

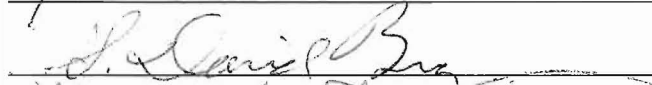
RESPONSE OF PROGRAMS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO ACADEMIC
AND POLITICAL CONTEXTS

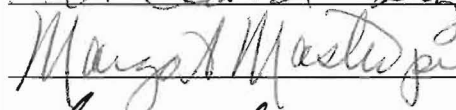
By

Philip V. Robey
A Dissertation
Submitted to the
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of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
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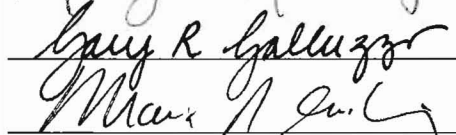
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Spring Semester 2011
George Mason University
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Response of Programs of Educational Leadership Preparation to Academic
and Political Contexts

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy at George Mason University

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my parents, Ann H. and Frank A. Robey, Jr., who instilled in me the importance of being well-educated.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the many people who spurred me on to complete this dissertation, in spite of the fact that I have passed my first half century. To Dr. Scott Bauer, who spent hours of time sifting through, and correcting, my initial dribble. To my committee members, Drs. David Brazer and Margo Mastropieri, who always responded when I sought help. To John, who patiently pushed me on to completion. To Ann and Caroline, who saw me far less than I would have liked. Thank you all.

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Abstract

RESPONSE OF PROGRAMS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PREPARATION TO ACADEMIC AND POLITICAL CONTEXTS

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Research has determined school leaders as the primary influence to overall school success and second only to actual instruction in influencing student achievement. Given the importance of principals, programs of educational leadership preparation have been under scrutiny and pressure to reform by political and academic entities. With the advent of the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership in 2002, programs have been challenged to reform, yet how and whether this reform has taken place remains unanswered. This study uses a mixed methods design to examine how programs leading to certification in school administration have responded. One hundred eighty-one program chairs completed an online survey, with ten then participating in semi-structured phone interviews regarding their perceptions of reform. Data from this study indicate

considerable reform related to twenty-four key program and eleven field-based elements, many of which were pre-existing features before redesign. Most pronounced are reforms involving an increased use of web-based and electronic student assessments, an increase in the number of courses offered online, the requirement for annual course updates, the use of teaching strategies by program faculty that target various learning styles, and more efficient course delivery through classes that are made easily accessible. Field experiences are perceived as longer, both in required hours and requirements, and having greater integration with leadership courses. The main influences driving reform are input from program faculty as well as oversight from state educational offices and accreditation agencies. Analysis showed few differences in responses for university type or UCEA membership status. Qualitative data confirmed these findings but also detailed the pace of reform as varying from one program to another based on levels of pressure from the state and accrediting agencies. Concerns about redesign were centered mostly on increased time requirements for student assessment, and loss of academic freedom and intellectual discourse as a result of mandated national reforms.

Chapter 1

Background

In the face of great competition from abroad, and with the need for greater emphasis on science and technology, the American school system is being challenged in ways that are unprecedented (Gergen, 2005; Keller, 2006; Levine, 2005; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Many suggest schools across the nation are not meeting the needs of American society and it is a concern that the continued decline of America's schools will lead to a loss in leadership stature (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000). As schools continue to wrestle with ways to better the educational process in an ever-changing world, the role of the school leader has emerged as second only to actual instruction as the primary within-school influence on student achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004), and the single most important factor toward overall school success (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004; Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003).

Given the evident importance of school leaders to student achievement, programs of educational leadership preparation have been under scrutiny, and there has been growing pressure emanating from the academy and government for these programs to redesign and reform to better prepare leaders for today's challenging school contexts. Political pressures include the No Child Left Behind laws (U.S. Department of

Education, 2002); licensing, certification, and accreditation requirements held by each of the fifty states; as well as local school district and government mandates.

Academic pressures include a plethora of research which describe many of the training requirements successful school principals need; various associations of higher education professionals calling for better preparation; as well as leadership program faculty and graduates who have seen the need for some program changes first-hand (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) is an organization established to review the quality of colleges of education and decide whether to offer accreditation to each college that applies. Colleges of education are made up of various programs related to education, often (but not always) including programs of educational leadership. Individual programs are not accredited per se, but they are reviewed by specialized professional associations (SPA's) that work with NCATE and offer the potential for programs to receive *national recognition*.

The Educational Leadership Constituents Council (ELCC) is a specialized professional association (SPA) that is governed by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA). NPBEA's purpose is to develop professional standards for educational leadership programs and improve the preparation and practice of school and district leaders. The ELCC trains reviewers to conduct evaluations of educational leadership programs as part of the NCATE accreditation process and determines which programs are deserving of *National Recognition Status*.

Though NCATE accreditation for schools of education usually infers *national recognition* for programs of educational leadership affiliated with those schools, there are cases where programs may not have national recognition while the school has received either full or probationary accreditation. Programs participating in this study need not be nationally recognized but are in schools of education with NCATE accreditation.

In twenty-eight states that have full partnerships with NCATE, programs of educational leadership are required to meet Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership which were established in 2002 as guidelines through which programs can become nationally recognized. In states not in full partnership with NCATE, schools of education can still seek accreditation on their own, and individual leadership programs within those schools may seek national recognition (A. March, Personal Correspondence, February 21, 2011).

Employing a mixed methods design, program chairs were asked for their perceptions of level of reform in their programs and influences on reform since 2002, which is when the ELCC Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership were first put into practice. One hundred eighty-one participants completed the survey and ten chairs participated in interviews out of a total population of three hundred fifty-one programs. Survey results are presented followed by qualitative results that give context and depth to the survey answers.

Statement of the Problem

Almost a decade since the establishment of the Standards for the Advancement of Programs of Educational Leadership in 2002, there is no definitive source of knowledge

detailing how programs have responded or to what extent they are meeting calls for redesign other than that many meet basic requirements for attaining national recognition. Because some programs have been accused of only changing course titles and appearances, it is difficult to tell whether true reform has really occurred (Hess & Kelly, 2007). Thus, this study will examine how masters-level university-based programs of educational leadership, whose programs lead to eligibility for state principal certification, have responded to political and academic calls for redesign and reform since the implementation of the Standards in 2002.

Research has determined that successful principals emphasize certain skills that drive both student achievement and overall school success. For example, principals who are instructional leaders, foster a data driven environment, promote a school climate that is geared toward learning, and work with faculty to define a clear school mission, are more likely to be successful than principals who do not (DuFour, 2002; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Nettles & Herrington, 2007; O'Donnell & White, 2007; Waters & Grubb, 2004). Still, we have yet to learn how to assimilate such knowledge into many preparation programs.

While we are learning more about the traits and behaviors of successful school leaders, some university preparation programs have been accused of being notoriously inadequate in training future principals and providing them with less than meaningful field-based experiences (Levine, 2005; NASBE, 1999). Programs continue to be criticized for centering too much on theory and too little on actual practice and experience. As Grogan and Andrews (2002) note:

Most university-based programs for training of aspiring principals and superintendents might best be characterized as preparing aspiring principals and superintendents for the role of a top down manager. The knowledge base deemed essential for educational leaders has been created around management concepts, such as planning, organizing, financing, supervising, budgeting, scheduling, and so on, rather than on the development of relationships and caring environments within schools that promote learning. Principal and superintendent graduates of the programs are mainly concerned with control through mandates, rules, regulations, and focusing their attention on supervision and incentives as strategies for working with the district and school staff. (p. 239)

Redesigning leadership programs can be complicated and difficult. Because states specify the requirements for licensure, they influence the extent to which principal preparation programs can change. While the faculty of university-based programs may desire certain reforms or simply be aware of the need for reform, they are often limited by the state, which may operate by a different agenda. Further, various states have charted a path to reform, some prescribing elements of change, and others encouraging reform:

Although the central purpose of (these) state reforms was always to improve program quality, there were broader purposes at play. For example, in a state where research had indicated that certified administrators were both in over supply and of uneven quality, the state set a limit on the number of programs and used the process to weed out the

weakest among the existing preparation programs. Some states clearly have intended to assert state authority to raise the overall level of program quality and to clean out programs of poor quality, whereas other states have been less directive, using a “critical friends review” to educate and inspire commitment to high quality among all interested university programs. (Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy ,2008, p. 2183).

Given states’ roles in setting requirements for education leadership licensure, offerings by programs of educational leadership have continued to vary (Murphy, 1998). More recently, many states have turned to ELCC through partnership, in order to implement national guidelines on program reform.

Purpose

This study examines how university-based programs of education leadership are responding to research on school leadership preparation and political demands that programs meet licensure criteria. It draws from the influences that led to the creation of the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership (school leadership failure, changing roles of school leaders, increased research on effective leadership and preparation, and federal and state influences on school leader preparation) and it considers how university-based programs have pursued change in the ways that school leaders are prepared.

After review of research detailing both the historical and currently perceived shortcomings of educational leadership programs, three research questions were formed that frame the study. These are as follows:

- To what extent have programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
- To what extent have field experiences in programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
- What factors either facilitated or constrained reform/redesign?

Significance

This information is important because it contributes to the growing body of knowledge that links school leadership with student achievement and overall school success. It addresses a gap in the research literature, providing needed information of the nature and extent of reform of leadership preparation programs (Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008; Petzko, 2008) information that is important to providers of such services as well as policy makers at state and local levels. Given what is known about effective school leaders and their influence on student learning, information gathered in this study may be of great importance to state and federal education officials, local school districts, and all who are concerned with the quality of American education. Further, it provides useful information related to the state of preparation programs, replacing platitudes and anecdotes about the supposed state of the field with empirical data related to reform.

This study may serve as the first step toward other research that further delves into the valuable subject area and provides a base by which to inform states and ELCC in their quest to reform leadership preparation. Continued inquiry in the subject can lead to improved redesign efforts and wider knowledge of its benefits (Waters & Grubb, 2004b).

For the researcher, the study highlights some of the challenges faced by educational leadership preparation programs and provides context into how all types of educational preparation programs are reacting to “being blamed for intractable social problems they did not create and cannot solve” (Berry & Beach, (2009). It is of interest to determine how preparation programs are responding to pressures to reform and predict where these reforms will ultimately lead in university climates that traditionally value academic freedom and research.

Limitations

Those who responded to the invitation to take an online survey were asked in the first section to confirm their qualification in four ways: they are currently acting as program chair/coordinator or did so during the 2010-11 school year; their programs are in schools that are accredited or seeking to become accredited by NCATE; their programs have been in existence since 2002; and their programs prepare candidates for eligibility for licensure as school leaders. Those who did not meet the four components were asked not to continue the survey. Thus, one limitation is that only those who meet the above qualifications were allowed to participate.

The study was based on the perceptions of participants, namely chairs of leadership preparation programs. Though survey questions were purposely crafted to be straightforward, the inherent nature of using a survey as a data collection tool relies on opinion and truthfulness. Some degree of response bias is possible. As there are no ways to measure accuracy independently, a limitation exists in the degree of willingness of participants to be truthful and accurate in their answers.

Because this is a study that measures reform across time, some answers are dependent on the ability of participants to remember correctly or to be able to access information from 2002. While most reforms since 2002 followed ELCC and/or state guidelines and are relatively easy to recall, some may not fall into that description. For instance, respondents were asked to provide the enrollment of their program in 2002, as well as to report the number of hours involved in their students' internship. Some program chairs may not be as accurate in their reporting about descriptions of what was in place in 2002 as others.

The survey ends with a section inviting further participation in an interview. Thus, participants for the qualitative portion were selected from nineteen who volunteered to take part. Though participants were chosen from this pool purposefully, it would not be accurate to suggest that the participants were chosen randomly. Certain attributes that could influence perspectives may exist for participants who are both willing to participate and those who respond earlier than others to such invitations.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used in this study and are defined here:

- ELCC – Educational Leadership Constituent Council. This is the specialized professional association that is part of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration. The ELCC trains reviewers to conduct evaluations of educational leadership programs as part of the NCATE accreditation process and determines which programs are deserving of the *National Recognition* status.

