



Journal of Scholarship & Practice

Volume 1, No. 4

Research and Best Practices That Advance the Profession of Educational Administration

Winter 2005

Table of Contents

A Message from the Editor 1

Board of Editors 2

Articles:

Developing Policy for Part-Time School
Administration Faculty 3

Theodore J. Kowalski, Ph.D.

Restructuring an Educational Leadership
Program Using Action Research 8

*Wanda Maulding, Ed.D., and Ronald A. Styron Jr.,
Ed.D.*

Voices from the Field: What Principals Say
About Their Work 13

*Rosemary T. Taylor, Ph.D., and Debra Touchton,
Ph.D.*

Articles of Best Practice:

Rethinking Opening Day 15

Matthew King, Ed.D.

How to Stop Dealing with the Same Types of
Problems Day After Day, Part 1 17

Gary Martin, Ed.D.

Book Review:

*Educational Leadership: Knowing the Way,
Showing the Way, and Going the Way* 22

William J. Leary, Ed.D.

Author Guidelines 23

A Message from the Editor

Frederick Dembowski

Lynn University

The lead article by Professor Theodore Kowalski has its focus on the adjunct professor. A large proportion of the courses in educational administration programs are taught by adjuncts but relatively little effort is expended on nurturing this valuable resource and using adjuncts to their full potential. Kowalski reviews the current use of adjunct professors and offers guidance in developing a policy to guide their use.

The Maulding and Styron article presents a model for using action research to guide an educational leadership program. This model was enacted by their department to revise all of the degree programs that they offer. They conclude by stating that their department “practice what it preaches” in terms of shared decision making and consensus building in developing these programs.

The third article, by Taylor and Touchton, discusses the results of principal focus groups. The study, sponsored by the University Council for Educational Administration, involved having a group of principals meet to discuss how they spend their time and what

(continued on page 2)

Board of Editors

AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice

Editor

Frederick L. Dembowski, *Lynn University*

Associate Editor

Judi Cinéas, *Lynn University*

Editorial Review Board

Charles M. Achilles, *Seton Hall University, Eastern Michigan University*

Phyllis L. Amick, *Indiana University – Purdue University*

Al Azinger, *Illinois State University*

Theodore Creighton, *Executive Director, NCPEA Sam Houston State University*

Daniel Drake, *Cleveland State University*

Randy Dunn, *Southern Illinois University – Carbondale*

Judith A. Kerrins, *California State University – Chico*

Charles E. Kline, *Purdue University*

Bill Konnert, *Kent State University*

Theodore J. Kowalski, *University of Dayton*

T.C. Mattocks, *Superintendent of Schools, Bellingham Public Schools*

George E. Pawlas, *University of Central Florida*

Paul M. Terry, *University of South Florida*

Thomas Valesky, *Florida Gulf Coast University*

Published by the

American Association of School Administrators

801 N. Quincy St.

Suite 700

Arlington, VA 22203

Visit the AASA website at

www.aasa.org.

A Message from the Editor

(continued from page 1)

they recommend to improve educational administration preparation programs. The principals in this focus group believe that “being a principal is an honor and a privilege, even an adventure!”

The next two articles focus on “Best Practices.” The King article discusses what a superintendent could do to energize the faculty on opening day. He has used a very creative approach to developing the opening day speech—and keeps the teachers guessing! He believes that the superintendent should not be the focal point of opening day, but to give teachers the opportunity to share their “stories” with their colleagues.

In part 1 of his 2 part commentary series, Professor Gary Martin provides a discussion based upon the professional literature and his experience on what some of the important issues that professors should convey to their students. With this current national focus on developing the knowledge base of research and best practices in educational administration, Martin’s article provides “food for thought.”

Professor William Leary provides a review of the 2004 Yearbook published by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA). That organization has reenergized itself and grown from 250 to 800+ members recently. The Yearbook has a focus on the knowledge base in educational administration with sections on both research based articles and best practices. Leary holds that the Yearbook provides readers with information on “many of the core assumptions of academics and practitioners” and states that it is useful to get “back to the basics” in educational administration. Good advice from this veteran superintendent/professor!

Developing Policy for Part-Time School Administration Faculty

Theodore J. Kowalski, Ph.D.
Kuntz Family Chair in Educational Administration
University of Dayton
Dayton, Ohio

Abstract

This inquiry is an analysis of the trend toward infusing practitioners into the preparation of school administrators. Motives for increasing the number of part-time employees in higher education are identified and specific problems associated with the deployment of these instructors are discussed. The argument is made that the merits of this trend depend on the extent to which department policy addresses adjunct faculty employment, deployment and development in relation to a reform vision and strategy. Essential policy considerations related to involving practitioners are recommended.

Since the early 1980s, part-time instructors have become much more prevalent in school administration preparation programs (Shakeshaft, 2002). General explanations for this trend have ranged from reducing enrollment instability risks to managing budget reductions to improving program quality (Beem, 2002; Fogg, 2001). In educational administration specifically, the pattern of deploying current or former practitioners as temporary instructors also has been linked to two pressing needs: increasing clinical education (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2001; Jackson, 2001) and making instruction more practice-based (Hart, 1999; Kowalski, 2005). Although the potential for adjunct and clinical faculty to produce program improvement in professional schools is axiomatic, information about the actual deployment of these instructors provide ample reasons for deans, department chairs and regular faculty to be cautious. For example, recruiting, hiring, orientation and enculturation practices among and within universities have been found to be inconsistent (Reid, 1996) and a reliance on part-time professors has often resulted in preparation programs being understaffed to the point that non-classroom responsibilities get ignored or are unfairly relegated to the few remaining regular faculty (Shakeshaft, 2002).

Two issues related to deploying part-time faculty in school administration programs are addressed here. One is a summary of potential problems and the other is measures that can eliminate or at least reduce the negative effects of these pitfalls. The purpose is to provide a framework for setting policy regarding employment practices for non-tenure eligible faculty.

Perspectives on Adjunct Faculty

Our understanding of the deployment of part-time school administration instructors is shaped by both general employment trends and demographic clarifications. Between 1993 and 1998, 40 percent of the colleges and universities reported cutting the number of full-time faculty positions, and a good portion of these institutions also reported an increase in the employment of adjunct instructors (Fogg, 2001). During the 1990s, approximately 42 percent of all college faculty were employed part-time or in non-tenure eligible positions (Wilson, 2001); this figure is projected to increase to 55 percent by the year 2010 (Schuster, 1998). One reason is that part-time instructors have been and remain a source of inexpensive labor (Fulton, 2000) both because their salaries are comparatively much lower than full-time faculty and because they usually receive no costly fringe benefits (Cox, 2000).

The trend toward reducing tenured faculty has arguably affected all university instructional units. Focusing directly on colleges of education, Arthur Wise, president of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, asserted that economic efficiency (e.g., lowering faculty costs) and managerial accommodations (e.g., reducing uncertainty about staffing needs) continue to be primary reasons for this staffing pattern (Beem, 2002).

With respect to demographic clarifications, the title of adjunct traditionally has been given to practitioners employed full-time outside the university and teaching in the university on a part-time basis. Today, however, the title has become more generic to include instructors holding temporary full-time or part-time appointments. Some university policy manuals actually treat the terms *adjunct* and *part-time* as synonymous. Therefore, clarifications about

part-time faculty in school administration are warranted. As used here, the title refers only to the traditional definition.

School Administration Adjunct Faculty

Literally hundreds of articles, books and position papers have been written on the topic of adjunct professors, many of them focusing on employer and employee abusive behavior (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). The literature pertaining to full-time adjunct faculty has been especially negative, with terms like *exploitation* (e.g., National Education Association, 1988) and *gross injustice* (e.g., Twigg, 1989) being used copiously. Although these critiques account for a high percentage of articles written about adjunct faculty, they are only partly relevant to school administration. Consider just four conditions that make school administration rather unique.

1. Women constitute a majority of adjunct faculty across all disciplines and types of institutions (Conley & Leslie, 2002) but most part-time instructors in educational administration are males (American Association of School Administrators [AASA], 2002).
2. Academic credentials of adjunct faculty across all disciplines and types of institutions vary considerably (Avakian, 1995) but virtually all in school administration have earned doctorates (AASA, 2002).
3. Many adjunct faculty are totally or largely reliant on income derived from teaching (Conley & Leslie, 2002) but most part-time school administration instructors are either full-time practitioners or full-pension retired practitioners (AASA, 2002).
4. The modal age range for all adjunct faculty across all disciplines and types of institutions is 35-44 (Conley & Leslie, 2002) but in school administration, the modal age range is 51-60 (64 percent are in this range) (AASA, 2002).

Data such as these clearly reveal that adjunct faculty in school administration do not fit the generic profile. Largely for this reason, some writers (e.g., Tingley, 2002) have concluded that when compared to other disciplines, part-time instructors in school administration are more likely to be influenced by noble motives such as gaining professional respect, pursuing personal growth and contributing to the profession. Recent findings reported in a national study, however, cast some doubt on this conclusion. In an AASA (2002) study, the three most commonly cited reasons for teaching part-time in school administration were: (1) seeking full-time employment as a professor at some subsequent date, (2) creating opportunities to collaborate with full-time faculty members and (3) enhancing one's credentials to serve as a consultant (AASA, 2002).

Deployment of Part-Time Faculty

Criticisms of school administrator preparation, voiced as

part of the broad school reform movement that began nearly 25 years ago, have focused largely on program quality and program relevance. Peterson and Finn (1985) were among the first to observe that too little attention was being given to qualifications and performance of superintendents and principals in relation to school improvement. Alleged shortcomings included abysmal admission, retention and graduation standards (e.g., Clark, 1989) and overly theoretical and insufficiently practical program requirements (e.g., Goldman & Kempner, 1988; Maher, 1988). In the midst of these criticisms, two reform groups, the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEAA) (1987) and the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) (1989), recommended major revisions to professional preparation to ensure an appropriate nexus between theory and practice.

