dreaming about what they wanted the new program to be. Faculty thought that a mission statement would focus the design work and began by defining what each member thought was most important in the preparation of school leaders. All persons wrote 3–5 words that they felt represented the call of a preparation program. Consensus on key ideas and words were fashioned into a mission statement, “The purpose of our program is to help others develop leadership capacity that will ensure successful learning environments for each student.” The revisioning team sat in silence, looking at a bland, generic statement that failed to capture the true spirit of the faculty’s intent.

Encouraged by one of the newest members of the faculty, the group watched a video on creating a mantra (Kawasaki, n.d.) and then quickly developed a five-word phrase that captured their collective ideals: “Live your courageous leadership journey”. This was later amended to: “Live your leadership journey courageously”. Each of these words carried specific and shared meanings that guided future development of the program. The mantra had a profound impact on the redesign process, because it served as an anchor for future periods of debate, drift, and stagnation.

**Interpreted Experience**

The final critical decision addressed how content and structures would be identified for the program. Faculty agreed to a loosely structured three-stage process. The initial stage involved outlining the content and structure based on individually interpreted experiences. Each faculty member brought to the table unique experiences, and personal and professional knowledge. Among the shared values was a commitment to include student voices in the form of written feedback. After building an outline of the program, the faculty decided to compare program features with recommendations in the literature, conduct a standards audit, and consult with practicing school administrators.

**Content and Structure**

The faculty balanced considerations of program structure and program content. Elements of structure and content informed each other and received alternating focus. Initially, faculty developed a draft structure, separating courses that served as the foundation of a degree in an educational field from specific principal preparation courses. The faculty planned to include these courses in the redesign process at some point, but the demands of the core leadership program redesign overwhelmed the initial intentions, and the degree courses were omitted from future conversations.

Familiarity with the best practices literature (e.g., Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007), led the faculty to agree on a cohort model and continuous internships linking course work and field experience as preferred components of the delivery system. They also explored struc-

1st Semester	2nd Semester	3rd Semester	4th Semester	5th Semester	6th Semester	7th Semester
Integrated and sustained research			Leadership Intro.	The Visible	The Hidden	The Possible
				Self 1	Self 2	Self 3
People 1	People 2	People 3				
Field Experience				Duties of the Season		
			Internship			

**Figure 2.** Redesign based on discrete themes.

turing the program around discrete courses focused on understanding culture, self, people and seasonal duties (Figure 2). A program structure that began with what is visible in schools and progressed through the hidden to the possible emerged as a sequence within which themes could be developed in depth.

After exploring these tentative structures, faculty generated a comprehensive list of 77 things that assistant principals needed to know and be able to do. The faculty specifically addressed assistant principal needs because of the common practice in North Carolina of moving teacher leaders and newly-licensed leaders into assistant principal positions before promoting them to a principalship.

As the faculty worked to bring big ideas into the form of a defined program, they also wrestled with how to infuse the mantra values into that program. A program rubric emerged based on previous attempts to differentiate applicant essays and to detailing six leadership imperatives with a five-point scale (see appendix A). The rubric foci, students, change, leadership, ethics, action, and personal growth supported the ideas central to the mantra.

The “77 things” were grouped into themes and semesters, and the faculty decided to create a series of four core leadership courses. To address the research-based imperative for selective admissions, the faculty integrated an “admission to candidacy” screening process in the first core course. Students lacking in areas of the program rubric would be denied admission to candidacy and redirected into a targeted support program. The faculty divided pieces of each area among four semesters based on relationships among the pieces to arrive at four semester themes of *Taking Stock (visible)*, *Setting Goals (hidden)*, *Piloting Change*, and *Courageous Improvement (possible)*. These would eventually become the four core-course sequence shown in Figure 3.

### Structure

In a marathon meeting in late January, each core faculty member brought one theme (Relationships, Instruction, Management, or Culture) roughed out into a linear learning progression. The four themes were rearranged into six with the addition of Change, and Process/Communication skills. Throughout February and March the ideas were flushed out and condensed into an executive summary. The summary was shared with a selected group of current and former students, principals, and a larger group of department faculty members. Minor adjustments were made to the plan based on the feedback.

### Deadlines

In April the executive summary was shared with the Executive Director of the State Board of Education. The faculty sought permission to implement the program as a pilot in the fall of 2008, and permission was granted. The faculty developed draft syllabi and began the process of shepherding the new program through the university approval process. In June and July the faculty met twice to finalize the content, readings, and design of the introductory core course. In August of 2007, 13 students met face-to-face in Hickory, North Carolina for a Friday and Saturday orientation. On the following Monday they met again online and the first cohort began traveling on a unique journey.