- High levels of perceived reform – a phrase related to the presentation of data in chapter 4. This indicates levels of perceived reform at between 60% and 100%.
- Low levels of perceived reform – a phrase related to the presentation of data in chapter 4. This indicates levels of perceived reform at less than 20%.
- Moderate levels of perceived reform – In this paper a phrase related to perceptions of reform as determined in the presentation of the quantitative data. It indicates perceptions ranging in the 20% - 30% range.
- NCATE – The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education was founded in 1954 to accredit teacher certification programs at U.S. colleges and universities. It currently offers accreditation to schools of education through a voluntary peer review on a seven year cycle.
- NPBEA – The National Policy Board for Educational Administration is a national consortium of major stakeholders in educational leadership and policy founded in 1988. The purpose of NPBEA is to develop professional standards for educational leadership programs and improve the preparation and practice of school and district leaders.
- Program of educational leadership – Programs that educate and train future school leaders - usually toward the satisfaction of licensure

requirements. They are most often found within schools of education in colleges and universities.

- Reform – To put or change into improved form or condition.
- Significant levels of reform – as used in this paper to signify perceived reform between 30% and 70%.
- SPA- Specialized professional association – These organizations provide standards for and conduct evaluations of various educational programs as part of the NCATE accreditation process.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The literature review in this study is centered on educational leadership and the preparation of educational leaders. In order to understand the issues being addressed, knowledge of this topic necessarily involves a brief investigation into the history of school leadership preparation and how we have gotten to where we are today; an examination of research justifying the importance of school leaders to student achievement; and an explanation of how programs of educational leadership preparation are currently being challenged to reform. In addition, elements of institutional theory and the concept of isomorphism will be discussed as these pertain to expectations for the nature of institutional change of the type studied.

A Brief History of Educational Leadership Preparation

In understanding how programs of educational leadership have come to be under pressure for change, one need to only look at how conceptions of school leaders and the ways they are trained have evolved over history. For the most part, the role of principal in American schools evolved and developed in the early twentieth century. Principals were originally concerned with keeping ties between the family and the school, as well as influencing pedagogy. They were trained in much the same manner as teachers and were considered the principal teacher and a supervisor of teachers. What formal training that

did exist for school administrators included some concepts associated with scientific management, but little in the sense of formal methods of administration (Grogan & Young, 2002; Murphy, 1998).

Though the University of Michigan and Columbia University are both credited with being on the forefront of educational leadership training in the latter part of the 1800's, any formal training that existed for school administrators was undeveloped by today's standards. In 1875, William Payne, a school superintendent in Michigan wrote the first book in America on school leadership and is credited with having developed and taught the first college-level course in school administration (Callahan & Button, 1964, as cited in Murphy, 1998). Still, university-based training for school personnel revolved around teachers and it was commonly felt until the early 1900's that the better teachers could simply be elevated to the role of school manager without further formal education (Callahan, 1962).

From the era of scientific management, and up through the mid-1940s, Americans faced the influences of a continued industrial emphasis, the influence of the depression, and two world wars. American ideology sought to professionalize bureaucracies and place them in the hands of trained executives with leadership traits modeled on industry and business. Given that specific traits were expected of school leaders, the professionalized training of elementary and secondary school leadership was expanded (Murphy, 1998). The investiture of such training in colleges and universities was seen, in part, as a complement to the other partners in education: parents and politicians, who mostly lacked formal training in their roles. Thus, trained educators would advance

specialization and knowledge in the field in an impartial and standardized way (McCarthy, 2002).

Over time, the number of university-based educational leadership training programs multiplied as more and more states required formal coursework in educational administration for school leadership positions, and states came to certify administrators based on graduation from such programs (Moore, 1964, as cited in Murphy, 1998). This led the way to a great deal of educational research and surveys of what leadership traits were most effective for well-run schools, which then led to the development of curriculum guides and systematic public education (Grant & Murray, 1996). By the mid-1940's, approximately 125 institutions were engaged in school administrator preparation (Murphy, 1998).

During the 1950's, most states required some coursework in administration for licensure while some were beginning to require a Masters degree (McCarthy, 2002). This period in time saw the furthering of educational administration as a specialized profession, and requirements for the licensure of educational leaders continued to evolve. Each state held its own prerequisites for school leader licensure, and university-based preparation programs provided what was needed under the parameters of individual state licensure requirements. Little in the way of leadership training ran across states, and states were relatively independent from one another in what they wanted programs to provide (Murphy, 2003).

The late 1940's into the 1950's also saw the establishment of some important professional associations that influenced the way that educational leaders are prepared. In

1947, the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) was established as the first interstate cooperative of instructors in the field of educational leadership. As a group, they were able to do what individual states could not: begin talking about normative styles of training and expectations that are not bounded by states. In 1954, eight universities were linked together by the Kellogg Foundation to form the Cooperative Project in Educational Administration (CPEA) which was charged with instituting changes in programs of educational leadership. During that same year, five groups were instrumental in the formation of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Two other committees, the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA) in 1955, and the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) in 1956, helped shape how the profession of educational leadership was regarded in terms of professionalism and importance.

Though various academic associations were begun in the years just before and after 1950, few held enough clout to affect more than moderate change on education as a national institution. When, in the 1960's, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) recommended national, common standards for the education of teachers and others in the education profession, the recommended standards were relatively vague (Mackey, McHenry, & Einreinhofer, 2003) with a heavy reliance on social science content (Miklos, 1983). During this time, and up until the 1980's, many states continued to set only minimum standards for school leader licensure programs. The emphasis was more on the type of coursework offered and

how the training was structured, versus how well candidates were prepared to take their positions as school leaders upon program completion (Achilles, 1994).

From the 1940's and through the 1970's, tremendous growth took place in the number of university-based preparations programs in the United States and the number of doctoral and master's degree programs tripled. By the mid-1970's, there were around 375 institutions offering graduate level degrees in educational administration, with about 320 master's degree level programs topping the list (McCarthy, 1999b; Miklos, 1983). Murphy (1998) states that by the mid-1980's, there were over 500 institutions in the business of preparing school leaders in programs leading toward degrees and/or eligibility for licensure. In recent years, the number of preparation programs has remained fairly steady, though an increase of preparation programs in smaller colleges and universities has been noted by several authors (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007).

With the 1970's came the effective schools movement (Lezotte & McKee, 2007), which proposed the idea that all children, regardless of background, can be taught the intended curriculum and held to high academic standards enabling all students to achieve successfully at the next grade level if certain organizing and cultural characteristics are met (National Center for Effective Schools Foundation, 1995). For educational leadership, the effective schools movement was particularly poignant in that it established the role of the principal as instructional leader as of primary importance to overall school success. Research determined that several areas of school life influenced by the school principal correlate to success for students regardless of socio-economic background

(Lezotte & McKee, 2007). This was important for the future preparation of school leaders because it gave guidance that could be used in educational leadership preparation.

A well-documented challenge to American school systems and their leaders came in 1983 with the publishing of the government report, *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1982), which decried the American educational system's inability to match the level of student achievement of other nations. Citing national assessment results, the report said that American students were losing out in the critical areas of math and science because of lack of instructional rigor in school systems that failed to keep students challenged. Though the report itself is only 31 pages, it created a public outrage.

States responded to the cry for reform in either of two ways: One was to increase and intensify state regulation, ensure that state standards were high enough, and work to more closely align them with P-12 education (Cibulka, 2009, Hess & Kelly, 2005b). This resulted in increased graduation requirements, additional testing programs, a lengthened school day and year, added homework requirements, and mandated teacher evaluations. In short, some states tightened their systems along the lines that the report advised while significantly increasing funding for education (Cohen, 2003). States that followed a different path wanted to dismantle and decrease state regulation and opt for competitive markets to weed out ineffective Pre-k-12 school programs in favor of stronger ones (Hess & Kelly, 2005b; Cibulka, 2009).

Along with cries for better schools in the 1980's came pressure for greater reform of educator licensing and preparation programs (Imig & Imig, 2008) and a greater push

for the need to align preparation programs from state to state. In 1987, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) created the Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) in order to help states with licensing standards for educators. This moved to an in-depth examination of standards for teacher and principal preparation, and efforts to help states make preparation programs more relevant. This was the beginning of a national movement toward establishing national standards between states, in cooperation with the academic field that has led to a greater push for educational leadership program reform (Murphy, 2005; Murphy, Yff, & Shipman, 2000). It also was a part of a much broader standards movement which was a result of the 1986 Report of the National Governor's Association, *Time for Results*, which pushed for an array of reforms including the need for better selection, training, support and evaluation of school leaders.

In 1987, a high-profile report by the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEAA) titled *Leaders for America's Schools* (University Council for Educational Administration) responded to the increased pressure on schools and universities for better preparation of educational leaders. This resulted in increased efforts to improve the quality of leadership in American schools and school systems, resulting in a focus on training programs that prepare future leaders. The actual body of this work consists of a report and various papers by scholars from the United States, Australia, and Canada. Overall, *Leaders for America's Schools* intended to make an appeal for national recognition of what is being asked of school leaders, how this will

continue to change in the future, and how we need to better prepare leaders for the challenges they will face.

Shortly thereafter, in 1988, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) was established with the charge to study, design, and build a leadership infrastructure for schooling. In January 1990, NPBEA published the report, *Improving the Preparation of School Administrators*, in which it specified nine agenda items for improving the leadership of America's elementary and secondary schools by improving preparation programs. These included establishing vigorous recruitment strategies; elevating entrance standards; strengthening faculty recruitment and keeping at least five full-time program faculty on staff; making the Ed.D. a prerequisite to national certification and state licensure in school administration; providing a year long, full-time academic residency; instituting a common core of knowledge and skills in curriculum; increasing long-term partnerships between universities and school districts; establishing a national professional standards board consisting of practicing school administrators; and establishing national accreditation of administrator preparation programs by which programs must meet certain standards.

While both of the previously referenced reports had their share of critics, they were broad and bold enough to firmly enunciate the feelings of many in the educational field about school leader preparation and this paved the way for improvement. Around this time, the University Council for Education (UCEA) published a report on the professorate in educational administration, which also addressed some of the concerns about school leadership preparation programs and what could be done to improve them

(McCarthy, Kuh, Newell, & Iacona, 1988). The report sought to influence state, federal, and international policymakers toward greater reform in educational leadership preparation.

In the 1990's, research on the topic of educational leadership preparation continued to increase and various studies were published which examined educational leadership preparation. In 1994, a consortium of 24 states' representatives teamed up with policy makers, academics, and key professional associations to form the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). Two years later, the ISLLC published a comprehensive set of Standards for School Leaders which were to serve as a framework for successful school leadership. The objective of the Consortium was to create a set of standards that would serve as a basis to reshape the profession of school administration in the United States and to direct action in the academic, policy and practice domains of the profession in a consistent manner across various strategy leverage points: licensure, professional development, and administrator evaluation (Murphy, Yff, & Shipman, 2000). Because they involve more than just educational leadership training, *ISLLC Standards* were meant to "influence the leadership skills of existing school leaders as much as they were to shape the knowledge, performances, and skills of prospective leadership in preparation programs" (Murphy, 2005, p. 156).

Standards proponents note that the standards are based on research and have widespread professional support for providing a much needed framework for reorienting the work of educators toward advancing the educational well-being of youngsters. Most importantly, the Standards and the intellectual pillars which support them, recognize that

the role of the principal has evolved from that of manager to one of educational leader (Lashway, 2003; Murphy, 2005).

Standards detractors have taken a different view. English (2000) says, “Some dispositions and performances which comprise the standards are neither scientific (research based) nor empirically supportable. The standards are ambiguous and not without internal contradictions” (p. 159). Central to this is that the standards make assumptions about what is and is not knowledge of leadership, and proponents have managed to influence law makers to take this view. Boeckman and Dickinson (2001) raise concern that the standards were created at high bureaucratic levels. Though the values of ISLLC are apparently shared by educational leaders, their study shows that the standards are rarely used much in the day-to-day. “What may appear to be reasonable standards to guide leadership of national organizations and political offices could, in effect, have little value to the rank-and-file educational leaders” (p. 495).