During the early 1990s, many deans and department chairs skillfully melded pressures for efficiency and personnel management with program reform. They cast the employment of part-time faculty as a win-win decision; it lowered operating costs, reduced risk associated with uncertain enrollments and infused practice-based experiences into the curriculum. In part, their creativity may have reflected political reality that more fundamental changes to curriculum and instructional practices were simply too difficult to achieve. Several studies conducted during the late 1980s and 1990s, for instance, have documented that educational administration faculty have been resistant to reforming their own programs (McCarthy, 1999b).

By diverting attention from needed structural changes, the increased deployment of adjunct faculty may have contributed circuitously to sustaining the profession's most disturbing and negative attributes. As examples, average scores for school administration students on the Graduate Record Examination remain lower than those for students in other disciplines and lower than those for students majoring in other areas of education (Keedy & Grandy, 2001). And poorly-staffed and under-funded preparation programs have not been eliminated; even worse, many of them have actually increased their enrollments (Kowalski & Glass, 2002).

Other limitations of employing part-time faculty have been well documented. As one example, employers often fail to provide job descriptions and specific expectations to part-time personnel (Gappa & Leslie, 1993); yet, role ambiguity is known to reduce job performance, job satisfaction and employee commitment (Monroe & Denman, 1991). Moreover, when part-time instructors are uncertain about their role and responsibilities, students are more likely to perceive them as inept, powerless and vulnerable to manipulation (Cassebaum, 2001).

Many part-time instructors have only a limited perspective of their university responsibilities, often because they have not received orientation (Ilg & Raisch, 2000) nor have they been given guidance by a faculty mentor (Wickun &

Stanley, 2002). Not infrequently, they are assigned to teach in remote classrooms and provided little or no direction about using technology to support their teaching (Watson & McGregor, 2002). Many are disempowered by a lack of respect, both in the university in general and in the employing department specifically (Fulton, 2000) and this disconfirmation ultimately affects their students negatively (Burk, 2000). In professional schools, these instructors often are outside the mainstream of departmental governance and decision making (Popper, 1997) thus diminishing their ability to influence critical instructional decisions.

A national study conducted several years ago found that 40 percent of all graduate programs in school administration employed fewer than five full-time faculty members (McCarthy, 1999a). When all or most courses and clinical experiences are staffed by adjuncts, the potential for a mediocre educational experience increases dramatically regardless of the discipline (Simpson, 1991). Commenting on the developing dependence on adjunct instructors in school administration, Shakeshaft (2002) aptly observed, “No high school principal would try to staff the curriculum with substitute teachers no matter how much the school board might save” (p. 30).

Part-time faculty members also have been the source of problems. Many accepting part-time teaching positions eventually experience conflict between their primary and secondary responsibilities. When they do, classes typically get cancelled as practice-based responsibilities take precedent (Lyons, Kysilka, & Pawlas, 1999). In addition, some have elected not to follow course syllabi, opting instead to spend class time in unstructured discussions of their personal practice (Otto, 2000). Contrary to popular belief, students are not always enamored by instructors who tell “war stories” or engage self-promotion discussions instead of teaching intended course content (Lyons et al., 1999). A recent study found that 48 percent of part-time instructors admitted spending less than five hours per week preparing for class (AASA, 2002).

Developing Policy Statements

Given the potential pitfalls of indiscriminately deploying part-time faculty in a professional school, the need for policy in this area should be self-evident. Although policy statements obviously need to be fashioned separately for each institution, there are benchmarks that can guide the task. For instance, all policy for employing and assigning part-time faculty should be grounded in a program improvement vision and a strategy for achieving it. Both the vision and strategy should be developed collaboratively by the department chair, regular faculty and practitioners likely to serve as part-time instructors. Policymaking per se should address three issues: initial employment, deployment and development.

Initial Employment

Policy should stipulate documents that should be in place

prior to recruiting and selecting part-time instructors. The first should encompass *statements of purpose and values*. The former identifies objectives associated with employing practitioners as part-time instructors and links the employment to program quality issues. The latter includes belief statements about professional preparation, differentiated faculty roles, collaboration between regular and adjunct faculty and the intended contributions of adjunct faculty.

Second, decisions pertaining to *rank, length of employment and compensation* should be made before recruitment begins. Giving rank (e.g., adjunct assistant professor) can serve two purposes: providing different levels of compensation based on market, merit and service and making it more likely that these instructors will be viewed as part of the department. Multi-year appointments enhance the probability that part-time instructors will participate in non-teaching departmental activities (e.g., committees).

Third, a *general job description* for part-time instructors should be developed. At a minimum, it should include: (a) required and desired qualifications for each possible rank, (b) position responsibilities, (c) role expectations, (d) compensation parameters and (e) other general conditions of employment. Most notably, it should include expectations regarding service to students outside of class and involvement in departmental activities.

Fourth, *quantitative standards* should be established. More precisely, the department members determine a maximum percentage for the classes that can be taught by part-time faculty and the maximum number of courses that can be taught by a part-time instructor (e.g., in a semester or calendar year). As a general rule, the percentage of instruction delivered by part-time faculty should not exceed 25 percent of the department’s course load and full-time practitioners should not teach more than one course per semester or two courses per year.

Deployment

Policy should address the often ignored issues of *orientation and mentoring*. Even part-time faculty should have ample information about institutional policy, procedures and logistics (e.g., campus parking, library use). They should be given a notebook detailing pertinent information provided to regular employees and given opportunities to ask questions and seek clarifications after having had an opportunity to digest the information. Mentors should be experienced regular faculty members who not only provide guidance but also model the department’s standards for teaching, scholarship and service.

Second, policy should address the *assignment of courses and clinical experiences*. Part-time instructors should not teach five or six different courses over a period of several years nor should they be assigned to teach courses outside their established areas of expertise and practitioner experience. Doing so defeats the primary purpose of infusing practitioners into professional preparation. This caveat is especially cogent in light of the fact that one-third of the

administrators seeking to teach part-time in a university are willing to be assigned to courses in which they have little knowledge (Beem, 2002).

Development

First and foremost, policy should require both *formative and summative evaluations* for adjunct faculty. Ideally, the formative component should be completed by the mentor and department chair and the summative component should be based on multiple sources of evidence covering two primary responsibilities: teaching and departmental involvement. Data can be obtained from student evaluations (formal and informal), supervisor evaluations, peer evaluations and self-evaluations.

Second, policy should address *staff development activities*. More specifically, three options should be considered: (a) involvement of part-time instructors in staff development for regular faculty, (b) activities designed specifically for adjunct faculty and (c) activities designed specifically for an individual employee. Inclusion in staff development has both direct and symbolic significance for strengthening practitioner-professor collaboration.

Third, policy should consider provisions for recognizing *the contributions of part-time faculty*, individually and collectively. For example, an annual award might be established for outstanding performance and the department hosts an annual dinner to recognize all practitioners who are making contributions to the department's mission.

Final Thoughts

The integration of theory and practice-based knowledge is clearly essential in a professional school. Equally clear, however, is the fact that indiscriminately deploying adjunct faculty does not guarantee that preparation is improved. As an example, some departments are now staffed almost entirely by part-time faculty detached from essential activities such as curriculum development, student advising and admission, retention and graduation standards. In some institutions, the deployment of part-time faculty has been used to erode full-time positions and when this occurs, school administration departments are more likely to become "cash cows" (Kowalski, 2004).

An increased reliance on part-time faculty in school administration departments is indisputable; however, very little is known about the consequences of this staffing pattern. Yet, some deans, department chairs and professors continue to claim that the mere involvement of practitioners in professional preparation is de facto a momentous reform. As discussed here, this personnel practice is both promising and troubling. Consequently, efforts are needed on two fronts. First, departments should adopt policy guiding the employment, deployment and development of part-time faculty in an effort to avert known problems. Second, the efficacy of adjunct faculty needs to be studied in relation to regular faculty and practices in school administra-

tion need to be studied in relation to practices in other types of professional schools.

References

- American Association of School Administrators (2002). *Profile of an adjunct professor*. Retrieved August 23, 2004, from www.aasa.org/publications/sa/2002_11/beem_profile.htm
- Avakian, A. N. (1995). Conflicting demands for adjunct faculty. *Community College Journal*, 65(6), 34-36.
- Beem, K. (2002). The adjunct experience. *The School Administrator*, 10(59), 6-10, 12.
- Browne-Ferrigno, T., & Muth, R. (2001, November). *Becoming a principal: Role transformation through clinical practice*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration, Cincinnati, OH.
- Burk, N. M. (2000, November). *The invisible professor at-risk: How departmental disconfirmation disempower adjunct faculty*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Communication Association, Seattle, WA.
- Cassebaum, A. (2001). Crossing class lines: A diary. *Academe*, 87(4), 37-41.
- Clark, D. L. (1989). Time to say enough! *Agenda: Newsletter of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration*, 1(1), 1, 4-5.
- Conley, V. M., & Leslie, D. W. (2002). *Part-time instructional faculty and staff: Who they are, what they do, and what they think. 1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF:93)*. Statistical Analysis Report. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED464 527)
- Cox, A. M. (2000, December). Study shows colleges' dependence on their part-time instructors. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 47(14), A12-14.
- Fogg, P. (2001, November 2). Colleges have cut proportion of full-time faculty members, study finds. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 48(10), A17.
- Fulton, R. D. (2000). The plight of part-timers in higher education: Some ruminations and suggestions. *Change*, 32(3), 38-43.
- Gappa, J. M., & Leslie, D. W. (1993). *The invisible faculty: Improving the status of part-timers in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Goldman, P., & Kempner, K. (1988). *The administrator's view of administrative training*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 325 979)
- Hart, A. W. (1999). Educational leadership: A field of inquiry and practice. *Educational Management & Administration*, 27(3), 323-334.
- Ilg, T. J., & Raisch, D. (2000). Is the life of college professor for you? *The AASA Professor*, 23(4), 6-11.
- Jackson, B. (2001, September). *Exceptional and innovative programs in educational leadership*. Paper presented at the Meeting of the National Commission for the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation, Racine, WI.
- Keedy, J. L., & Grandy, J. (2001). Trends in GRE scores for principal candidates in the United States: A call for international debate on the intellectual quality of principal candidates. *International Journal of Educational Reform*, 10(4), 306-325.