## Lessons and Implications

The successful redesign has come from the collective willingness to: (1) *dump* a traditional long-standing program in order to escape the constraints on conceptualizing something truly new; (2) *dream* about the possibilities that could come from creating a program that would address what faculty have learned from the research, their students and school partners, and their own observations; and (3) *define* a meaningful program through long hours of debate, consensus building and design. These critical strategies had far-reaching effects on both the process and the product of the redesign effort.

### Dump

The initial decision to dump the old program and start from scratch was



**Figure 3.** New program sequence showing foundations block and articulated core leadership courses with integrated internships.

probably the most consequential single decision made in the entire process. Dumping the old program had both concrete and symbolic importance. In concrete terms, we were not tied to previous structures, content, or methods. This allowed for discussions to be guided by faculty and student knowledge, values, and experiences as opposed to program history.

Symbolically, the decision to jettison the old program was a decision to move into uncharted waters and not to be limited by what we knew about traditional preparation programs in general, not just the old program at Western. The pressures of commitment, time, and risk countered the freedom granted by the decision to dump. Though these factors were not openly discussed, they were felt throughout the redesign process.

The decision to dump the old program was made easier by the newness of the faculty, and their lack of investment in the old program's content and design. Politically and culturally, few programs may have this option. Nevertheless, the option should be discussed. The simple exercise of exploring the pros and cons of dumping versus redesigning may help build common understanding and help identify common (and disparate) values. For Western's faculty, committed to meeting the needs of local populations, the decision to start from scratch was liberating and foundational to the outcomes.

### **Dream**

The decision to dream was also critical to developing Western's unique program. Articulating and sharing a common set of values that became embodied in a powerful program mantra bonded the faculty and created a sense of commitment. Dreaming helped faculty focus on developing an ideal program as opposed to a compliant one. The deep understanding and shared purpose allowed future discussions to focus on the "how" because the "what" was known. One faculty member later captured the importance of the intersection of collaboration and values when she exclaimed, "The euphoria and sense of total agreement when we 'uncovered' our mantra . . . I loved my colleagues and was proud to be part of the group." The faculty values became a defacto set of program standards that served to set a high bar for the design. These program standards focused on ideals as opposed to minimal standards, and, consequently, the redesign process focused on building an ideal program, not one that would meet only minimal criteria.

Educational leadership faculty who are committed to improving schools for young people, and who have expertise and rich experiences will find themselves limited in designing a program to achieve minimal compliance standards. By contrast, designing a program focused on shared values and aspirational levels is both intellectually stimulating and personally fulfilling.

### **Define**

Defining from scratch both the content and structure of the program proved to be enriching as well as frustrating. Faculty had different learning and thinking styles, and some faculty had difficulty with the wide-openness of

the task. For example, one faculty member noted that, “I always need a conceptual model, so it was a challenge to build the content if I didn’t have some idea of how it was going to be structured.” This faculty member also expressed one of the hardest challenges when she shared that she had, “some difficulty developing a program out of our collective experience” because of a lack of specific data on which to base decisions. Another member explained that, “the form was always in my mind as we discussed content.” Faculties opting to develop everything from scratch should be prepared for a lengthy process and times of monotony. Norms of collegial support, including conflict resolution, humor, and compromise are essential.

On the positive side, defining resulted in a unique program in which faculty members were invested in every course, not only the one(s) they might teach. Defined content can be specifically organized for the delivery method of the program (a hybrid model for Western) and for the unique needs of the local schools. Finally, faculty members can give voice and contribute to the design relying on their own ethical orientations, experiences, and knowledge.

### Summary

Even in an era of mandates and directives, efforts to redesign educational programs do not have to be exercises in compliance. Whether the decisions are made consciously with discussion and debate, or subconsciously through simple acquiescence, educational leadership faculty have choices in how to approach the redesign process. Dumping, dreaming, and defining allow faculty to take back the process and infuse program design with both professional and personal meaning. In the end, every program will determine the most appropriate course of action to meet their unique contexts. Whatever course of action you choose, we at Western Carolina University urge you to live your leadership journey courageously (see Figure 4).

Live Your Leadership Journey Courageously				
	Demonstrates Interest	Emerging Knowledge	Emerging Application	Artistic
<b>Students</b>	-Students ignored	-Students addressed	-Students concerns addressed	-Students at the heart of thinking
<b>Change</b>	-Change is Stagnant	-Change is addressed	-Change as a process	-Change as a complicated deep process
<b>Leadership</b>	-Leads from Isolated reaction	-Leads from Isolated reflection	-Leads a group	-Leads collaboration
<b>Ethics</b>	-Ethics as a lingo	-Ethics as an opinion	-Ethics as informed judgment	-Ethics as informed judgment in light of local situation
<b>Action</b>	-Action as compliance	-Action motivated by reaction	-Action to solve a problem	-Creative action to fashion something positive
<b>Personal Growth</b>	-Growth is actively closed	-Growth is passively open	-Growth is actively questioning	-Growth is actively searching

**Figure 4.**

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