Testing for the ISLLC Standards came in the form of the School Leader Licensure Assessment (SLLA), which was created and is administered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). Based on preparation in the ISLLC Standards, this exam is increasingly being required for certification in school leadership by states across the country. Originally an all-essay exam, the SLLA now includes a mix of multiple choice and essay questions based on problematic situations administrators might face in their jobs. With the establishment and implementation of the SLLA, states have begun to widely apply uniform content for licensing which has implications for leadership programs. For

example, the percentage of program graduates who score above a minimum standard on the SLLA has become an important content standard within the ELCC framework.

While the emergence of the ISLLC Standards represents one of the major influences on how school leaders should practice, between 1986 and 1994 a shift in how leadership candidates were being prepared was also taking shape. While up to the 1980's, school leader preparation tended to deal with matters involving standard management skills (i.e., budget, facilities, personnel management, and maintaining order), by 1994 the emphasis had shifted to problem solving and cultural diversity issues (McCarthy & Kuh, 1997). This continued to evolve to a concern with instructional effectiveness and how school leaders could influence improvement in instruction (Camburn, Spillane, & Sebastian, 2010). The main thrust was that the school and school leader were expected to deal with more than managing an efficient organization. For preparation programs, the shift in expectations meant educating school administrators for a complicated task. Some had already wondered whether many preparation programs were up to the task of educating leaders and recommended that many programs be closed to give greater focus and quality to those that remained (NPBEA, 1989).

In 1997, McCarthy and Kuh detailed characteristics of educational leadership units and how they had changed. Noting that in the nine years previous to their study (1986-1994), more than two fifths (41%) of program heads reported some kind of departmental reorganization, they found that the most common reform was in the combining of educational leadership units with other program units to form larger

programs in educational administration. This spurred increases in the number of faculty and number of leadership units that were being reported in official tallies.

Despite calls for the reduction in the number of leadership preparation programs nationally (NPBEA, 1989; Thomson, 1993 as found in McCarthy & Kuh, 1997), the number remained largely stable through the 1990's. More recently, Orr, Baker, and Young (2007) reported that smaller colleges have been adding departments of education and programs of educational leadership preparation, and as well there have been an increased number of programs that are not university-based, hence the number of preparation programs continues to increase.

In 2002, the ELCC issued its *Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership* to incorporate ISLLC Standards. ELCC recommends leadership programs for national recognition to NCATE, which was established in 1954 as an independent mechanism to regulate the training of teachers in colleges and universities. NCATE currently accredits over 630 colleges of education (H. Fede, personal communication, October 16, 2009). While largely consistent with the ISLLC standards, the ELCC standards are framed in terms of what aspirants for leadership roles should know and be able to do instead of focusing on the performance of in-service school leaders.

In 2008, twelve years after the publishing of the original ISLLC Standards, newly revised policy standards were published that are intended to reflect newer research and consensus on characteristics of good educational leaders, the roles principals play in raising student achievement, and the best practices by which principals and other school leaders help raise student achievement. The authors of the new standards say they are

designed to provide greater flexibility in how leadership preparation programs define and view leadership. Though very similar to the 1996 standards, the 2008 version emphasize “education leader” versus “school administrator” and use the phrase “every student” instead of “all students” (Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), 2008). They continue to be a major benchmark for candidate assessment and are used as a basis for the School Leader Licensure Assessment (Cibulka, 2009). Following the revision of the ISLLC standards, the ELCC standards are currently under revision.

Attributes of Effective School Leaders

Central to the drive to establish and continuously fine-tune programs of educational leadership is the emerging knowledge base on attributes of school leaders who will be effective in carrying out the multitude of tasks required for leading educational institutions. This section discusses some of the research on the proven traits of successful school administrators.

Though university-based programs of initial licensure are only one part of the learning system for new school leaders, they are under increased pressure to change in part because the role of school administrators has become more complex and demanding. Principals who are not well prepared for leadership in the current, standards-based climate for schools often lack skills in consensus-building or in promoting faculty collaboration, have little experience with data or data-driven instruction, and do not have good instructional focus. Their schools often fail to show increased student achievement which can put them at risk for local intervention or even state takeover (National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality, 2007).

Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Meyerson (2005) point out that the most important aspects of a school leader's job have converged into three main categories:

1. Developing a deep understanding of how to support teachers;
2. Managing the curriculum in ways that promote student learning; and
3. Developing the ability to transform schools into more effective organizations that foster powerful teaching and learning for all students. (page 5)

A focus on instruction and student learning by the school leader is an important attribute that can lead to greater student achievement. Principals who visit classrooms often, teach on occasion themselves, and take an active interest in the engagement of students through good pedagogy are more inclined to see students in their schools achieve than those who do not (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Waters et al, 2003). To support instructional focus, school leaders must work with teachers both in and out of the classroom to insure high-performance planning for classes, instruction that is rooted in what data tells instructors is most needed, and creative and engaging instruction that insures success for all students (O'Donnell & White, 2005).

While the emphasis on moving student achievement in a positive direction once centered solely on methods of teaching, greater recognition is now being given to what school leaders can do to drive achievement (Nettles & Herrington, 2007). As new research on school principals has come to establish that the most effective are those who act as instructional leaders (Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008), educational leadership has continued to evolve. Schools, particularly those in low income areas with high minority

populations, often show increased achievement when there is a principal who is versed in the role of instructional leader (Smith & Andrews, 1989). This means that principals can no longer afford to act solely as building managers or social workers, and yet all too often, these roles continue demand the time of the school administrator.

School administrators who show instructional leadership prowess exhibit specific behaviors such as making suggestions to teachers about instruction, giving feedback about observed classroom performance, modeling effective teaching, asking staff for opinions about what does and does not work in the classroom, supporting teacher collaboration, providing professional development and opportunities for such, and praising those who are effective teachers (Blase & Blasé, 2000; Nettles & Herrington, 2007). This suggests that school leaders who best drive instruction are those who work closely with their teachers and listen to and support them. Such principals are also inclined to share leadership opportunities with others and ask for opinions before making major school decisions (Leithwood, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2007). Given this form of distributive leadership, principals must be able to make decisions, but must build a collaborative structure with teachers while implementing programs that are in the best interests of students (Gronn, 2008; Leithwood & Reihl, 2003).

Principals are effective leaders when they provide a safe and orderly environment where students are free from bullying, harassment and fear, and simple behaviors such as being in class on-time with necessary learning materials are widely articulated and expected (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996; Lindahl, 2006). Thus, principals who are effective in providing such a climate set and communicate reasonable standards for

behavior with other school members, implement effective processes to make sure that such standards are consistently applied to every student, and insist on shared responsibility for the continuance of such standards and processes with all members of the school educational staff (Cotton, 2003, Leitner, 1994, Marcoulides & Heck, 1993, Scheurich, 1998). Such principals are also supportive to teachers when they need to be supported and work to make sure teaching can take place unencumbered by negative student behaviors (Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003).

A clear school mission is also an important component of a school that is successful and school leaders that move successful schools toward achievement are both knowledgeable of the school's mission and take steps to insure that this mission is widely disseminated and articulated around the building (Jacobson, Johnson, Ylimaki, & Giles, 2005; Scheurich, 1998). It is important that all parts of the school have a clear conception of where the school is headed, what values are most important, and why (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

The school principal's own background and values can come into play when relating leadership to overall school success and a school administrator who leads a school toward improvement is likely to value a challenging curriculum and skilled teaching (Dillard, 1995; Hallinger & Heck, 2002) Having high expectations and sharing those expectations with all students and staff is important for great teaching that focuses on student needs and achievement. Having a staff that prioritizes student achievement must be a primary goal as is the need for them to manage time and energy toward instructional priorities (Heck, 1993; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Waters et al; 2003)

School leaders must encourage, support and expect that all who are involved in the educational process participate in regular, high-level professional development (Leitner, 1994, Levine & Lezotte, 1990; Nettles & Herrington, 2007). Principals need to work with teams both in the school and within the school district to locate high quality professional development activities and providers, and make both funding and time for participation in such activities a high priority for instructional faculty. Through this participation faculty not only learn new techniques for student engagement and management, they also receive the subtle message that the school's leader takes their continued development seriously and invests in such as needed (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Murphy, 1990).

Successful schools enjoy highly supportive and participative parents and community leaders who are actively engaged in helping faculty and staff meet the mission of the school (Leithwood & Reihl, 2003). School leaders can invoke greater understanding, participation, and feelings of ownership by various stakeholders by giving parents and others who may not be employed directly in a school decision-making authority over some issues related to what and how instruction occurs and the degree of interaction allowed and encouraged between those who actually work in a school and those who are members of the school's community (Leithwood, 2005). Community partnerships are especially important where some factions of the local neighborhood may view schools with suspicion and hesitation because of issues related to ethnic and cultural diversity. Here is where building relationships between schools and community is as important as promoting inclusive school cultures (Reihl, 2000).

In sum, the vision of an effective school leader as primarily a manager has given way to a more holistic, encompassing view of the instructional leader as well-versed in human resource development, problem solving, and the ability to shape a positive school culture. As such, it has become imperative that preparation programs focus more on those leadership attributes that will enable school administrators to drive better instruction and student achievement than those dealing with simply keeping order. It remains unclear, however, if this is being done due to the lack of empirical information on what reforms have been implemented and to what extent they may be implemented. The following section reveals some of the challenges that programs face as pressures for reform continue to mount.

Continued Challenges for Educational Leadership Preparation

Programs of educational leadership preparation are seeing an increased urgency for change in the ways that they do business (Levine, 2005) but have sometimes also been noted for being out-of-touch with what future school leaders need (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1999; Milstein, 1999). It is alleged that many programs are mired in traditional lines of thought and steeped in theory that is not usually put into practice, as the needs of school leaders have grown and become exponentially more complicated (Hale & Moorman, 2003; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000; Lashway, 2003; Levine, 2005; Murphy, 2006). Programs that appear to have made an effort toward reform are sometimes accused of having a “meet the minimal standards” kind of ideology that leaves future school leaders without many of the critical skills that they will need for future success (Hale & Moorman, 2003).

As seen through a quick review of the history of educational leadership preparation, much of the shift in the perceived role and importance of school leaders has caused increased attention to the ways that such leaders are prepared. More recently, there have been a number of high-publicity attacks on university-based programs of school leadership preparation, articulating a rationale for pressure to either reform these programs or shut them down. Publication of these reports has tended to result in political pressure from the statehouse, and on occasion, state action to reform programs. The following reviews the most important of these reports.

The report, *Better Leaders for America's Schools: A Manifesto* (2003) sponsored jointly by the Fordham Foundation and the Broad Foundation, focuses on the crises in educational leadership and says that traditional training and preparation are not enough to remedy the situation. Citing the many pressures on school administrators, often political in nature, it urges states and school systems to consider pursuing non-traditional school leaders from outside the field of education and paying them salaries that are on par with that which executives earn in other fields. Taking the position that in the future we will not find enough school leaders who are trained and licensed in the traditional way, it supports giving school leaders vast authority over staffing, operations, and budgets to degrees that school administrators have not previously had.

The notion that we will fall short of educational leaders has been argued from both sides. Mitgang (2003) states that while some districts have problems attracting adequate pools of certified principals there is not really a shortage of such candidates. Rather, the problem is that few principals are willing to go where they are most needed.

In addition, many candidates simply shun principal jobs because they are so complex and over-whelming. Young and Creighton (2002) argue that at the core of both the quality (i.e., preparation) and quantity (i.e., shortage) problems are traditional university educational leadership preparation programs. While many program faculty consider the negative views of preparation programs to be unfair overgeneralizations, most agree that there are too many ineffective programs currently operating and thus consider much of the criticism warranted and justified (Young & McLeod, 2001).