- Kowalski, T. J. (2004). The ongoing war for the soul of school administration. In T. J. Lasley (Ed.), *Better leaders for America's schools: Perspectives on the Manifesto* (pp. 93-112). Columbia, MO: University Council for Educational Administration.
- Kowalski, T. J. (2005). *Case studies on educational administration* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Kowalski, T. J., & Glass, T. E. (2002). Preparing superintendents in the 21st century. In B. S. Cooper & L. D. Fusarelli (Eds.), *The promises and perils facing today's school superintendent* (pp. 41-60). Lanham, MD: ScarecrowEducation.
- Lyons, R. E., Kysilka, M. L., & Pawlas, G. E. (1999). *The adjunct professor's guide to success: Surviving and thriving in the college classroom*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Maher, R. (1988). Are graduate schools preparing tomorrow's administrators? *NASSP Bulletin*, 72(508), 30-34.
- McCarthy, M. (1999a). Changes in the professoriate. In J. Murphy & P. Forsyth (Eds.), *Educational administration: A decade of reform* (pp. 192-214). Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.
- McCarthy, M. (1999b). The evolution of educational leadership preparation programs. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (2nd ed.) (pp. 119-140). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Monroe, C., & Denman, S. (1991). Assimilating adjunct faculty: Problems and opportunities. *ACA Bulletin*, 77, 56-62.
- National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. (1987). *Leaders for America's schools*. Tempe, AZ: University Council for Educational Administration.
- National Education Association (1988). *Report and recommendations on part-time, temporary, and non-tenure track appointments*. Washington, DC: Author.
- National Policy Board for Educational Administration. (1989). *Improving the preparation of school administrators: An agenda for reform*. Charlottesville, VA: Author.
- Otto, D. W. (2000). The superintendent professor. *The AASA Professor*, 23(4), 16-19.
- Peterson, K. D., & Finn, C. E. (1985). Principals, superintendents and administrator's art. *The Public Interest*, (79), 42-68.
- Popper, A. F. (1997). The uneasy integration of adjunct teachers into American legal education. *Journal of Legal Education*, 47(1), 83-91.
- Reid, S. W. (1996). The staffing and enculturation of adjunct faculty in higher education. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Texas A&M University, Commerce, TX.
- Schuster, J. H. (1998). Reconfiguring the professoriate: An overview. *Academe*, 84(1), 48-53.
- Shakeshaft, C. (2002). The shadowy downside of adjuncts. *The School Administrator*, 10(59), 28-30.
- Simpson, W. B. (1991). *Cost containment for higher education: Strategies for public policy and institutional administration*. New York: Praeger.
- Tingley, S. (2002). Nine reasons why I love my adjunct status. *The School Administrator*, 10(59), 18-20.
- Twigg, H. P. (1989, November). *Uses and abuses of adjunct faculty in higher education*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED311 984)
- Watson, R. L., & MacGregor, C. J. (2002). Beyond the syllabus. *The School Administrator*, 10(59), 22-25, 27.
- Wickun, W. G., & Stanley, R. E. (2002). *The role of adjunct faculty in higher education*. Retrieved August 12, 2004, from mtprof.msun.edu/Win2000/Wickun.html
- Wilson, R. (2001, May 4). Proportion of part-time faculty members leveled off from 1992 to 1998, data show. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 47(34), A14.

Restructuring an Educational Leadership Program Using Action Research

Wanda Maulding, Ed.D.
Chair of Department of Educational
Leadership
The University of Southern Mississippi
Hattiesburg, Miss.

Ronald A. Styron Jr., Ed.D.
Coordinator of Department of Educational
Leadership
The University of Southern Mississippi
Hattiesburg, Miss.

This article details the efforts of a department of educational leadership chair and her faculty to reorganize a doctoral program to better meet the changing needs of its students. A modified action research model was used as the conceptual framework to accomplish this undertaking.

Action Research

Action research in education is based on liberation from ideas imposed on schools solely from outside and seen as an alternative to empirical analytical research (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). The foundation of action research is the improvement of practice (Burnaford, 1996). The concept is not new. It originated in Lewin's work on the dynamics of social change in the United States in the 1940s (Lewin, 1947). In a sense, it constitutes an acknowledgement that education belongs to educators and that as the experts concerning educational practice, they are the ones most able to understand and refine their work. Teacher participation is an essential component of the process. Action research also represents what research educators do, either individually or in groups, about their own professional practice in order to understand and improve the nature and specifics of their work. But, without a doubt, the main purpose of action research is the solution of a problem (Gay, 1992).

The predominant model of action research is an ongoing cycle of action that takes place in a spiral fashion (McTaggart, 1982). Action research is a logical process (Barnes, 1992). The modified action research model used in this project included reflection, planning, acting, observing and replanning.

Action research was selected for this project because it fulfilled four essential professional needs. Those were: 1) the need for the research to be relevant; 2) the need for the researcher to be involved in the research; 3) the need for the research to help improve departmental effectiveness; and 4) the need for the research to stimulate change and reform.

Reflection

In the fall of 2004, the dean of the college went to the department chair to inquire about a rumor he heard. The

rumor had to do with a competing university offering a course of study more desirable than what was currently being offered by their university. After the dean's visit, the chair began investigating the report and determined that the rumor was factual and action was needed to change existing policies and practices. This was immediately seen as a challenge to the department. As Evans and Franz (1997) so aptly put it, universities have changed little in organization and structure since their emergence in modern form ... and they mightily resist reform efforts.

Snipes, Oswald and Hortmann, in their 1997 article on student satisfaction in higher education, stated that with an increasingly changing market the survivors will be those universities that are more concerned with customer satisfaction. Since faculty members in this department took pride in the fact that they were a customer service-oriented department and had a good rapport with their students, graduate students felt free to express their concerns and provide input regarding the suitability of departmental programs.

Students expressed three major concerns: 1) they wanted courses sequenced in a way that would minimize degree completion delays; 2) they wanted to be able to receive the pay increment after completing specialist degree requirements; and 3) they wanted more relevant instruction.

In addition to perceived student needs, one month prior to the dean's visit, a guest of national status assisting with National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) reaccreditation gave departmental members critical information which was used to evaluate current policies and practices. It centered on the need for revised admission requirements, identification of core courses and more application-based instruction. In analyzing this information, it became obvious that there existed a preponderance of data supporting the need for major change. As a result, the department realized if it were to survive, reorganization was inevitable.

The input of faculty members was essential to the process of departmental reorganization. The chair embraced the philosophy of Kincheloe (1991) who stated "only when we as researchers are able to rescue wisdom

from the cult of the expert will we control our own professional destinies” (p. 198). To facilitate the reorganization process and provide quality input, department members agreed that weekly meetings should be held to discuss programming and plan those changes deemed necessary.

Planning

Course content, sequencing, assessment and program policies were discussed during weekly faculty meetings. Nominal group techniques were used as a basic structure for decision-making supported with regular reports including multiple drafts of potential plans of action. Planning efforts were manifested and organized around four primary restructuring components including admissions, course syllabi, course sequencing and activity sequencing (degree requirements and timelines such as completion of comprehensive and qualifying exams, submission of internal review documentation, application for degree, etc.).

Admissions’ Revisions and Course Syllabi. NCATE data indicated that writing and core academic skills needed to be addressed prior to admission to the doctoral program. Again NCATE data, along with student input, indicated that course syllabi needed revision to address more relevant topics and application-based assignments.

Course Sequencing. Student feedback indicated that those enrolled in the Ed.D. or Ph.D. program would benefit by being allowed to receive their specialist degree prior to receiving their terminal degree. One benefit was financial, as school districts provided salary increases upon completion of advanced degrees as well as the specialist degree. A second benefit was the increased pool of highly qualified administrators in a more timely fashion.

Activity Sequencing. Student feedback also indicated that there was confusion regarding the order of activities required for successful degree completion.

Acting

Before acting and implementing the restructured program, permission had to be secured from the graduate and university council. Presentations were made before both groups and they gave their unconditional approval and overwhelming support. A number of formal and informal meetings were then held with students to share particulars of the new program. They, too, received the information with great enthusiasm and excitement.

Revision of Admission Requirements. Prior to reorganization, students receiving a low score on the admissions packet were allowed to enter the doctoral program conditionally. These conditionally admitted students usually had difficulty in the doctoral program, most noticeably when working on their dissertation. The plan implemented to address this problem was a doctoral admissions process that no longer included conditional admits. Students formerly admitted conditionally were now placed into the ‘embedded specialist program’ (discussed later in this

work) and given the opportunity to reapply to the doctoral program after developing those skills needed to successfully complete their doctoral degree.

Revision of Course Syllabi. Previously, detailed guidelines concerning course content and assessment were not provided to professors. So standards patterned after those required by NCATE, Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), as well as state standards were developed and used to formulate revised course syllabi for every class. The new standards and model syllabi included heavy emphasis on performance-based assessment dealing with “real-life” applications of course theory.

Reorganization of Required Courses. Prior to this project, the doctoral program consisted of 78 hours beyond the master’s degree exclusive of hours earned in the specialist program. While the doctoral program hour requirement remained the same after reorganization, the end result was the creation of what was called an ‘embedded specialist program,’ a specialist degree that was inserted into the doctoral sequence of courses. This ‘embedded specialist program’ contained a set of core courses (i.e. school finance, school law, field problems, the principalship, etc.) and ancillary courses (school facilities, human resources, etc.) of which 36 hours total applied to the doctoral degree. Students were then able to gain their pay increases while applying all of their specialist hours to their doctoral studies.

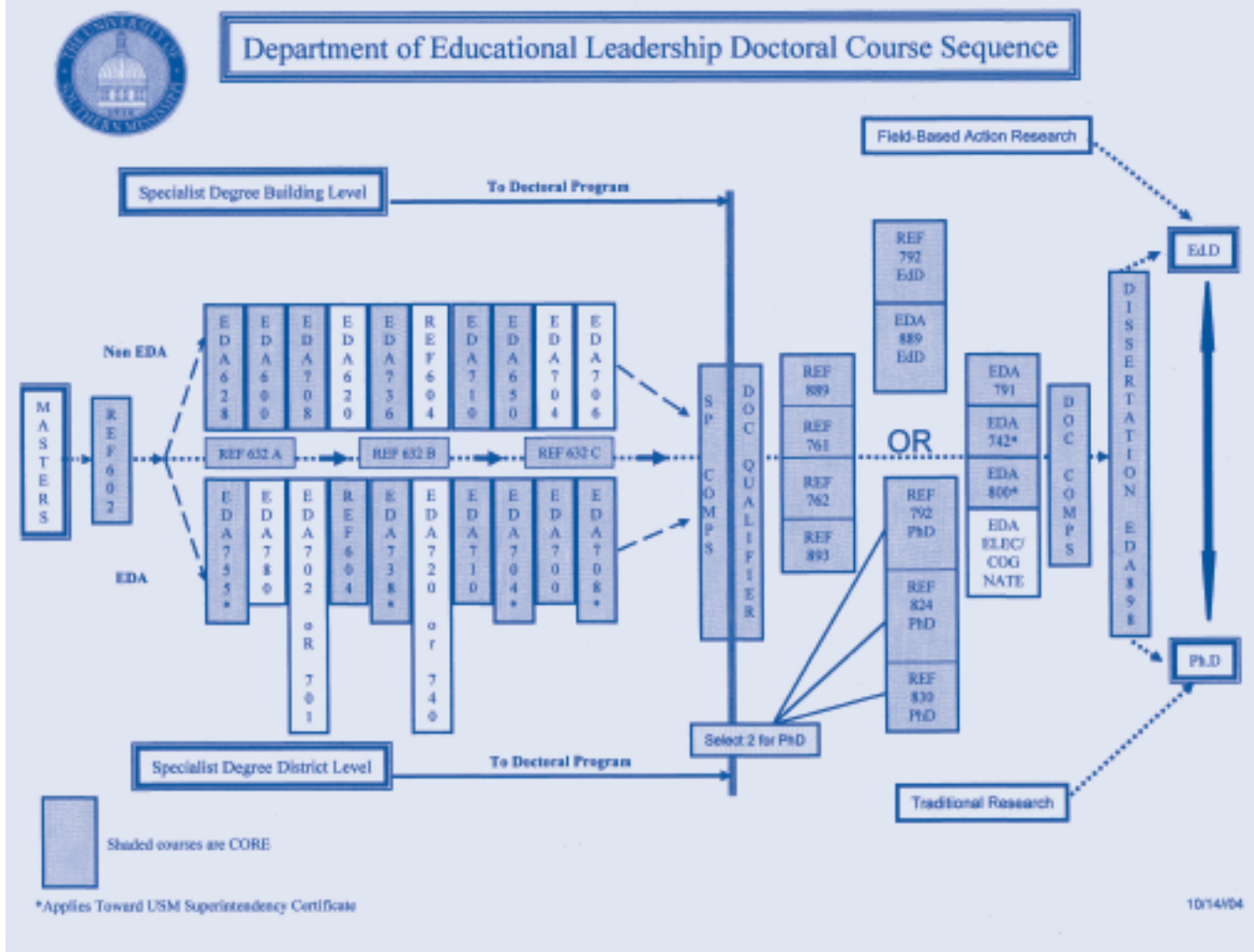
Additionally, the ‘embedded specialist program’ contained two tracks, one for students not currently possessing K-12 administrative certification and a second for those already certified to serve as a K-12 administrator. With the impending shortage of school administrators (Olson, 1999; DiPaoala & Tschannen-Moran, 2004) a quicker route to licensure was needed. Prior to reorganization, students had to wait until completion of their doctorate before qualifying for administrative certification. As a result of the reorganization, students can now receive administrative certification upon completion of their specialist degree. Figure 1 is an outline of the ‘embedded specialist program’ course sequence.

Reorganization and Clarification of Required Activities. All activities required for successful completion of the doctoral program were identified, refined and delineated on a one page document called the ‘pyramid of success.’ The ‘pyramid of success’ begins with admission to the program and ends with graduation. Information is outlined with attention given to clarity in a concise one-page format without giving insignificant or confusing details. Additional detailed information was available through the university graduate catalogue. Students discuss details individually with their advisors. Figure 2 is a copy the student activity flow chart.

Observing

Changing Culture. The success of this reorganization

Figure 1: Department of Educational Leadership Doctoral Course Sequence



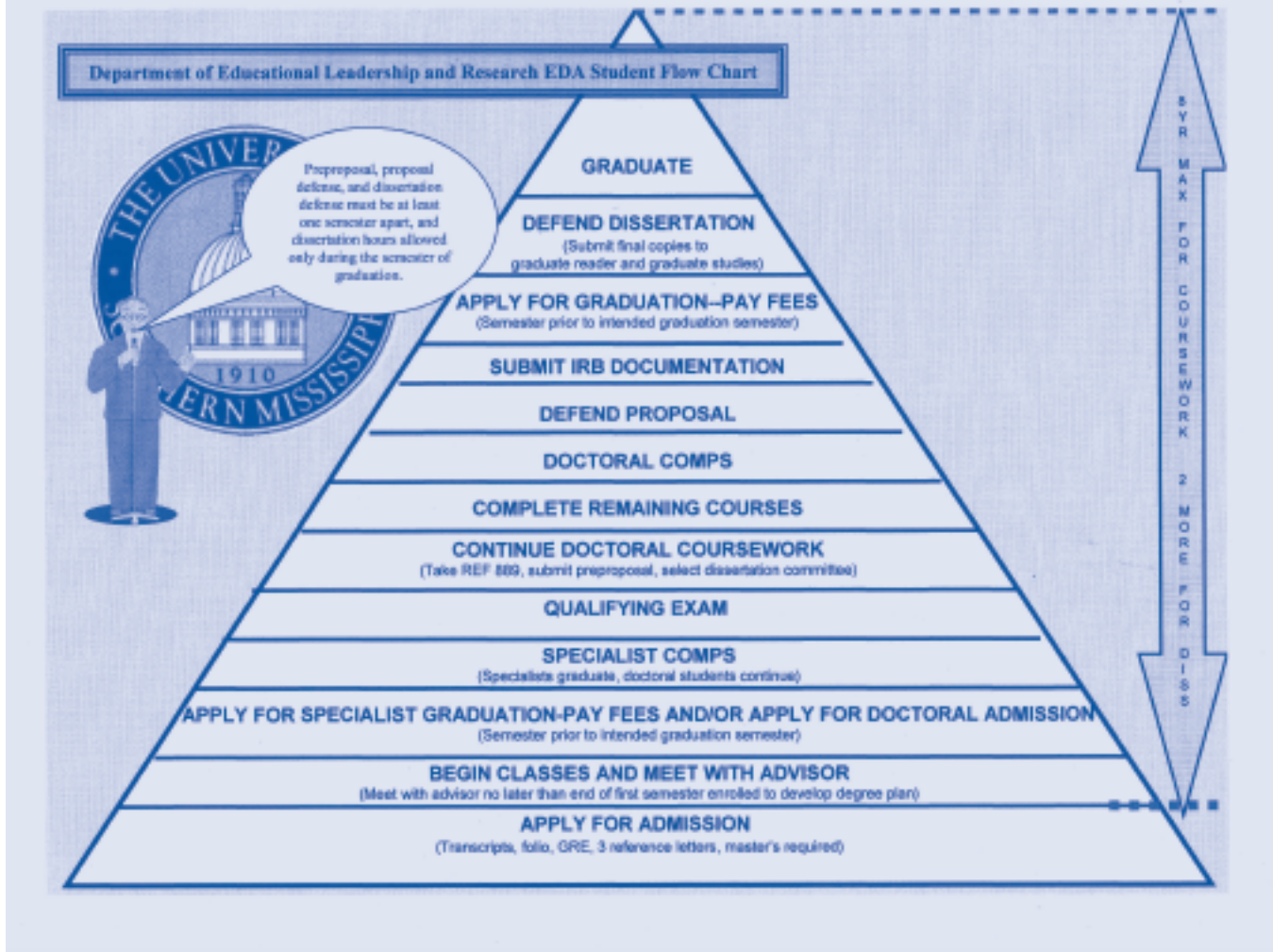
hinged upon improving the doctoral degree program. It was understood that for this to happen, the present culture had to change. Cultural change required paying attention to all the consequential parts of departmental dynamics at once. The chair understood that if she ignored or failed to adequately acknowledge the synergistic character of her organization, she would deliver her faculty and students into the frustration of organizational paralysis or inhibit future change no matter how needed or important it might have been (Sizer, 1991). She also realized that with change comes a certain amount of chaos that must be tolerated (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

On the basis of Lewin's (1947) studies on group interaction, there are three stages of change: unfreezing, changing and refreezing. Unfreezing is an initial period where people feel threatened by new ideas. This is a period of discomfort, where much support is necessary to help people receive them. The second stage, changing, is characterized by participation in new ways of doing things. Refreezing, the third stage, attempts to lock the new ideas into one's reper-

toire. It is difficult to see where one stage ends and another begins. We must realize that people do not automatically move from one stage to another. As some get stuck, others race by, and still others wait for help. These stages were observed during the course of this project and by the end of the school year, the department had entered into the final state of change, refreezing.

The literature of organizational restructuring suggests that the chances of successful implementation of change are greatly improved with the involvement of stakeholders, including those who will be delivering the changes and those who will be affected by these changes (Bloom, Bullion, & Caldwell, 1998; Hargreaves, 1995; Lazerson, 1997; Mills, 2003; Stringer, 2004). This claim was confirmed by this undertaking. It is the opinion of the authors of this work that as a result of faculty and student involvement throughout the entire reorganization process, implementation of the restructured program has been a remarkable success.

Figure 2: Department of Educational Leadership and Research Flow Chart



Replanning

Based on student and faculty feedback, there are at least three modifications anticipated for next year. Those are superintendency certification, a research thread and differentiation of the Ed.D. and Ph.D. dissertations.