Further criticisms were fueled by the high-profile report *Educating School Leaders* (2005) by former Columbia Teachers College President Arthur Levine. Levine writes a scathing description of university-based programs of educational leadership stating that only a small number are doing a good job. Using a nine-point template for judging the quality of programs – purpose, curricular coherence, curricular balance, faculty composition, admissions, degrees, research, finances, and assessment – he raises the alarm that almost all school leaders in the United States were trained through these university-based programs and nearly all of the programs do a poor job. Levine favors a national university that trains future school leaders, similar to an established program in England (p. 53).

Many critics agree with Levine's call for higher standards in education leadership programs along with financial practices that adequately support them. They note, however, that Levine seems to ignore the argument that many preparation programs have begun vast changes with focused and effective efforts to improve leadership preparation (Young, Crow, Orr, Ogawa, & Creighton, 2005; Smith, 2005; Torres, 2005). Other

scholars (Bush, 2006) have questioned the notion of a national college for school leadership, noting the program in England has limited expectations for its participants and, while it gives a great amount of attention to leader practices, it pays too little attention to theory and research.

Baker, Orr, and Young (2007) note that there has been a rise in the number of programs of educational leadership preparation located in many smaller, less research-oriented institutions. Using a Carnegie Institute classification that groups universities and colleges by size, level of graduate courses, and amount of annual research funding, the point is made that some smaller, less research-oriented universities and colleges have recently added departments of education with programs of leadership preparation. Many of these programs may be less able to provide materials and opportunities for scholarship than those found in larger, more research-oriented universities and they are often regarded as easier to gain admission to than more traditional research universities. Some colleges are accused of adding departments of education because such programs often make money which is sometimes diverted by university leaders into less profitable programs (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007; Levine, 2005; Orr, 2007).

Two experts on preparation programs, James Guthrie, the chairman of the educational leadership department at Vanderbilt University, and Ted Sanders, the chief executive of the Education Commission of the States, wrote in 2001 of the state of such programs:

Over the past quarter century, university preparation of educational administrators has fallen into a downward spiral dominated by low-

prestige institutions, diploma mills, outmoded instruction, and low expectations. Many of these sub-par training programs have virtually no entrance requirements, save an applicant's ability to pay tuition. The doctor of education (Ed.D) degrees they confer have lost their salience. In former times big-league education leaders tended to be graduates of institutions like Harvard, Yale, Duke, or the University of Chicago. This is no longer true....Today's conventionally prepared superintendent is more likely to have come from East Appalachia State, San Francisco State, or literally hundreds of other public institutions that began as normal schools and politically bootstrapped themselves to graduate degree status (Young, Peterson & Short, 2002, p. 139).

As seen from the context of history and what has been presented from the literature, the position that there are problems in preparation programs is not new. In 1987, the UCEA-sponsored panel, the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration prepared the report *Leaders for America's Schools*, which identified problem areas in leadership and preparation including the following:

- The lack of a definition of good educational leadership
- An absence of collaboration between school districts and colleges and universities;
- A lack of systemic professional development;
- The poor quality of candidates for preparation programs
- The irrelevance of preparation programs, with many programs devoid of

sequence, modern content, and clinical experiences;

- The need for licensure systems that promote excellence;
- An absence of a national sense of cooperation in preparing school leaders. (pp. 13-14, UCEA, 1987)

The report suggests that public schools should share responsibility for principal preparation, state policymakers should base licensure on methods that are proven to effectively equip a school leader, and universities unable or unwilling to offer effective preparation programs should cease doing so. On the last point, it should be noted that the report suggests closing 300 of 500 programs nationwide.

Though it has been twenty-three years since the publication of *Leaders for America's Schools*, each area listed above, and a few not listed, is still a focus for concern. In 2002, Jackson & Kelly pointed out that, on the whole, programs of educational leadership preparation continue to lack in many of the areas specified in the NCEE report. Below is an elaboration of each matched with more contemporary research that supports the Jackson and Kelly position:

The inadequate delivery of a common knowledge base. In order to address the apparent lack of a common knowledge base in educational leadership, in the early-1990s, the UCEA brought together scholars who arrived at a system of documents called *Primis*. This served as a springboard for greater discussion on exactly what school leaders need to know in order to be effective (Jackson & Kelly, 2002). Soon after, the ISLLC was established leading to the development of the ISLLC standards, which first debuted in 1997. These provide nationally-recognized pillars for a knowledge base in school

administration (Jackson & Kelly, 2002) but are not, in themselves, a complete knowledge base. “Despite the criticisms, the ISLLC standards are an important development in the field of educational leadership. They were never intended to be all-inclusive. Rather, they were intended as indicators of knowledge, dispositions and performances important to effective school leadership” (Hale & Moorman, 2003, p. 6). Between its founding in the 1950’s through the mid-1990’s, UCEA made several efforts to arrive at a knowledge base scholars could agree on only to face continued criticism and debate as to whether such should be rooted in academics or practice (Cibulka, 2009).

Some innovative programs are increasingly building on characteristics of principal preparation which research has determined to be promising (Hoyle, 2004; Jackson & Kelly, 2002). Such initiatives include problem-based learning within the context of actual use (Bridges & Hallinger, 1997, Hart & Pounder, 1999), the use of cohorts for stronger social and interpersonal relationships (Teitel, 1997), expanded field experiences which allow future leaders to observe and participate in addressing problems (Hallinger, Leithwood, & Murphy, 1993) and greater use of technology (Jackson & Kelly, 2002). Orr (2006) notes that the content of many programs has shifted from a focus on management to a focus on school improvement and transformational leadership that highlights using problem-based curricula. Still, leadership programs have continued to get less than stellar grades from principals and researchers themselves, and even with the ISLLC standards, they continue to be in need of more intense reform (Hunter & Moorman, 2003; Quinn, 2005).

An absence of cooperation between school districts and leadership programs.

The issue of communication between school districts and university preparation programs points to a driving force behind the overall problem of leadership preparation. Leadership faculty and field practitioners in school have been traditionally isolated from one another, remaining separated when they should be coming together for the common goal of building effective school leaders (Goduto, Doolittle & Leake, 2008). School districts must participate in the selection and education of future school leaders, not simply send them to a university for a program that bears no relevance to real life (Goldring & Sims, 2005). School districts can provide the venue for field-based placement, assist university programs in recruiting top educators for leadership roles, and aid universities in determining what principals need to know in order to solve everyday administrative problems (Barnett, 2004; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

A lack of systematic professional development for program faculty. Given that many programs of educational leadership preparation are accused of being too static, it is no surprise that many lack necessary professional development that would better inform faculty on trends and best practices in leadership education. One common criticism of programs is that they teach theory, but fail to adequately link such theory to practice. Unfortunately, in states with shrinking support for higher education, reduced resources have not allowed much in the way of faculty professional development (Young, Peterson, & Short 2002). Professional development for faculty might alert them to program changes that are needed in order to better prepare students and how to make such changes (Jackson & Kelley, 2002). As Young and Creighton (2002) state,

“Recognizing and admitting our weaknesses are crucial and a necessary process in growth and improvement. Equally important is the identification of and focus on the strengths of our professions (e.g., exemplary programs), to ensure that our policy and practice decisions are informed by effective practice and based on accurate and reliable data” (p. 234).

The poor quality of some candidates for admission. Admissions criteria in many programs are lax and often students themselves are seeking graduate credit for additional pay with no intention of entering the field of educational leadership (SREB, 2007). While some might argue that teachers taking leadership courses may contribute to the overall sense of shared leadership in schools, this fails to address the more relevant point as to whether this is helping programs to produce better trained school administrators. The large numbers of departments of education that have sprung up in less rigorous and smaller colleges and online institutions have pointed to the fact that filling such programs is financially rewarding and some colleges and universities have been accused of operating schools of education for profit while diverting funds from these programs to other, less profitable sectors (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007). With the somewhat recent explosion of new programs, and fewer candidates wanting administrative positions in leadership, it is likely that many programs will have difficulty in attracting quality students who will become school leaders (Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002).

To make programs of educational leadership more rigorous, program chairpersons need to work with various entities, both within and outside of the universities to develop higher standards for the recruitment and admission of new students. While thus far,

admission to departments of education leadership have revolved around the traditional GPAs and standardized test scores, the unique needs and importance of programs makes an argument for special consideration and attention to recruiting talented individuals from school districts who have proven themselves as exemplary teachers and leaders (Clark & Clark, 1997). In addition, widespread commitment to providing quality programs, then increasing competition, might serve to push programs to continually improve (Young, Peterson, & Short 2002)

Irrelevant programs that lack sequence of coursework, modern content, and real authentic field-based experiences. When it comes to course and program design, some scholars suggest that many professors of education leadership often put more emphasis on trying to meet ISLLC Standards than truly reformulating courses to match contemporary needs (McCarthy, 1999c). Many program faculty are faulted with not collaborating closely enough with each other, and what is taught at one university-based program may not reflect what is taught at the next (Cambron-McCabe, 2003). Sometimes, course names are merely changed, to adjust to requirements. Other times, a few minor adjustments are put into place that fail to truly update information that is either outdated or unneeded. Course overhaul is often mediocre in effectiveness, as professors put academic freedom ahead of curricular need (Quinn, 2005).

Many programs have been cited for having a non-sequenced conglomeration of course offerings that more often lean toward quick and easy program completion over a valuable, sustained learning process progressing in a sequenced and linear fashion (Young & Creighton, 2002). In addition, much of what is taught fails to pay attention to

the challenges of 21st century educational leadership, such as the need to focus on student achievement or using data to inform instruction (Hess, 2006; SREB, 2008).

Some scholars argue that coursework which reflects accountability, case study, and problem solving needs to be a part of preparation programs (Bridges, 1992; Darling-Hammond & LaPointe, 2005; Glasman & Glasman, 1997; Lumsden, 1992; Sherman, 2008). Theory must blend with strategic thinking skills in order for school leaders to know how to plan and be aware of how actions within a social system affect one another. In addition, it is important that courses build on one another and be aligned with the strategic goals of the entire program. They must support a sustained field-based placement and complement what is being learned in all areas of the program (Hallinger & McCary, 1992; Sherman, 2008).

Though field-based experiences have already been in existence in some programs, their expansion and continued redesign is central to educational leadership reform. ELCC's Standards for Programs of Educational Leadership inform programs that such experiences in the field should include an internship that extends the duration of the program and culminates in a full-time placement of at least one semester in a school-based leadership position that offers realistic opportunities (NPBEA, 2002). Studies have determined that exposure to concrete elements of real-world practice can increase a leader's ability to contemplate, analyze, and systematically plan strategies for action (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). There is also a unique learning experience gleaned by watching effective leaders, observing good models, and putting one's own expertise to trial and error in a workplace similar to what one will

experience after graduation, and under the guidance of a trained mentor with reflection and journaling as an important component of one's experience (Daresh, 2004). While determining whether in-service principals are effective is tricky, doing so requires greater collaboration with the school district.

Though field-based components are listed by preparation program students as among the most highly valued experiences, in reality many are mundane, where student interns find their own placement with little assistance from the program and end up in school placements that are neither administrator-oriented nor under the guidance of a skilled, professional leader (Milstein & Kruger, 1997; SREB, 2005). Though new professional expectations for school leadership are requiring internship experiences that “provide interns with substantial responsibilities that increase over time in amount and involvement with staff, students, parents, and community leaders” and “have a minimum of six months of full-time experience” in school settings (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002, p. 16), internships in many leadership programs fail to meet even the basics (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2008). Instead, many interns report that their opportunities were more about observing than leading, or at most passively participating within a group (SREB, 2005).

Well-designed preparation programs often involve the use of cohort teams, which not only allow learning collaboration for the educational leadership student, but teach the value of leadership teamwork as well. Student cohort teams allow groups to take on various problem-based questions with a variety of approaches. Group members share

insights and experiences from their own worlds and compare and contrast in formulating best solutions (Jackson & Kelly, 2002; Milstein & Krueger, 1997).