There are currently no distinguishing factors for levels of administrator certification in our state. It was the opinion of the department that adding superintendency minor would help students by providing them with information aimed exclusively at preparation for the job of superintendent. With the addition of only a few courses, students would be able to obtain this minor.

Another aspect of the program yet to be developed is a research thread. As indicated in the course sequence chart, students entering the program would initially take a research methods course. This was intentionally designed as such so students would be familiar with testing methodologies while completing the bulk of their specialist coursework, well in advance of the dissertation process. Then, as students worked through their program of study,

they would have various projects assigned requiring research in their school settings and the use of statistical measures on this information.

There is also a need to further differentiate between Ed.D. and Ph.D. dissertations. While details have not been finalized, in the Ph.D. program discussions have centered on adding advanced quantitative statistical courses and requiring application of advanced quantitative methodologies in the dissertation. In the Ed.D. program discussions have centered on adding qualitative statistics and program analysis and focusing the dissertation on field-based K-12 issues.

Prior to implementation of any program modification will be the administration and analysis of student and faculty surveys designed to help measure the effectiveness of the restructured program and provide feedback on proposed changes.

Final Reflections

The reorganization process described in this article was

long and intense with much dialogue among faculty members and students. Although change can be uncomfortable when moving a person out of 'the comfort zone,' the change described in this article was rewarding in that it was clearly beneficial to the students. Presently, students are easily making the transition into the new 'embedded specialist program' and appear pleased with the reorganization.

Another welcome consequence of this effort was seeing the department 'practice what it preached' in terms of shared decision making and building consensus. The entire faculty has embraced decisions and while at times painful, the process has helped all department members have a greater respect for each other. The process has also fostered improved working relationships among faculty members, as well as providing them with greater respect from their students.

References

- Barnes, D. (1992). The significance of teachers' frames for teaching. In T. Russell & H. Munby (Eds.), *Teachers and teaching: From classroom to reflection* (pp. 9-32). New York: The Falmer Press.
- Bloom, S., Bullion, P., & Caldwell, B. (1998). World View: An Integrated Districtwide Model for School Change. *Phi Delta Kappa*, Vol. 78, Number 5, pp. 411-412.
- Burnafor, G. (1996). A life of its own: Teacher research and transforming the curriculum. In G. Burnafor, J. Fischer, & D. Hobson (Eds.), *Teachers doing research: Practical possibilities* (pp. 57-81). Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming critical: Education, knowledge and action research*. Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.
- DiPoaola, M., & Tschannen-Morgan, M. (2004). The Principalship at a Crossroads: A Study of the Conditions and Concerns of Principals, *The Bulletin*, Vol. 87, No. 634, pp. 43-65.
- Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate cultures*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Evans, F. J., & Franz, J. B. (1997). Changing the Change Resistant University, *Academy Of Educational Leadership Journal*, Vol. 1, Number 2, pp. 31-43.
- Gay, L. R. (1987). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis & application*. Columbus, OH: Merrill, Prentice Hall Publishing Co.
- Hargreaves, A. (1995). Renewal in the Age of Paradox. *Educational Leadership*, Number 52, Vol. 7, pp. 14-19.
- Kincheloe, J. L. (1991). Teacher as researchers: *Qualitative inquiry as a path to empowerment*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Lazerson, M. (1997). Who Owns Higher Education? The Changing Face of Governance. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Education*, Vol. 29, Number 2, pp. 10-15.
- Lewin, K. (1947). *Group Decisions and Social Change*. Troy, MO: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- McTaggart, R. (1982). *The action research planner*. Geelon, Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Mills, G. (2003). *Action Research*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Prentice Hall Publishing Co.
- Olson, L. (1999). Demand for Principals Growing, but Candidates Aren't Applying, *Education Week on the Web*, www.edweek.com/ew/vol-18/25prin.h18
- Sizer, T. (1991). No pain, no gain. *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 47, Number 5, pp. 32-34.
- Snipes, R. L., Oswald, S. L., & Hortman, S. M. (1997). Causes and Consequences of Student Satisfaction in Higher Education, *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, Vol. 1, Number 1, pp. 31-40.
- Stringer, E. (2004). *Action Research in Education*. Columbus, OH: Pearson, Merrill, Prentice Hall

Voices from the Field: What Principals Say About Their Work

Rosemary T. Taylor, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Educational
Leadership
University of Central Florida
Orlando, Fla.

Debra Touchton, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Educational
Leadership
Stetson University
Celebration, Fla.

*“What do you do when you are not doing principal related things, like in your free time?”
(Laughter from all principals)*

“What free time? I spend all my time at school.”

“If I’m not at school, I’m at church or with my family. As for after hours activities, my wife and daughter go with me and we make it a family affair. School is my life.”

“When I’m not at school, I attend my sons’ activities, like football. If you are doing the job right, there is no extra time.”

These straightforward comments were made during a focus group which was one of four principal focus groups held across the United States in Florida, Virginia, New Mexico and Missouri as part of Voices 3, a national research project on the status of the principal and superintendent roles, sponsored by the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). In other areas, focus groups were also conducted regarding superintendent roles. The two previous studies, Voices Phase 1 (Kochan, Jackson, & Duke, 1999) and Voices Phase 2 (DiPaola, Acker-Hocevar, Grogan, Davis, & Ivory 2002), address principals’ and superintendents’ most vexing problems and challenges, and preparation, expectations and challenges respectively.

In Voices 3, these first four principal focus groups were pilot testing questions, and of course, gathering information to be analyzed related to responses. The focus group protocol used by the researchers was developed from Krueger and Casey’s (2000) work on conducting effective focus groups. Based on areas identified by Murphy (2002), focus group questions addressed three strands: student learning, social justice and fairness, and democratic community. One strand each was piloted in Virginia, New Mexico and Missouri. The Florida principal focus group piloted questions that combined all three areas of student learning, social justice and fairness, and democratic community into one. Analysis of the process and responses is leading to refinements for the next stage of the research.

Participants

In light of the comments above made by the participants in the focus group, it may be important to know who these principals are. Out of the seven principals, only one has a

child and spouse at home, one is a single parent with a child at home, three have children that are at college or are adults, and two are bachelors. They were not selected for this reason, but perhaps being unencumbered with familial responsibilities is what it takes today to make the kind of commitment and physical energy these principals adamantly stated is needed for success. Seven principals (four high school, one middle school and two elementary schools) participated in the focus group whose responses are reflected in this article. Three were female and four were male.

Their responses to the questions reveal deeply the status of their roles in school districts with economic, racial, language and cultural diversity experienced in the rapidly growing central Florida area. Five of the principals work in an urban district (160,000 students), one in a suburban district (75,000 students) and one in a large small city/rural district (80,000 students). Those principals invited to participate in the focus group were selected due to their positive reputation among the educational community and community at large, and their documented history of improvement in student achievement in challenging situations. Therefore, the researchers believe that the principals’ responses are important in identifying the beliefs, attitudes and behaviors of successful principals in school settings that are perceived to be difficult. Furthermore, these responses give insight into characteristics for identifying potential administrators, and for developing principal preparation programs that meet the unique needs of today’s public schools.

Administrator Preparation Programs

Since the research is sponsored by UCEA and there is an interest in improving administrator preparation programs,

these high performing principals were asked what programs preparing administrators should include. Responses included successful team building, professional development, public relations, making sure that learning is happening, being an instructional leader and managing time. Politics and how to maneuver successfully and ethically within the political environment was also raised as an often ignored, but an essential component for potential administrators. It was noted that the political nature of the position is often discussed in doctoral programs, but not in the entry-level master's degree programs.

Elaboration included the emphasis on in-school learning with a successful mentor principal. For the focus group, the credibility of the faculty in terms of understanding schools today, challenges administrators face and the pressures of accountability are key ingredients to developing future administrators who can step right into the role successfully. As these principals explained, currency in administrative experience on the part of the professors coupled with real world experience for the students, along with professors who understand schools as multifaceted and complex organizations would be the ideal administrator preparation program.

Although they emphasized hands-on experiential learning, this group values higher education and advanced graduate degrees. Out of the seven, two have earned doctorates and two are in doctoral programs. While they value theoretical knowledge and research, their emphasis for preparing entry-level administrators is on the here and now action, decision making and commitment needed for success.

Role of the Principal

Student Learning

Fostering success of all students was seen to be a topic worth in-depth discussion. All of the principals focused on modeling what is important. If it is reading, then participate in reading, if it is multiple intelligences then practice the tenets with teachers in faculty meetings. One principal used the example of having a lunchtime café, sponsored by Barney's Coffee, at the high school for those who want to read or discuss books. Can you imagine eating and drinking in the school library?

Emotional support for teachers during this high stress time of accountability was discussed as critical for successful principals. Discussion centered on empowering teachers so they, in-turn, will empower students. Effective principals involve teachers in the decision making and thinking process. One principal stated, "good teachers who have lived it can talk about it." This includes supporting teachers in studying, analyzing and understanding data; and practicing data-driven decision making that improves instruction and learning. They saw this role encompassing their responsibility to have a "terrific" teacher in every classroom, whether this means hiring, documenting and

dismissing or ensuring professional development for good teachers to become great teachers.

Social Justice

When queried on the topic of social justice and equity, the focus group was direct and specific. They said that the principal's responsibility was to establish a climate of justice, fairness and equity. One principal said "I use my power to ensure fairness, to help students that may not always be treated fairly or have the same opportunities as others." Another saw the principal's role as the "righter of the wrong." The remainder echoed that social justice should be a part of the vision and mission of the school. Often we focus on raising the upper limit of expectations, rather than the floor of expectations. By raising the minimum expectations for teachers and students, greater opportunity for all students is guaranteed.

They closed the discussion on justice with the emphasis on scrutinizing policies to ensure that they are inclusive, rather than exclusive and mirror the vision and mission of the school. One principal noted that while each student must be looked at as an individual, policies that are prohibitive to all students are often put in place. An example of an inclusive policy is inviting enrollment for Advanced Placement courses, versus a closed enrollment for only those selected by certain teachers. Equal access for all students to both curricular and extra-curricular opportunities was the concluding commitment of the focus group.

Democratic Community

In response to the question, "How can an educational leader prepare citizens for a democracy?" the principals had brief answers acknowledging that they felt that they had answered this with their previous responses. One principal responded, "democracy translates into responsibility." That is, responsibility to each other and to move the school and community forward. All of the participants nodded in agreement. The school should teach, model and practice democratic principles through student government, student forums, debates and elections. Furthermore, they believed that teaching mutual respect for fellow students and for faculty was critical and that schools should be places for "free exchange of ideas in classes."

Principals' Closing Remarks

Just as the Florida group opened with this theme, it ended with the same type of comments when asked, "Is there anything we should have discussed about the role of the principal that we missed?"

- Those thinking about school administration should go into it for the right reason.
- They must have a strong work ethic.
- The commitment to students must be present.
- Administrators must see their work as a calling, not just a job, or they will not be successful.

They commented on their observation that “wannabe” administrators often see the position as a job, or higher pay, and are not willing to dedicate the time, energy and commitment that are necessary for success. Further elaboration by these principals included that being a principal is an honor and a privilege, even an adventure! They emphasized that whatever a principal does, he or she must always be focused on taking the students as well as the teachers to the next level and “take care of the profession.”

Conclusion

The Florida focus group was held at 5:00 p.m. during the third week of school in 2003. It is noteworthy that these principals had been at school since around 6:30 that morning and were willing to drive to a central location for the focus group. Furthermore, when the focus group ended at 7:00 p.m. three of them went to parent evening meetings extending their workday to 14 hours, while the other three finished a 12-hour day. For any who doubt the comments of the focus group participants, their daily schedule and academic results speak to their commitment to the principalship and the profession.

Professors of educational leadership and administration

should heed this input from successful school principals and infuse their ideas into coursework and experiences. As we search for new professors we should seek the qualities and recent experience as the participants suggest and develop principal preparation programs that focus on understanding schools as multifaceted, multidimensional and complex organizations.

References

- DiPaola, M., Acker-Hocevar, M., Grogan, M., Davis, J., & Ivory, G. (2002, November). *Leadership Perspectives of the Superintendency: Perceptions, Reflections, and Observations from the Field*. Paper presented at University Council for Educational Administration, Pittsburgh, PA.
- Kochan, F. K., Jackson, B., & Duke, D. (1999). *A thousand voices from the firing line: A study of educational leaders, their jobs, their preparation, and the problems they face*. Columbia, MO: University Council for Educational Administration.
- Krueger, R. A. & Casey, M. A., (2000). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Murphy, J. (2002). Reculturing the profession of educational leadership: New blueprints. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38, 176-191.

ARTICLES OF BEST PRACTICE

Rethinking Opening Day

Matthew King, Ed.D.
Superintendent, Wellesley Public Schools
Wellesley, Mass.

After 26 years as a school superintendent, I am no longer surprised when someone assumes that I “get the summer off.” In fact, July is one of the busiest months in my work year. To be sure, the pace is different without students and teachers, and I do relish my summer vacation. With hiring and personnel work, administrative and school board retreats and meetings, and the planning of improvement initiatives, we are still busy throughout the summer preparing for the reopening of school. Of course, each summer I write a speech for the traditional opening day event for teachers.

For the past eighteen years I embraced this writing assignment, seeing it as a unique opportunity to tap into the values which attract teachers and administrators to our profession. As a school leader who has long seen himself as a “culture-builder,” I view these opening rituals as important symbolic events. The superintendent, in the role of “high priest,” celebrates core values by sharing stories and connecting our work to the larger mission of preparing the next generation of citizens.

I have always invested a great deal of time preparing my

remarks, and my efforts have often been reinforced by positive feedback. People generally appreciate the effort I put into these speeches and usually connect to my value-oriented message. For example, in the first year of my current position in Wellesley nine years ago, I laid out the framework for the core values that would be developed for our school system (academic excellence, cooperative and caring relationships, respect for human differences and commitment to community). I talked about what I had learned about the system through entry interviews, and I outlined what they could expect from me in my role as superintendent. In subsequent years I prepared talks that played off these values by using real-life stories from school life and peppering my talk with humorous anecdotes. And then I did something that began to change the way I think about these events.

In the late spring of my first year in Wellesley, a teacher subtly let me know that all the attention given to new teachers on opening day sometimes left the veteran teachers feeling unappreciated. In thinking about this further I had an idea: to surprise everyone in the following September

with a slide show of teachers who had been in the district more than thirty years. Before school ended in June I sent a recent high school graduate to all the schools with a digital camera to take photos of about thirty people. She told them only that I had asked her to take photos for a project I was working on. Only one person objected. Then, over the summer, several of us in my office had the fun of selecting music to finish the show. Our opening theme was, "Welcome Back, Kotter."

While I knew this would be well received, I was not prepared for the tremendous emotional response that did occur. From the first slide through the entire 12 minute show there was spontaneous cheering and sustained applause. We had apparently tapped into a deep reservoir of emotion that was surfaced by the public appreciation. Indeed, over the years I have shown the video to groups of teachers in other districts who also have had a strong emotional response to it.

Building on this success, over the next several years I began to plan other opening day presentations with the assistance of our director of technology and several creative staff. One year, we borrowed the format of the popular television show, "Who Wants To Be A Millionaire?" to create a game, "Who Wants To Be A Wellesley Educator?" Of course I dressed in the role of Regis Philbin with a coordinated shirt and tie. One typical question was, "Under what circumstances would the school construction projects move more slowly?" and the following possible answers were offered: "A new ice age; the town is boycotted by building trades; the governor is put in charge of the project; there are none." Needless to say, this was a big hit.

While productions like this quickly became the norm for our opening day assembly, planning these events grew into yet another challenging task over the summer. I had created a bit of a Frankenstein; I kept hearing from staff that they were looking forward to this year's "surprise," which added pressure to develop something new while I continued to write my traditional opening remarks.

After several years of humorous productions I had a new idea which was sparked by knowing that one of our most respected and beloved teachers planned to retire. Instead of having opening remarks by the superintendent, I thought it would be refreshing to invite this high school teacher to write a speech reflecting on her career. The teacher accepted and delivered, as I had expected, a powerful, inspiring talk about her career. It was received with a sustained standing ovation.

In the following year I secretly invited an elementary teacher who had just retired to prepare a talk. As she waited behind the stage curtain I introduced our mystery guest to our audience. Again, her talk was inspiring, funny and very moving. And there was another standing ovation!

This fall I began opening day with brief words about how our country and community have been influenced by the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision and the 1964

Civil Rights Act. After explaining that one of our system goals this year would be to continue our focus on the achievement gap between our African American students and other students, I said that "to complicate our thinking and to challenge us, and to add a familiar human face to this work, I have invited two of our African American colleagues to share their personal journeys." In the next twenty minutes, the faculty was treated to two powerful speeches by a teacher and administrator who had attended predominantly white high schools as part of two different voluntary desegregation programs. Once again, there was a standing ovation.

The feedback from staff was extraordinary. One person wrote, "Both women were stunning. They brought their stories to life, made the anger, the struggling, the achievement real. Each of us saw individual students in our minds as each woman spoke. It was exhilarating, thought-provoking, and inspiring. Thank you." Another teacher said, "I just wanted to let you know how terrific yesterday's opening program was. All three sets of remarks were extremely moving and powerful and really set a challenging and inspiring tone for our work this year." My favorite comment was, "The speakers on opening day this year were the best in my 35 years here. I love catching you big shots actually doing something I'd have to give you an A on. Put this on your refrigerator; it was a tour de force."

Witnessing the impact of these women on our faculty, I realized that as a white man nothing I could have written or said could have conveyed the emotional impact that these articulate African American educators had on their colleagues. I always share my opening remarks to teachers in a mailing to parents, this year, including these speeches assured that their messages reached a much wider audience in our community.

As I reflect now on how I use the opportunity presented by the opening of school, I recognize that there are precious few times when superintendents can celebrate core values with an entire faculty. In too many districts opening days are uninspiring routines that are quietly tolerated and seen as disconnected from what really goes on once the bells ring, yet teachers and administrators are hungry for connecting their work to a larger purpose. By seeing their colleagues stand in front of them, composed, with remarks that radiate their love affair with teaching and their commitment to students, the opening can also celebrate the profession itself. Of course, in order to do this, the superintendent has to let go of being center stage. At first that felt awkward, but I have come to appreciate that empowering teachers to participate in these highly symbolic events strengthens the professional culture of our schools far more than is possible for me to do alone. This also allows me to spend far less time over the summer working on my opening remarks.

How to Stop Dealing with the Same Types of Problems Day After Day, Part 1

Gary Martin, Ed.D.
Associate Professor, Educational Leadership
Northern Arizona University - Globe/Miami
Miami, Ariz.

Gaining expertise in leadership requires time, commitment, an adequate knowledge base and a working plan for learning and growth. Without a plan for learning, only tacit or “how-to” expertise is developed. Leaders often know how to solve the problems facing them, but they fail to analyze and act on the underlying causes. This results in administrators dealing with the same types of problems day after day. The premise here is that most underlying causes are deficits in one or more of the essential skill areas of leadership. If the school leader begins to ask questions, reflect and take positive action to improve skills, similar problems will be less likely to occur. This article provides a format of questions for reflection and recommendations for action in the first five skill areas necessary for success and growth in leadership.

It is difficult to find consensus on what makes an effective leader. Sergiovanni (1992) believes that leaders must act from a sound moral base and heart, while Hoyle (2002) asserts that leadership should incorporate spirit and genuine love. Hunter (1998) lists patience, respectfulness, forgiveness, kindness, humility, commitment, selflessness and honesty. Others write about the need for passion, empathy, common sense, creativity and a host of other traits, abilities and principles. These attributes can have a profound effect on the success of the leader, but without developed skills of leadership, they are at best, the source of good intention.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), “leadership is a set of observable skills and abilities” (p. 388). The skills to be developed for a high level of expertise and success are 1) vision, 2) decision making, 3) communication, 4) conflict and issue resolution, 5) motivation, 6) leading groups, 7) leadership styles, power and ethics, 8) culture and climate, 9) change and 10) evaluation (Martin, Wright & Danzig, 2003).