The need for licensure systems that promote excellence. Though licensure is most often associated as being a state role, programs of education leadership must meet state requirements in order for their graduates to gain certification and be accepted into the corps of school leaders. Calls for programs that are more rigorous in both admissions and coursework must also ask for standards from the states that meet tougher criteria for becoming school leaders (Hess & Kelly, 2005a). In addition, with a national focus on school leadership, and more non-university based programs of leadership preparation coming on the scene (Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002), politicians are under more pressure to ensure that traditional university programs are doing a good job of meeting school district needs.

The absence of a national sense of cooperation in preparing school leaders. As the number of non-university based leadership programs increase, and some comprehensive colleges and universities are said to be adding schools of education for profit (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007), putting national standards into place is a formidable task. Still, with the ISLLC Standards as a base, common threads have begun to run through many programs (Murphy, 2006). This is exemplified with the implementation of ELCC Standards and partnerships between individual states and NCATE that appear committed to educational reform.

Conclusion. The preparation of school leaders is a relatively new field when compared to those that prepare candidates for other well-educated professions and it has

only been in the past thirty years that the field has been challenged to the degree discussed here. National reform is on the move and yet we still do not know to what degree this has taken hold on programs, or what this will lead them to look like in the future. In the following section, a discussion relating organizational change to educational leadership preparation discusses what has occurred in organizations thus far, and where they may be headed in the future.

Expectations for Reform

The discussion thus far has outlined the historic, academic and political pressures on programs of educational leadership that prompt reform. To fully understand how and why these pressures may result in a response from programs, it is useful to understand the impact of institutional forces on organizational action and leaders' decision making. Thus, we will turn toward institutional theory, which has become a prominent lens through which organizational redesign processes can be understood and explained. Institutional theory approaches the understanding of organizational influences from a social and cultural perspective that is in contradiction to earlier understandings, which were more rational-functionalist in nature. It explains that organizations are subject to influences outside of their desire for increased efficiency and productivity, and that these eventually come to dominate where organizations head after their initial start-up and why they come to look alike (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

In seeking to understand similarity and stability, historically technical and task-oriented objectives have been cited as influencing organizational action. Thus, the assumption is often made that as organizations are built, structured, and reformed the

primary constraints involve discerning the ways to best meet their stated goals and objectives. It is assumed that decisions regarding the organization are made from a rational/reasoned perspective that involves continuously seeking ways by which the organization can increase efficiency. From a technical perspective, organizations meet espoused goals and are structured and restructured to do so in an optimal way (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Oliver, 1991).

Institutional theorists offer a different perspective, suggesting that actors respond to both internal and external pressures to reform (Selznick, 1957). In their examination of organizational forms and diversity, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) ask why “there is such startling homogeneity of organizational forms and practices” (p. 148). Once an organizational field is established there is an inexorable push for homogenization, i.e., in institutional contexts, there are forces in the environment that expect and reward conformity. Leaders look toward other, seemingly “successful” organizations in their field for guidance about how to structure organizational forms and processes, and seek legitimacy from the field through mimicry. DiMaggio and Powell labeled the movement within the same organizational field toward similarity of forms and processes, ‘institutional isomorphism’.

The pressures on an organization toward isomorphism are described as mimetic, coercive, and normative (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, 1991). Mimetic forces are those which pressure an organization to emulate the activities and structure of other organizations in the same field. Because various reforms and innovations an organization might undertake often carry the risk of not knowing outcomes, those that lead to greater

legitimacy through copying what already exists and works in other organizations is preferable. This is true even if evidence for performance benefits is unsubstantiated. In other words, uncertainty encourages imitation. Thus, adoption of “best practices” regardless of whether a school has a presenting problem would be an example of mimetic isomorphism, which would presumably yield greater legitimacy for a school from its public.

Coercive forces as those pressures exerted by regulatory agencies and/or the state to adopt the forms and structure that they promote. Often these forces link such benefits as licensing or certification to the adoption of such forms and they can constrain organizational variety and creativity, thus limiting the influence of other actors. Coercive isomorphism points to and highlights the role that authoritative forces assume in pushing organizations to assume similar structures for the benefit of legitimacy (Scott, 1987). An example of this is found in the way teachers and school leaders come to be licensed upon completion of approved institutions of preparation. Though some programs can recommend licensing of graduates to state education offices, few programs can issue a license themselves. Thus, the state holds the authority of legitimizing (or not legitimizing) the preparation received by the candidates and, therefore, using that means, it ultimately has the power to decide whether the preparation program will continue, and often influences the form and content of preparation programs.

A third type of mechanism leading to isomorphic change is normative, which describes how professional standards and influences push organizations to look alike. Though these forces are often linked to the state in similar ways as coercive, they often

look to professional influences as well, where standards are codified into expectations for professional performance. An example of normative isomorphism can be found in the accrediting processes educational leadership programs must comply with in order to be nationally recognized. By adopting and implementing the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership, programs are able to obtain the legitimacy that comes with accreditation, even though it has yet to be proven whether the Standards in question actually increase student achievement. The national number of programs that seek national recognition, despite the fact that their state may already accredit their program, is additional evidence of normative isomorphism at work.

DiMaggio and Powell state that isomorphism is not simply the result of similar organizations competing with one another, nor that of those that simply interact with one another, but rather of “the totality of relevant actors” (1983, p. 183). The expectation in institutional theory is that specific fields have logics that the organizing principles are built upon and these provide the basis for rules and a system of beliefs that are central to that field (Scott, 2001).

Also central to the theory of isomorphism is the notion of legitimacy, “seen as an organizational ‘imperative’ that is both a source of inertia and a summons to justify particular forms and practices” (Selznick, 1996, p. 273). Organizations seek similar organizations that are regarded as successful and seek legitimacy by modeling their form and practices on these organizations. This kind of modeling arrives more out of concern for the legitimacy that comes from being regarded as successful rather than any formal, rational notion that it will lead toward greater efficiency or production. Thus, the

successful practices of other, similar organizations, as well as the forces of coercion, influence organizations from outside of the organization and structure is institutionalized from outside of the organizations as well as from within.

In the final chapter of this study, the theory of institutionalism will be explored as an explanation for understanding whether and to what degree programs have changed. The pressures previously highlighted, along with current influences, necessitate reform, and how this has occurred to this point is the topic of this research. These will be discussed as will our expectations for the future of programs based on what we learn from the data presented here.

Summary

Central to the purpose of this study is the need for more research on what programs of educational leadership are doing in response to many of the pressures that have been exerted since adoption of the ELCC Standards for Educational Leadership Preparation in 2002. Questioning what has been done in preparation programs as a response to changing contexts is not new. Murphy (1991) studied the effects of the reform movement of the 1980's on departments of educational leadership chairperson's perceptions. Interestingly, many of the same areas we look at as the result of accreditation (recruitment of students, clinical experiences, program content, and assessing progress) were examined by Murphy over ten years ago and are still relevant issues in educational leadership programs. Still, while examining whole state initiatives in rebuilding preparation programs, Murphy, Moorman, and McCarthy (2008) note that there are only a handful of studies that have even explored the scope and depth of preparation program

reform in school administration over the last fifteen years. For many of those studies improvement efforts have been mixed, with one study in particular (Barnett, 2004) noting that principal tasks completed on the job were far more complex and frequent than that for which school leaders are prepared.

The ultimate question in the study of school leadership preparation divides proponents of conventional programs as they are and those who are looking for something more radical – a total overhaul of programs from top to bottom. In either mode, this research represents an attempt to provide empirical evidence about the nature and extent of reform. We look back in order to determine how far we've come in the present. This sets the stage for further, future research on where to go from here.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter contains a detailed account of the procedures and methods that were used to answer the research questions. The chapter is split into six sections. The first section outlines the design of the study. This includes a restatement of the study's purpose, description and justification for the method of inquiry, the research questions, and the research objective. The second section tells how the population and sample was determined, how the survey was developed and validated, and how the survey was piloted as well as procedures used during the distribution phase. The third section describes how the interview participants were chosen, how the interview questions were devised and pilot tested, and how the qualitative data was collected and stored. The fourth section describes how both the qualitative and quantitative data were examined, grouped, compared, and how conclusions and implications were drawn. The fifth section describes limitations of the research design, and the final section describes the steps taken in coordination with the Human Subjects Review Board.

Study Design

The study is an explanatory mixed methods inquiry that allows for the collection of two types of data in order get a complete picture of what is occurring. The initial phase of the study employed a survey design; chairs of educational leadership programs were

asked to complete a survey that deals with the nature and extent of program reform, as well as their perceptions of the factors that influenced this reform. The second phase of the study involved interviewing a sample of chairs who volunteered to participate to provide descriptive information about both reform and influences. The resulting mixed method design thus provided generalizable information about the state of leadership preparation program redesign, as well as explanations about the redesign process from the perspective of a number of chairs.

Purpose. This study examines how programs of education leadership preparation in colleges and universities have responded to academic and political contexts that are driving calls for change in how educational leaders are prepared. Academic contexts include research that is documented in books and articles, as well as professional associations linked to the study of educational leadership preparation. Political contexts include national, state, and local educational entities that determine funding and accreditation for programs and certification policies for educational leaders.

Justification for method of inquiry. Because the nature of this research is to explore perceptions of program chairs on redesign and reform, the inquiry utilized a mixed methods approach which has been noted as appropriate for this type of inquiry (Creswell, 2005). As an explanatory mixed methods design, it began with quantitative inquiry which was followed by qualitative. This type of design is stated by Creswell (2005) to be the most popular of mixed methods designs and was chosen for this research as it allows for the analysis of quantitative data dealing with the nature and context of

reform along with more detailed explanation from informants about how and why their leadership preparation program pursued reform.

The mixed methods approach involved accessing a large sample through a survey while complementing this with more detailed qualitative data that was drawn from open-ended interview questions that solicited information to illuminate meanings. Because quantitative data yields specific numbers that can be statistically analyzed and produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends, it is helpful in describing the state of the field. Qualitative inquiry is useful in that it offers data with greater detail and complexity and permits the researcher to probe for meanings which inform us as to the reasons for some of the response patterns. When quantitative and qualitative inquiry are combined, the results can give greater detail than if either were the sole source of inquiry. “What is developed is a complex picture of social phenomenon” (Green & Caracelli, 1997, p. 7).

Research questions. The survey questions and those used in the qualitative portion were crafted to answer the main research questions posed here:

- To what extent have programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
- To what extent have field experiences in programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
- What factors either facilitated or constrained reform/redesign?

It should be noted that the questions above related to field experiences have been identified in the literature as areas where program redesign and reform are most

poignantly needed. The researcher chose to separate these questions in order to give the study clarity and direction rather than combine them under one question on overall program redesign and reform.

Research objective. The primary objective of this research is to identify the degree to which program redesign/reform has occurred and to identify facilitators and constraints in the process. It should be noted that this research measures the perception of the program chairs, which is subjective. While program chairs in an academic setting are assumed to be familiar with research methods as well as the need for clear, unbiased answers, it is human nature for one to wish to appear in the best possible light. Thus, it is acknowledged here that some bias could occur and that future study of this topic might include other participants, such as program faculty, in order to assess responses on a greater scale.

Survey Procedures and Design

This section discusses the procedures used to determine the population, design and pilot test the survey, and invite potential participants to join the study. The most time consuming task, which is described below, involved identifying and locating the population.

Determining the population and sample. There are over 500 programs of educational leadership in the United States that offer preparation for school principals (McCarthy & Kuh, 1997; UCEA, 2010). The total number of preparation programs was difficult to determine as they vary in scope and goal. UCEA notes that there are 503 programs that grant masters' degrees and 169 that grant certificates, though some of these

programs do not lead directly to school principal licensure. In seeking out programs that do lead to principal licensure, inquiry was made using the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), the University Council for Educational Administration, the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, and School Market Data.com. None could give a complete and correct listing of all programs of educational leadership in the United States nor could they determine which trained school principals.