The following sections include summary highlights, key findings, reflective questions and recommendations for the first five areas. With study and practice, school leaders can begin forming the habit of assessing their leadership knowledge and skill and finding root causes for many of the problems they face daily. Uncovering root causes gives

the leader an opportunity to take constructive actions that result in greater effectiveness, efficiency and overall quality of life within the school.

Vision

Is there a clear, understood and shared vision on how the organization should be functioning now and in the future, and is it aligned with the key beliefs and principles of those within the district / school?

Of the popularly expressed requirements for leadership, the most common is that leaders have vision (Gardner, 1990). Leaders cope with and initiate change, while managers work to keep the current system working properly (Lipham, 1964; Kotter, 1998). Reaching the goal requires effort, buy-in and support for a shared vision from all members of the organization (Fullan, 2002). The central ingredient for the leader to realize the vision is trust in the leader (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Garlow’s (2002) law of buy-in is that “people buy into the leader, then the vision” (p. 181). Thus, the leader’s responsibility is to establish trust and create vision and then support and articulate the shared vision.

Reflection

Has the leader investigated through surveys, interviews or small group meetings whether faculty and students truly understand the vision and have an opportunity for input?

Has the leader planned and implemented practices for articulating the vision with examples, demonstrations or modeling?

Do students know why they are learning a particular lesson, showing respect or following certain rules and regulations?

What similarities or differences in beliefs do faculty, staff and student have?

Recommendations

Take time to know faculty and students and communicate who you are. Spend time with them and learn their hopes, beliefs, concerns and needs. Resolve differences in goals, concerns and needs. Work with others to create a shared

vision of the school / district. Plan, implement and follow through with efforts in the realization of the vision. Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be the lack of shared vision.

Decision Making

If quality, support and buy-in are needed for a decision, is adequate time given, expertise developed and interest aroused for effective collaborative decision making? If another model is used, can you justify it?

Decision making is the heart of educational administration because the school, like any other formal organization, is basically a decision-making structure (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Decisions are based on one's beliefs, values and experience. The skill of knowing oneself is termed self-mastery and is a prerequisite for leading others (Jones, 1995). Leaders must know themselves, know why they choose particular paths, know whom to involve and know which particular decision-making model to use (Martin, et al, 2003).

Collaborative decisions are better decisions, but require additional time and higher levels of expertise and interest from the followers. If followers are needed to implement and maintain the decision, then collaborative decisions have the greatest potential for success. Second to collaborative is the *participatory* model, where those affected by the decision are allowed to have input prior to the leader making the final decision.

Due to time constraints, lack of expertise in collaboration and other situational factors, school administrators often choose other models of decision making (Gorton & Snowden, 2002). In some instances, the leader is not looking for the best decision, but a satisfactory one. In this case, the *satisficing* model (Simon, 1947) is used where the leader finds an alternative that satisfies everyone. In other situations where the leader does not know the best or even satisfactory alternative, he or she might use an *incremental* model (Lindbloom, 1959) where small steps are taken. This gives the leader time and opportunity to see if any results occur from steps taken.

In other situations where the leader does not know the best alternative, *mixed scanning* (Etzioni, 1967) may be used. With this model, the leader takes steps with two or more alternatives to see which produces desired results. However, each alternative must be aligned with the vision and philosophy. Finally, the *garbage can* model (Cohen, et al, 1972) is used when the administrator chooses a program or practice used previously. The danger with this model is it may be used before a real need for a decision is established, and it assumes that a practice in one school will work in another. The leader also needs to know when not to decide, typically when adequate information, alternatives and anticipated results are not known.

Different models of decision making are available to

leaders. Most can be justified in particular situations, but the consensus of the research highly recommends involving others in decisions. This allows the leader to have numerous and diverse perspectives, gain buy-in and support, and use the opportunity to train future leaders.

Reflection

If time is scarce—has the leader made additional time?

If expertise is limited—has the leader provided the necessary knowledge and/or skill for greater expertise?

If interest is lacking—has the leader taken steps to increase interest?

Recommendations

Use collaborative decision making in as many situations as possible. Use leaders in the school that have high levels of expertise, interest and responsibility. With the help of these leaders, form additional trusting relationships and train others in decision making. Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be the lack of collaboration or the use of an inappropriate model for decisions.

Communication

Is the leader effective in giving and receiving information, setting up a variety of ways to seek information from others, and is the communication system monitored and evaluated?

“In the area of leadership, there is no skill more essential than communication” (Guarino, 1974, p.1). Without exception, all major national school administration associations stress the importance of effective communication (Gorton & Snowden, 2002). Despite these findings, schools are generally criticized for poor communication between leaders and faculty, teachers and other teachers, faculty and students, and school and community. Communication is vital for gaining expertise in all leadership skills.

Leaders need to be effective givers and receivers of information. School leaders typically are skilled at giving information but need to take the time and effort to share goals, concerns, and the reasons for their actions. Carnegie (1993) asserts that the single most important communication skill is listening. He found that communication is built on trusting relationships and that nobody is more persuasive than a good listener.

A leader should learn the moods, mannerisms, expressions and body language of their followers (Krzyszewski & Phillips, 2000). Listening shows interest and respect for others and allows an opportunity to vent. It increases learning, understanding and it is vital for reducing and resolving conflict. Listening gives leaders time to observe others' body language and listen to what their own hearts and emotions are telling them. Finally, listening leads one to wisdom and certainly gives the appearance of wisdom (Martin,

Wright, & Danzig, 2003).

The leader must set up, monitor and evaluate a communication system. How often is communication flowing within the school and in what formats? Are meetings a dialogue or a monologue? Is an open-door policy truly open and being used? The leader must offer a variety of ways for faculty and students to give and receive information. Some will speak in meetings, others through e-mail, while others may communicate only face-to-face. The leader must assess the quantity and quality of the means used and evaluate for further improvements.

Reflection

Does the leader rely on a few trusted friends for information regardless of the fact that they typically only tell the leader what he or she wants to hear, omit anything negative and have a very narrow perspective or personal bias?

Does the leader use visuals, models, examples or demonstration for increased understanding?

How many means of seeking information are currently in use? Have you considered surveys, small focus groups, e-mail, suggestion boxes, personal interviews, walking the halls, cafeteria, and grounds, or other means to allow others to communicate with you?

Recommendations

Gather feedback on your oral and written communication. Did you reach your intended audience? Did they accurately perceive your message?

Practice skills for listening, i.e., looking at them, nodding your head, summarizing and asking probing questions, etc. Learn to assess body language.

Use meetings for the purpose of meeting versus announcements that could have been put in writing.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be problems with giving, receiving, monitoring or evaluating communication.

Conflict and Issue Resolution

Are the roles of everyone within the organization clearly defined and understood and are differing perspectives and values known and respected?

Conflict between individuals and groups occur in all organizations and are a natural part of social relationships (Wexley & Yukl, 1984). The cause of conflict can be poor communication, differing beliefs and values, inappropriate leadership style, power struggles over scarce resources, competition, personality incompatibilities or the ambiguity or disagreement of role expectations (Gorton & Snowden, 2002). Getzels (1958) described a classic model of role conflict where the needs or expectations of the individual may be different than those of the organization. Hoy and Miskel (2001) found that school administrators spend a substantial amount of time mediating this conflict.

Since conflict cannot be totally eliminated, the leader

should seek to minimize the quantity and severity of conflict. On the positive side, conflicts give the leader an opportunity to resolve issues and take actions that increase effectiveness, efficiency and the overall quality of life within the school. Thomas (1976) identifies five styles of managing conflict: competing, compromising, accommodating, avoiding and collaborating. The competing style is where a directive is given regardless of the competing belief. Compromise may work in the short term but does not totally resolve the conflict. Accommodation is appropriate when the leader is wrong or simply willing to give in to the other side. Avoidance is seldom recommended except for needing to buy time or allow high emotions to subside. The collaboration uses problem solving and is most often recommended.

Problem solving works for individual conflict and group issues over policy, practice, goals and concerns. Most people generally agree on goals but often have legitimate concerns. In resolving issues, the leader seeks to find consensus on the goals and address all concerns. In some instances, some may support Plan A and some Plan B. In other cases, some are for one plan and others are simply against. Resolution comes from deriving Plan C. Plan C would incorporate the goals of Plan A and/or Plan B and address all concerns. Time, effort and meaningful dialogue are necessary to find this resolution. The outcome is an improvement in efficiency, effectiveness and/or a higher quality of life within the school.

Reflection

What is your current belief on conflict—is it an opportunity or something to avoid?

Are all job descriptions truly accurate in listing duties, responsibilities and expectations for the particular position?

Does the faculty really know what other teachers, counselors, secretaries, coaches, administrators and other personnel are trying to accomplish and the demands and obstacles they face?

Are classrooms isolated organizations, or are teachers working together to accomplish a goal?

Recommendations

Solicit from the faculty the expectations they have for you (including their wants and needs). Compare the results with your own perspective. Meet with the faculty, and explore ways to resolve differences.

Place personnel in positions that match their abilities and interests. Clearly define their roles.

Establish trusting relationships between yourself and the faculty. Nurture trusting relationships between individuals and groups.

Establish a culture where freedom of expression is desired and differing perspectives are valued. The goal is better understanding of others and the welfare of all.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be the failure of identifying a conflict or issue or taking steps for resolution.

Motivation

Are the needs of everyone being met and are the processes used to motivate effective?

No human venture succeeds without strongly motivated men and women (Gardner, 1990). Leaders are responsible for policies, practices and actions that foster faculty and student motivation. Although there is no consensus on what motivates people, the conventional wisdom is that different strategies work with different personnel. The leader should be familiar with the major recognized motivational theories and be aware of what affects motivation.

For all practical purposes, behavioral psychology was replaced by cognitive psychology. Yet, schools have traditions grounded in behavioral beliefs, i.e., behavioral objectives, praise and reinforcement, and rewards and punishments. Alfie Kohn (1993) contends that hundreds of studies have shown rewards produce only temporary compliance and that no lasting change in behavior or attitude can be attributed to the use of rewards. Since punishments lead to a breakdown in relationships, leaders should replace punishments with teaching, problem solving and meeting the needs of those not performing or displaying unacceptable behavior.