Part of the challenge in determining how many programs of educational leadership preparation exist may be that the title and positioning of such programs differs widely. While most are located in universities and colleges, they carry various names and, in some cases, may exist outside of the school of education. Examples of some program names found during the research phase of this study include the following: program of educational leadership, educational administration, education leadership, track of educational leadership with a masters in general administration, department of educational leadership, school of educational leadership, program of human development and leadership, program of criminal justice and leadership, program of counseling, curriculum, and leadership.

Individuals who serve as program chairs for this study also have varied titles and job descriptions. Some of these are as follows: department chair, program chair, program coordinator, program representative, program contact, dean, assistant dean for educational leadership, and lead professor. In most cases, the faculty included full-time doctorates engaged in teaching and research as well as part-time clinical faculty. In some cases, the faculty consisted completely of members who are former practitioners and who

have very little research experience. In at least one case, the faculty was all adjuncts, many of whom had only masters degrees, including the program chair.

In limiting participation to program heads, the conclusion was that they would be most inclined to be aware of program redesign and reform and, in their roles of leadership, would be familiar with forces outside of the program that drive change. It was decided not to include others, such as program faculty in the study out of concern that they might bring a more biased and less informed perspective that did not necessarily include first-hand knowledge of external influences and that their input would greatly vary from the perspective of the program head and would lead to a more convoluted conclusion.

The decision to limit programs to those offering a masters' degree was originally made in order to provide the study with a more uniform participant base and limit the influence of confounding variables. This was changed, however, after an initial study of program trends indicated that some programs of educational leadership have made principal certification contingent on academic work done beyond the masters. Thus, in examining what some of the reforms are, it was determined that limiting the study to masters' granting programs could constrain the study and not provide generalizable results. For consistency, the study was limited instead to programs that grant either certificates or degrees leading to licensure as school principals.

The decision to limit participating programs to those found in schools of education with full or pending NCATE accreditation comes because of NCATE's position as the primary accrediting body for schools of education. In addition, NCATE

has maintained a major role in influencing program change over the past decade as it has responded to concerns by various academic and political stakeholders with a standards-based initiative (NPBEA, 2005). Given NCATE's strong push for redesign by programs of educational leadership, as well as the stature of NCATE as being the major accrediting organizations for educational leadership (Wise & Leibbrand, 2004), it is assumed that programs chosen with a similar influence are able to yield valid results.

The NCATE website lists 635 schools of education in the United States that are either fully or provisionally accredited. There are approximately 175 educational leadership programs that the NCATE specialized professional association, ELCC, has determined have met the standards for national recognition, meaning that, apart from their respective schools of education, these programs meet ELCC Standards for national recognition. Additionally, approximately 200 programs were found affiliated with the 544 schools of education that are accredited even though the programs, in themselves, may not be nationally recognized. As stated previously, these programs may be recognized by their states who conduct their own accreditation reviews of programs which are aligned with NCATE standards. In total, 372 accredited programs and their program heads were found by going to each program online and researching the information. This number was later reduced to 351 when 21 of the participants who began the survey withdrew because they determined that their programs no longer met qualifications. Thus, 181 participants completed the survey for a response rate of 52%.

Survey design and construction. The survey was formulated using various examples of instruments found in the literature and from other sources. The University

Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) published the Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice (2003) which is designed to yield data from program graduates and school leaders. Other surveys similar to the one used in this study were found in various dissertations studying issues related to programs of educational leadership (e.g., Machado, 2008). Though none was found to meet the specific needs of this inquiry, they did provide the framework for the type of survey that was formulated.

A cross-sectional survey was designed by the researcher (Appendix A). The survey was designed based on information from the literature calling for reform and redesign in various areas of programs of educational leadership. Questions were grouped by topic as it is important that a survey follow a logical reasoning path in much the same way as a conversation (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009).

Questions 1–4 contain information on the survey-taker and the program which helps confirm that the participant is a chair/coordinator/dean and that the unit in which the program resides is accredited or seeking accreditation by NCATE; the program leads to licensure for school principals; and it has been in existence since at least 2002. The latter issue is important since this study seeks to determine the degree to which programs have changed since adoption of the ELCC standards.

Questions 5-12 are descriptive in nature and solicit information on the program and those who work in it. These questions relate to program size, number of full-time faculty, location, and research classification of the college or university. These questions allow for analysis based on specific program attributes.

Question 13 asks the respondents the extent to which each of 17 items influenced decisions on the reform/redesign in their program. The ratings are on a four-point Likert scale: *not at all*, *somewhat*, *moderately*, and *substantially*. Higher scores reflect greater influence. Each of the items was drawn from the literature.

Questions 14 through 16 contain a list of items which have been identified in the literature as potential areas of program redesign. This section was split up into three questions because it contains twenty-four items and three sections were easier to read on the survey. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which each of the elements have been a part of program reform and redesign since 2002. The response categories for this part of the survey are: *had in 2002-3 and is the same*, *had in 2002-3 and redesigned*, *had in 2002-3 and dropped*, *did not have and added*, and *not a program element*.

Field-based experiences are identified in the literature as of high importance in program reform/redesign. Thus, it was decided to give this component a separate section on the survey. Question 17 asks for number of hours related to the field component. Question 18 asks respondents to rate the degree to which their program features eleven elements related to field experiences that are rated on a four-point Likert scale as follows: *strongly disagree*, *somewhat disagree*, *somewhat agree*, *strongly agree*, and *do not have this component*. Responses that indicate that a program does not have a feature were tabulated separately. Responses for programs that include a feature indicate the extent of adoption, with high scores implying greater degrees of adoption.

The decision was made to place the survey online as it is an inexpensive and efficient way to reach out to potential participants. Given that the population consists of program chairs working in university settings, it was deemed likely that they would have access to a computer and e-mail. The researcher chose the online vehicle SurveyMonkey.com for use in constructing and delivering the survey because of its familiarity and because it is the “world’s leading provider of web-based survey solutions” (www.surveymonkey.com).

Pilot testing the survey. One reason for pilot testing the survey is to ensure it measures what is intended in as clear and concise a way as possible. Another is to check for trouble in the actual delivery of the survey to those for whom it is intended (Creswell, 2005; de Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008). In establishing validity for an instrument, the researcher checks to see that scores from a group of experts familiar with the topic are mostly in sync with one another, meaning that they are consistent, and as free from measurement error as possible (Dillman et al., 2008).

In pilot testing, the researcher followed the procedure for validity and reliability recommended by Ellis (1994). This included a self-test phase, an informed pre-subject phase, an uninformed pre-subject phase, and an early actual subject phase. The researcher first self-administered the survey to check for problems. The survey was then taken online by seven current or former program chairs of educational leadership who have firsthand knowledge of the subject matter (see Appendix A). The members of this group were informed about the purpose of the survey and were given the five research questions. Each participant recorded input in a special area set up at the end of the pilot

survey where comments were solicited regarding the wording of the questions, the kinds of questions asked, and the general survey design. They were also asked to comment as to whether they felt the survey adequately provided a vehicle by which the research questions could be answered and if there was anything they might add to the survey that would enhance it.

The researcher, having revised the survey to reflect the comments and suggestions from the first pilot group, then piloted the survey to a second group of six persons who did not have firsthand knowledge about the subject. These included program chairs in other subject areas and faculty who were not program chairs in educational leadership. Previous to taking the survey pilot, each was presented with both the objective of the survey and the five research questions. The goal in the second pilot was to get additional perspective on the design of the survey. Thus, while the participants were asked to comment regarding the wording of the questions, the kinds of questions asked, and the survey design, they were not asked to comment as to whether the survey would adequately answer the research questions. The results of the first and second pilot are found in Appendix B.

The third pretest phase consisted of the researcher inviting three persons with doctoral level academic credentials, but unfamiliar with the subject matter at hand or the purpose of the study, to take the survey and critique it for clarity. In follow-up conversations the researcher was advised to limit the length of the survey and to be specific in advising potential participants as to what the survey is for and why it is important. One suggested that the survey be limited to take not more than ten minutes of

a participant's time. From this suggestion, a final section that did not directly inform the research questions was dropped. A few other minor modifications were made to the instrument and it was deemed ready for use after final consultation between the researcher and the program advisor.

Survey distribution. Program chairs and their contact information were identified through an examination of the websites of the NCATE-accredited programs. In all, 372 program chairs were identified; in final analysis, after reviewing demographic responses from respondents, it was determined that 351 chairs actually met the criteria for selection (i.e., 21 programs that were initially identified did not meet one or more of the selection criteria). Given an accessible sample of 351, a margin of error set at .5 and a confidence level set at 95%, a return of 184 completed surveys was needed in order to meet minimum requirements for participant size (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001).

Following the receipt of permission for this study from the George Mason University Human Subjects Review Board and the acceptance of the research proposal by committee, the researcher mailed letters of invitation (Appendix C) in July, 2010 to each of the 372 program chairs stating the importance and purpose of the study, an assurance of confidentiality, and an invitation to each of them for participation along with the web address of the survey. The letter also contained a small token of appreciation for their participation in the form of a foil sealed packet of tea, as Dillman et al. (2008) have stated that inclusion of small tokens or monetary gifts have been shown in research to increase return rates on survey instruments. The last section of the letter invited participants to

become part of an interview pool and advised them that contact information for an approximately 45 minute interview can be found on the last page of the survey.

Two weeks after the mailing of the letter, the e-mail addresses of program chairs were uploaded onto SurveyMonkey and an e-mail was sent via the website to those who had either not responded or had responded but did not completed the survey. During the months of August and September, 2010, various e-mail versions of solicitation (see Appendices D and E) were approved by the Human Subjects and Review Board and were sent out via SurveyMonkey. Some were sent to those who had not participated and not opted out, while others were sent to just those who began the survey and had not completed it. On occasion, the researcher was e-mailed by a recipient to inform him that the recipient was either not the program chair, the program was no longer NCATE affiliated, or the program did not lead toward state licensure as a school principal. In such cases, an attempt was made to determine the proper information and either new names were added in place of old ones, or programs were removed.

Forty-eight participants responded to the mailed letter by logging onto the website and taking the survey. One unforeseen flaw was that it later became difficult to determine who had completed the survey based on the initial letter versus those responding to the SurveyMonkey e-mail invitation system, which tracks respondents while maintaining their anonymity. Thus, a few program chairs e-mailed the researcher informing him that they had already taken the survey and were still getting requests for participation. They were thanked and their names were removed from the solicitation list.

In addition to the 48 who logged in to take the survey, 166 responded to the e-mail requests and began the survey, for a total of 214. Of those, 21 were deemed unqualified from the initial four questions and withdrew. This brought the total population down from 372 to 351, with 193 qualified participants beginning the survey and 181 completing it.

Interview Design and Procedures

Because qualitative data is focused on thoughts and processes rather than numbers, questions used in this portion were developed with consideration of the original research questions, but are not duplicates of them (Maxwell, 1996). Additional questions that were posed sought to ferret out answers where the researcher felt the need for greater understanding. In such cases, the researcher did not follow a given template, but used the original questions as a springboard for further inquiry.

Participants. The survey contained an invitation to participants to self-nominate to participate in the interview portion of the study. Eleven program chairs were chosen at random from the pool of nineteen who indicated that they would be willing to participate in approximately one-hour interviews. One participant was later disqualified due to what appeared to be a lack of transparency during the interview. In all, 10 participants included chairs from rural, urban, and suburban locations with varying program and university sizes and university types (research, doctoral, or comprehensive). Each interview participant was mailed a consent form (Appendix F) and this was returned to the researcher before the interview commenced.

Question design. Interview questions (appendix G) were developed to give the researcher better understanding of the issue at hand. Maxwell (1996) advises that research questions should be related to interview questions, but are not exactly the same. In qualitative interviews, questions must be more contextual, specific, creative and less mechanical than the research questions (Glesne, 2006). The questions on the quantitative survey ask what happened and the qualitative questions complement these by examining how and why events occurred, while including the thoughts, feelings, and opinions of participants.

Because how a question is asked affects how the interviewee responds, it is important to carefully shape questions so they are open-ended and non-leading. Questions that presuppose certain conditions can be useful, while leading questions are not. In leading questions, the interviewer makes it obvious as to which way the interviewee is expected to go, while questions that presuppose do not lead toward being answered in any specific way and yet may take certain contexts into consideration (Todd, 2002).

The questions crafted for this study begin with a contextual paragraph to explain the subject matter and the order in which subsequent questions were given. The questions themselves are open-ended and yet specific in order to allow for answers that are not too broad or general.

Pilot testing the interview questions. A pilot of interview questions was undertaken with submission to three persons in area departments of educational leadership who are either program chairs, or former program chairs. The goal of the pilot

was to draw critical reflection on the usability of the questions and, from input, to redirect questions to adequately match meaning with semantics (Glesne, 2006; Creswell, 2005).

From the pilot, all of the questions for the qualitative section were found to be worthy, with only a few minor changes made to the wording in order to achieve maximum clarity. One of the participants questioned the need to ask about program faculty and their input and response to change. Though it was decided after discussion to keep this question in the section, the seeming hesitancy of program chairs to discuss their faculty during the actual interviews, later caused the question to be discarded.

Interview data collection. In order to choose interview participants, a sample of names and contact information was drawn from the list of those who indicated that they would be willing to be interviewed. In describing qualitative sample size, Casey and Kruger (2000) state that the “quality of the study is not dependent on the size of the sample, the intent is to reach theoretical saturation” (p. 205). The goal in choosing participants from universities of various sizes and regions (urban and rural) was to adequately present the complexity of the information without becoming too unwieldy and result in superficial perspectives (Creswell, 2005). Interviews were conducted by phone between July 22nd and September 20th, 2010. During the interviews, the researcher began with prepared, open questions, and then spontaneously followed these with queries that were a logical extension of the answers the participants gave. This approach was deemed suitable in that it provided a method by which the participants’ thoughts and views were constructed in the context of their own backgrounds and personal perceptions

(Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). In this way, the researcher could explore various ideas presented by the participants rather than just pre-formed notions and ideas.

Though the saturation point appeared to be reached after the eighth participant was interviewed (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Gall, Borg & Gall, 2003), the researcher made the decision to interview two more participants in order to insure no other information would be forthcoming that related to the research questions. This proved to be helpful, for when transcribing the interviews later, it was decided to discard one interview based on the appearance of perfunctory answers that failed to respond to the researcher's questions. Thus, a total of 11 interviews were transcribed and 10 of these were selected and coded for this study and additional interviews were not required. Furthermore, because the interviews were straightforward, additional follow up information was neither needed nor solicited.

Interviews were conducted over the phone and were tape recorded after the researcher received the interviewee's permission. Participants were assured of confidentiality and informed that each interview would take no more than one hour. On average, interviews lasted about forty-five minutes each.

Data Analysis

This section describes methods for analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data and then combining and analyzing them together. The quantitative data was analyzed manually while SPSS was used for the qualitative data.

Analysis of quantitative data. One hundred eighty-one surveys were completed on the Surveymonkey.com website. Survey information was appropriately grouped and descriptively analyzed to identify general trends and common answers.

Given the descriptive nature of the study, the mean, variance, range and percentage for responses to each question were calculated along with an analysis of demographic data found on the first page of the survey. Following this, an overall analysis was performed on each of the three sections, examining what numbers of elements were perceived as falling into each range of reform, field experience, or influence. From this, an informal examination of each question and the perceived level of reform or influence was noted. Finally, questions were grouped into high, medium and low ranges that were informally drawn up by the researcher in order to give order to the research. This allowed the researcher to see what reforms are perceived as important in the change in programs, and what reforms were not.

The quantitative data yielded information as to which parts of programs of educational leadership have been reformed the most and which influences have had the greatest impact from the perspective of the program chairs. The importance of this is in telling how programs are responding and where change is most/least profound. In addition, information on which influences are most pronounced was also determined.

In order to give greater depth to the study, information on reforms was also examined by institutional type and UCEA membership in order to determine if responses are affected. In a recent study of programs of education leadership in universities grouped by Carnegie Classification, Baker, Orr and Young (2007) suggested that classification of

the university in which a program of educational leadership is located may determine how well it is equipped. In addition, UCEA membership might denote greater interest in reform given the UCEA commitment to reform. Thus, the research added a portion to the study that looks for mean differences between university type/UCEA membership and program reforms.

Coding and securing interview data. Miles and Huberman (1994) state that there is no single, accepted approach to analyzing qualitative data, although guidelines do exist. Likewise, because analysis of qualitative data often involves interpretive research, where researchers must assess information based on personal experiences, each interpretation may differ in some ways. This does not demean the data or suggest that another interpretation is either better or worse (Glesne, 2006, Casey and Kruger, 2000).

Interviews were transcribed verbatim with each interview comprising approximately eight pages of single-spaced transcript. In order to keep the names of the interviewed participants confidential, each was given a code name. Prior to coding, the researcher read through each interview twice in order to see if any particular common topics emerged. These were noted and then, beginning in the same order as the interviews themselves, the researcher began coding various segments of text and coding them for themes and descriptions that would later be used to give greater depth to the survey analysis.

The researcher built a chart of various codes as he read through each transcript. Codes that abbreviated certain redundant themes were placed in the margin next to the area where the particular themes arose in order to give these order. For example, a

common theme that arose again and again was technology. Using the shortened name *tech* and combining it with other abbreviations such as *stdt* for technology that related to student data and *crse* for technology that related to courses, the researcher was able to divide the transcriptions into segments by combining codes at first and then whittling them down later.

Upon completion of the first round of coding, the charts and transcripts were coded again, this time along with an examination of redundancy, with the goal of narrowing the data into fewer themes. During this process, the researcher also disregarded data that did not relate well to the research purposes of the study as these were often found to be distracters. Broad themes were brought forth from the data – even where there may have been differing opinions expressed by participants about phenomena. In this sense, the qualitative evidence was put into position to give further knowledge about some of the themes emerging from the survey data. Finally, a diagram was developed relating survey findings to thematic data that can be used to further explain information gathered from the survey.

All tapes were taken to the Education Leadership office at George Mason University where they were stored in a locked file. Transcribed data on paper was used by the researcher and then destroyed.

Analyzing the qualitative data against the quantitative. Creswell (2005) cites triangulation design analysis as one of the most difficult and controversial. “The standard approach seems to be to converge or compare in some way both quantitative data (e.g., scores) with the qualitative (e.g., text)” (p. 519). This involves providing discussion from

the literature, relating it to the emerging themes from the qualitative, and comparing how they support or refute what emerges from statistical analysis of the quantitative. In this research, data were analyzed by drawing conclusions from both quantitative and qualitative as proposed above, and both forms were used to support or refute the data from the other in looking for patterns that support or refute one another, drawing attention to more radically emphasized responses. These were analyzed in conjunction with the literature that has determined deficits in various areas of educational leadership preparation in order to determine whether these areas are being addressed and to what extent.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this research. Foremost is that both the survey and qualitative inquiry center solely around the perceptions and level of honest response from the program chairs. In choosing to not survey others, such as program faculty or students, the researcher is assuming that the information gained from program chairs will be both credible and informative. It is further assumed that most program chairs (if not all) are trained in research methods and will honestly and forthrightly answer questions to the best of his or her ability. Yet, it is acknowledged that evidence related to program reform and influences represent the opinion of chairs.

A second limitation is the rather poor state of research currently available on educational leadership preparation, which is short on quantitative study and based mostly on single-case studies or opinion. As Murphy and Vriesenga (2006) state:

Specifically, we know very little about the issues ranging from how we recruit and select students, instruct them in our programs, and monitor and assess their progress. Organizational life inside programs is hardly touched upon in the research literature. We also learn remarkably little from the journals about the faculty members who develop and operate these programs. (p. 187)

Given that there is so little empirically based research available, it has been difficult to find a like study to extend and replicate, which is often appropriate for a doctoral dissertation. Both the survey and qualitative questions in this study have been created by the researcher.

A third limitation comes in the decision to include only programs from schools of education with NCATE accreditation. Though NCATE accredits more schools of education than any other agency, some potential participants did indicate that their programs were not situated in NCATE accredited schools and, therefore, they did not complete the survey. While consistency in terms of qualities related to institutions, including accrediting members are important, the overall size of the population and sample were limited due to the requirement of NCATE/ELCC affiliation.

Human Subjects Review Board

The researcher completed the mandatory training for persons conducting research using human subjects, which was linked to the George Mason University website, Office of Research Subject Protections. While permission from the George Mason University Human Subjects and Review Board (HSRB) will be sought and received before

progressing with this study, it is hoped that permission will not be needed from universities in order to invite program chairs to be surveyed and questioned.

The researcher completed the HSRB checklist and has submitted all materials requested to the HSRB for approval noting that the Principal Investigator is the advisor.

Summary

This study examines how programs of educational leadership preparation in colleges and universities have responded to academic and political contexts that are driving calls for change in how educational leaders are prepared. The objective of this research is to identify the degree to which programs of educational leadership preparation have been redesigned/reformed since 2002 and to identify facilitators and constraints in the process. Using a mixed methods approach that sought perceptions on redesign, 181 chairs completed an online survey and ten completed interviews, detailing what has occurred in their respective programs.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed as prescribed for an explanatory study, with attention to both what occurred and how and why. The individual and combined data is presented in Chapter 4 and conclusions relating data to research is presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4

Findings

This study is an inquiry into reform and redesign that programs of educational leadership preparation have undergone since the *Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership Preparation* were initiated in 2002. It utilizes a mixed methods design to measure perceptions of program chairs in areas of reform, field-based experiences, and program influences.

This chapter is broken down into three main parts: description of the samples, presentation of the quantitative data, and presentation of the qualitative data. Each of these parts has several sections which are presented here.

The first part consists of two sections and details the samples from the study. The first of these focuses qualities of the quantitative sample (NCATE status, years serving as chair, program enrollment, number of full-time faculty, state location, and UCEA status and university type); the second focuses on characteristics of the qualitative sample (gender, location (urban or rural), number of students, number for full-time faculty, and university size).

The quantitative analysis is presented in four sections: The first presents data on program reforms (survey data, combined data, and ANOVA data on UCEA membership and university type); the second presents data on field-based experiences (survey data and

ANOVA analysis of UCEA membership and university type); the third presents data on program influences (survey data and ANOVA analysis of UCEA membership and university type); the fourth summarizes the quantitative analysis.

The qualitative data is presented next. Like the quantitative, it falls into three sections: reforms (which are broken down by highlighted topic), field-based experiences, and program influences. A fourth section details program chairs' feelings on reform.

The quantitative data taken directly from the survey gives detail about features of programs before 2002; what features were added, dropped, or redesigned; and what has and has not been changed. Overall, these data show that many leadership preparation programs already had design features that are associated with effective programs in 2002, and that very little was dropped from programs while a good number of elements were redesigned or added. Program design elements that have changed most are those related to technology, coursework, and course delivery. In the field experiences, moderate and strong levels of agreement on eleven reform elements dominate the results. The data also indicate that major reform influences are program faculty, state education offices, the ELCC, and candidate performance data that were used to guide improvement.

The qualitative data affirm that systematic reform has taken place (rather than piecemeal change). Though rates of reform varied in pace and approach, the qualitative evidence clearly point to state education offices and the ELCC as driving reforms based on national standards. Attitudes toward the reform processes varied as much as the pace and influences.

Description of the Samples

The following section relates descriptive information about participants in both quantitative and qualitative samples. As the qualitative sample was drawn from those who completed the survey, most data related to the quantitative data applies by association to the qualitative.

Quantitative. The sample consists of 181 chairs of educational leadership preparation programs that are affiliated with NCATE accredited schools of education in colleges and universities. Toward the beginning of the survey, participants indicated whether they are program chairs, whether their programs provide coursework leading to educational leadership certification, whether their programs have been in existence since 2002, and whether their programs are in schools of education that are NCATE accredited. The original population began with 372 chairs who were contacted to participate. Twenty-one respondents who did not match these criteria were eliminated from further analysis bringing the population to 351, with 181 responding for a response rate of 52%.