To increase expertise in motivation, leaders should familiarize themselves with the major theories of motivation. These include Weiner's Attribution Theory (1986), Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory (1957), Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1964), Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs (1954), Herzberg's Motivation and Hygiene Theory (1959), McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory (1961), Ames's Goal Theory (1992) and Glasser's Control Theory (1985).

The two greatest needs to meet for students and faculty are recognition and belonging. Recognition does not mean awards, honor rolls or trophies, but the recognition of a person's abilities, interests and unique self. The successful leader finds time to investigate and let others know that he or she is aware of and values the special gifts of each person. These leaders also find ways for everyone to belong. Recognition and belonging have the greatest effect on those with the most need.

Reflection

What strategies are used to motivate? Are they effective?

For the many teachers and students that you know, could you name any unique abilities and interests? How many have you told?

How many faculty and students feel that they belong to something in the school?

What practices decrease motivation?

Recommendations

Familiarize yourself with the major motivational theories. Investigate which have the greatest results with different faculty and students.

Review Glasser's Choice Theory. Teach students with problems about responsibility of choices, instead of giving punishments in the hopes that learning will occur.

Begin recognizing unique talents. Foster cooperation instead of competition.

Find ways for all to belong (seek input from faculty and students).

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be ineffective motivational strategies, practices that reduce motivation and/or people not finding ways to meet their needs.

References

- Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, Structures, and Student Motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(3), 261-271.
- Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leadership: The Strategies for Taking Charge*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Carnegie, D. (1993). *The Leader in You*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Cohen, M. D., March, J. D., & Olsen, J. P. (1972). A Garbage Can Model of Organizational Choice. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 1-25.
- Etzioni, A. (1967). Mixed Scanning: A Third Approach to Decision Making. *Public Administration Review*, 27, 385-392.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Row & Peterson.
- Fullan, M. (2002). *Leading In a Culture of Change*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Gardner, J. D. (1990). *On Leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Garlow, J. T. (2002). *21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership Tested By Time*. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson.
- Getzels, J. W. (1958). Administration as a Social Process. In A. Halpin (Ed.), *Administration Theory in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Midwest Administration Center.
- Glasser, W. (1985). *Control Theory in the Classroom*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Gorton, R. A. & Snowden, P. E. (2002). *School Leadership and Administration* (6th Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Guarino, S. (1974). *Communication for Supervisors*. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University.
- Herzberg, F., Mauser, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. New York: Wiley.
- Hoy, W. K. & Miskel, C. G. (2001). *Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice* (6th Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoyle, J. (2002). *Leadership and the Force of Love*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Hunter, J. C. (1998). *The Servant: A Simple Story about the True Essence of Leadership*. Prima Publishing

- Jones, L. B. (1995). *Jesus CEO: Using Ancient Wisdom for Visionary Leadership*. New York: Hyperion Press.
- Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by Rewards*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Kotter, J. P. (1998). *What Leaders Really Do*. Harvard Business Review on Leadership. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2002). *The Leadership Challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Krzyzewski, M., & Phillips, D. T. (2000). *Leading with the Heart: Coach K's Successful Strategies for Basketball, Business, and Life*. New York: Warner Books.
- Lindblom, C. E. (1959). *The Science of Muddling Through*. Public Administration Review, 19, 79-99.
- Lipham, J. M. (1964). Leadership and Administration. In Daniel Griffiths (Ed.) *Behavioral Sciences and Educational Administration*. 63rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Martin, G. E., Wright, W. F., & Danzig, A. B. (2003). *School Leader Internship: Developing, Monitoring, and Evaluating your Leadership Experience*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper.
- McClelland, D. (1961). *The Achieving Society*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Simon, H. A. (1947). *Administrative Behavior*. New York: Macmillan.
- Thomas, K. (1976). Conflict and Conflict Management. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 899-936). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Weiner, B. (1986). *An Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion*. New York: Springer.
- Wexley, K. N., & Yukl, G. A. (1984). *Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology*. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irvin.

Educational Leadership: Knowing the Way, Showing the Way, and Going the Way

William J. Leary, Ed.D.
Professor of Education
Lynn University
Boca Raton, Fla.

The National Council of Professors of Educational Administration intends to be seriously involved as a major influence in the reform agenda presently sweeping the country. Its 2004 yearbook, titled *Educational Leadership: Knowing the Way, Showing the Way, and Going the Way*, strives to describe recent organizational activities which have dealt with reforms, as reviewed by a number of contributors active in one way or another, in the study or practice of education administration.

The editors, Carolyn S. Carr, an associate professor in the Graduate School of Education, at Portland State University in Portland, Ore., and Connie Fulmer, the coordinator of the Administrative Leadership and Policy Studies Division in the School of Education at the University of Colorado at Denver, have brought together in this yearbook the thoughts and concepts of a number of scholars and practitioners in the field of administration. I counted 59 contributors, including one co-author who appears in three of the studies, and also the presenters of the Cocking Lecture and the 2003 Living Legend Lecture.

Confusion abounds in establishing a knowledge base in education administration according to several of the authors. For example, in the W. D. Cocking Lecture in 2003, C. M. Achilles of Eastern Michigan University cited a comment by Derek Bok when he was president of Harvard (1987), “because they have neither a strong profession nor distinctive body of knowledge to impart, education faculties have no firm anchor for their programs or curricula. Instead, external forces push them first in one direction, and then in another” (Harvard Magazine, [1987], 89[5], p.46). That is a serious critique of the ability of educators and education researchers to steer their own ship.

In Part II, called Knowing the Way, various contributors describe efforts at establishing or building a knowledge base through instituting cooperative efforts among professors and preK-12 practitioners. One such effort is described by Theodore Creighton of Sam Houston State University. In his essay, “Expanding the Knowledge Base in Educational Administration,” Professor Creighton describes a study in a Texas school district of a high school mathematics program. Working with the school administra-

tion and utilizing the “frames” theory of Deal and Bolman, Creighton and the school administration utilized terminology called “evidence based decision making” to demonstrate how principals lead from “below the surface.” That means examining data more broadly and deeply to investigate, for example, individual mathematics program learning by the students in three high schools. This allows school leaders to expand their decision making beyond the “formal and obvious places.”

In Part III, Showing the Way, the essayists describe particular leadership preparation programs for future principals and superintendents. Of particular interest is a study in Kentucky of 12 female superintendents, and the influence of the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) concerning the role of women in the superintendency. The study indicates that these 12 women may be changing the future path for additional women superintendents. The feminine model of leadership which cultivates respect and emphasizes human relations is one of the ways that these women are opening the door for other female leaders in Kentucky. The researchers also point out that it is not only women who exhibit this kind of leadership behavior, but also this leadership behavior is consistent with leadership styles required to be successful under KERA.

In Part IV, Going the Way, profiles of outstanding female and male superintendents are portrayed. The most riveting finding in this section of the study was that there were more similarities than differences between the two groups. The superintendents agree on the importance of knowledge, vision, integrity and support of family as key ingredients to their success. In addition, they site the significance of obtaining the doctoral degree as an essential element in their career development.

One of the other shared similarities of female and male superintendents was how they used “failure events” in their personal and professional lives. These failure events caused them to reconsider previous behaviors and make life changes in order to evolve and be more successful in the future. In addition, both male and female superintendents demonstrate leadership attributes that are found in the successful careers of managers in the private sector.

Reading the essays presented in *Educational Leadership* will provide the reader with a review of many of the core assumptions of academics and practitioners alike. It’s helpful to “get back to basics” every once in a while.

Reference

(Carr, C. S. & Fulmer, C. L. (Eds.). (2004). *Educational Leadership: Knowing the Way, Going the Way, Showing the Way*. Lanham, MD: ScarecrowEducation. 357 pp. with index.)



Journal of Scholarship & Practice

Contact the Editor

EDITOR, *AASA JOURNAL OF SCHOLARSHIP and PRACTICE*

Frederick Dembowski

Professor

Lynn University

3601 N. Military Trail

Boca Raton, FL 33431-5598

Phone: 561-237-7850

Fax: 561-237-7094

E-mail: fdembowski@lynn.edu

Author Guidelines

The *AASA JOURNAL OF SCHOLARSHIP and PRACTICE* INVITES ARTICLES, COMMENTARIES, NEWS AND NOTES

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* is a refereed, blind-reviewed, quarterly journal with a focus on research and best practices that advance the profession of educational administration. Articles that express a point of view, shed light on a contemporary issue or report findings and conclusions of a field of interest to educational administration professors will be given preference. AASA members are also invited to submit news, notices and announcements relevant to administrators and faculty in higher education. Reactions to previously published articles are also welcome.

Length of manuscripts should be as follows: Articles and case studies between 1,200 and 1,800 words; columns and book and media reviews between 600 and 1,000 words; and commentaries between 400 and 500 words. Citations and references are to follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, latest edition. Permission to use previously copyrighted materials is the responsibility of the author, not the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*. For review purposes, the title of the article, contributor's name, address, title, affiliation (for inclusion on the title page and in the author note), telephone and fax number and e-mail address should appear on a *detachable* cover page. The contributor should indicate whether the submission is to be considered as an article, case study, book or media review or commentary. The type of submission must be indicated on the cover sheet in order to be considered. Four paper copies and one electronic version written in Microsoft Word are required.

Submissions should be mailed to: Frederick L. Dembowski, Editor, *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*, Professor and Coordinator of Educational Leadership and Doctoral Programs, Lynn University, 3601 N. Military Trail, Boca Raton, FL 33431-5598.

Contributors will be notified of board decisions within 90 days of receipt of their papers at the editorial office. Articles to be returned must be accompanied by a postage-paid, self-addressed envelope.

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* reserves the right to make minor editorial changes without seeking approval from contributors.



American Association of School Administrators

NON-PROFIT
U.S. POSTAGE

PAID

PERMIT NO. 137
DULLES, VA