The survey question on NCATE accreditation status found a high number - 166 (91.7%) - of programs that are located in schools of education that are fully accredited, with 8 (4.4%) provisionally accredited and 7 (3.9%) working toward accreditation. This was not a surprise given that only programs with NCATE affiliation were considered for this study.

In addition to describing their program's current relationship status with NCATE, participants were also asked to describe the *type* of university within which their program operates. Research suggests that some smaller, less research-oriented colleges and

universities have added schools of education that can produce a profit which is then often used by the university in other areas (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007; Levine, 2005). This raises a question related to commitment to the education leadership program, as well as whether they have the same resources as programs from more research-oriented institutions, whether they can offer their students the same quality of education, and whether they would be inclined to participate in program reform. Because of this, it was decided that a comparison of each university type along with data relating to level of program redesign would prove an interesting follow-up and enhancement to the research questions.

Three categories of university/college are described in the survey as follows:

- Research: Offers a full range of undergraduate and graduate degrees. Awards 50 or more doctoral degrees annually and places a high priority on research.
- Doctoral: Offers undergraduate and graduate degrees and awards fewer than 50 doctorates annually.
- Comprehensive: Offers a range of undergraduate and Master degrees only.

Table 1 shows an almost equal split between the number of research and doctoral-affiliated universities with 49 (27.2%) Research and 50 (27.8%) Doctoral institutions represented here, respectively. In contrast, there were 81 (45%) Comprehensive universities and colleges, a higher percentage than the other two categories, but still less than 50% of the total sample. One respondent did not indicate university type.

The survey also asked respondents to indicate if their institution is a member of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). Results show that 43

(24%) schools are UCEA members, with 5 (2.8%) reporting that they are provisional members and 131 (72.3%) reported as non-members. Two respondents did not provide these data. While membership is relatively small, UCEA member schools tend to be more research-oriented and connected to reform initiatives nationwide, and prior research has shown some program characteristics that are typical to programs that are members of UCEA as distinct from those that are not members (McCarthy & Kuh, 1997).

Determining whether UCEA members tend to engage in greater degrees of reform is an interesting question given the mandate of UCEA as an organization that is “committed to advancing the preparation and practice of educational leaders for the benefit of schools and children” (UCEA website, November 21, 2010).

Table 1 highlights institutional characteristics of the survey sample:

Table 1

Characteristics of Survey Participants’ Institutions

Characteristics	Sample	
NCATE Accreditation	N	%
Full	166	91.7%
Provisional	8	4.4%
Working Toward Accreditation	7	3.9%
University/College Type		
Research	49	27.2%
Doctoral	50	27.8%
Comprehensive	81	45.0%
UCEA Membership Status		
Member	43	24.0%
Provisional	5	2.8%
Non-member	131	73.2%

Another survey question asks participants to indicate when the program was last reviewed for NCATE accreditation. This is of interest because programs that were reviewed shortly after adoption of the standards had less time initially to respond to external reform pressures, and similarly, programs that were reviewed more recently may have felt greater pressure from a pending review. The data presented in Table 2 show that a significant number of programs report review within the past two years even though NCATE schools of education are on a seven year cycle. It may be the case that respondents at units that were more recently reviewed were more inclined to participate in the study.

Table 2

Year of Program Review by NCATE Since 2002

Year	N	%
	Sample	
2008-10	76	43.2
2006-8	34	19.2%
2004-6	33	18.8%
2002-4	33	18.8
Missing	5	
Total	181	100%

The survey asks participants for the number of years they have served as chair, which helps give a description of those who are reporting program information, as well as enrollment information for the leadership preparation programs and number of faculty. Because this study refers to reforms that have taken place over time, it is helpful to know what changes have occurred in enrollment and faculty. Table 3 shows descriptive statistics relating to length of time as program chair, enrollment differences, and numbers of current faculty.

Table 3

Statistics of Survey Participants and Programs

Name	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Years as program chair	174	.00	20.00	4.6034	3.781
Enrollment 2002-3	153	00	1,500.00	145	194.924
Enrollment 2009-10	170	2.00	1,200.00	143	159.263
Full-time faculty, 2009-10	176	.00	30.00	5.55	4.286
Clinical Faculty, 2009-10	163	.00	21.00	2.49	3.51

One hundred seventy-four respondents reported that they had been in the position of chair between 0 and 20 years, with the mean at 4.6 years and a standard deviation of 3.78. Enrollment was measured for programs in 2002-3 and in 2009-10. One hundred-fifty-three responded to the question requesting enrollment 8 years ago and list an

average number of 145 students, with a standard deviation of nearly 195, suggesting wide variability in program size and a distribution that is skewed. One hundred seventy programs list current enrollment, averaging 143 students, with a somewhat smaller standard deviation around 160, again skewed upward. The maximum number listed for 2002-3 is 1,500 while the maximum number for 2009-10 fell to 1,200. These data may be reviewed with caution, since it seems unlikely that a single program would be this large; it seems likely these respondents may have indicated enrollment for the college or school of education. In any case, program size does not appear to have changed much from 2002 to present.

Survey question 9 asks participants to list the state in which their program is located. Twenty-eight states have full partnership agreements with NCATE, meaning that all university-based schools of education in those states must hold NCATE accreditation. In states without full NCATE partnership, individual schools of education may seek accreditation on their own, but they do not do so by mandate from the state.

The sample consists of 181 programs in 45 states plus the District of Columbia, with the greatest number from the Commonwealth of Virginia. As Table 4 shows, three states (Illinois, New York, and Ohio) have 9 participating programs each, while California, Georgia, Missouri, and Tennessee each have 8 participating programs, and so forth.

Table 4

Number of Participating Programs in Each State

Number of Programs	States with Indicated Number	Total Participation
12	VA	12
9	IL, NY, OH	27
8	CA, GA, MO, TN	32
7	MD, KY	14
6	LA	6
5	IN, MA, MI, OK, TX	25
4	AL, AR, FL, MN, MS, SC	24
3	ID, KS, NC, NJ, SD, WA	18
2	NE, NM, NV, PA, UT	10
1	AK, AZ, CO, CT, DC, DE, ME, MT, NH, OR, VT, WI, WV	13
Totals:	45 States and Washington, DC	181 Programs

Five states have no participating programs. These are: HI, ND, IA, RI, and WY, each states that likely have relatively few programs. Overall, then, the sample includes a wide geographic distribution of programs.

Qualitative. Nineteen chairs agreed to participate for a one-hour interview. From this group, 11 chairs were chosen to be interviewed based on region, demographics, and program size. One chair was later disqualified due to what appeared to be a lack of transparency during the interview. In all, 10 participants included chairs from rural, urban, and suburban locations with varying program and university sizes and university types (Research, Doctoral, and Comprehensive). In the programs of those interviewed, the number of full-time faculty ranged from 0, where even the chair was an adjunct, to 17.

An interview from a school located in the western region of the country would have been preferred, but no one from that region responded to the invitation for an interview. Likewise, only one of the 19 who offered to be interviewed is from a research institution. A complete list of program attributes is given in Table 5. University size has been rounded to the nearest 1,000 in order to protect confidentiality.

Table 5

Characteristics of Interview Participants' Institutions

Descriptive characteristic		Sample			
NCATE Accreditation Status		N	Percent		
Full		8	80%		
Probationary/Conditional		1	10%		
Working Toward Accreditation		1	10%		
University Type					
Research		1	10%		
Doctoral		4	40%		
Comprehensive		5	50%		
Gender					
<u>ID</u>	<u>Pgm. Chair</u>	<u>Urban/Rural</u>	<u>Students</u>	<u>FT Faculty</u>	<u>Univ. Size</u>
A	Female	Suburban	60	5	6,000
B	Male	Suburban	110	3	6,000
C	Male	Urban	55	5.5	13,000
D	Male	Rural	250	17	23,000
E	Male	Rural	25	2	4,000
F	Male	Rural	15	0	6,000
G	Female	Rural	51	2	4,000
H	Male	Rural	60	5	8,000
I	Male	Urban	10	1	2,000
J	Female	Urban	55	1	25,000

Presentation of Quantitative Analysis

The following sections list the research questions followed by the quantitative data that respond to each question. There are three sections in total: reforms, field-experiences and influences.

Data on reform. Table 6 displays answers to the survey question asking participants to describe extent of reform in their program since the adoption of the NCATE/ELCC Standards in 2002:

Table 6

Perceived Levels of Change Since 2002

Descriptions of Change	N	Percent
Essentially the Same	17	9.6%
Minor Revisions	43	24.2%
Basic Revisions – Courses	23	12.9%
Significant Revisions – Courses and Structure	64	36%
Major Revisions – Courses and Significant Structure	31	17.4%
Missing	3	
Total	181	100%

The highest percentage of responses, 64 (36%), indicate significant revisions, including those to program structure and courses, while 31 (17.4) indicate major revision. Therefore, over half of the respondents indicate significant or major levels of revision while only 17 (9.6%) indicate that programs are essentially the same.

To describe the nature of redesign, respondents were asked to evaluate a list of twenty-four elements in leadership programs that are identified in the literature as attributes of exemplary programs (these do not include elements on the field experience, which was separated into its own section). Each element is followed by 5 categories from which participants had to select: *had in 2002-3 and is essentially the same*, *had in 2002-3 and redesigned*, *had in 2002-3 and dropped*, *did not have in 2002-3 and added*, and, *not an element of program since 2002-3*. Table 7 shows survey results by percentages in each category:

Table 7

Survey Data on Reform

Element	Had in 2002 & same	Had in 2002 redesigned	Had in 2002 dropped	Did not have & Added	Not an Element
Student cohort groups	36.4%	21.0%	3.4%	23.3%	15.9%
Class schedules to fit student needs	55.1%	29.0%	.6%	12.5%	2.8%
Course locations to Fit student needs	47.3	25.7	2.3	20.6	4.0
Addition of online courses	11.4	13.7	.1	47.4	27.4
Path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure	21.1	13.1	1.7	17.7	46.3
Emphasis on research methods as part of curriculum	51.1	29.0	.6	11.9	7.4
Emphasis on B&F as part of the curriculum	52.3	34.7	2.8	4.5	5.7

Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners	45.5	40.3	0	11.4	2.8
Annual course updating by Program faculty	43.1	24.1	0	13.8	19.0
Focus on characteristics of Successful school leaders	52.3	36.2	.6	9.8	1.1
Emphasis on program Instruction/teaching	43.1	42.0	0	12.1	2.9
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	39.8	40.9	.6	12.5	6.2
Emphasis on student reflection and discussion	48.9	39.8	0	9.7	1.7
Professional development or program faculty	56.1	20.8	0	8.7	14.5
A plan for attracting highly qualified faculty	52.9	21.3	1.7	6.3	17.8
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes	43.4	17.7	1.1	6.9	30.9
Use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes	43.1	24.1	0	13.8	19.0
Use of student assessment data for program improvement	29.0	35.8	0	33.0	2.3
Open forums for student & faculty feedback	38.3	20.0	0	20.0	21.7
Partnerships with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort	29.5	21.0	3.4	19.9	25.1
Reg. scheduled meetings with school/district leaders to review candidate assessment data	29.2	18.7	.6	18.7	32.7
Invitations to district leaders	22.1	18.0	0	20.9	39.0

to review candidate
assessment data

Invitations to district leaders to be guest speakers in classes	66.0	22.7	0	8.1	1.2
Use of web-based/electronic systems to compile/analyze student assessment data	17.8	25.3	0	47.7	9.2

Overall, these data show that the majority of program chairs report that their programs already featured many of these design elements in 2002, and that there has been a considerable amount of reform. Several of these data are worth noting. First, for the following elements, 50% or more participants indicated that they had these in 2002-3 and they are essentially the same:

- Class schedules that are chosen to best fit students' needs 97 (55.1%)
- Emphasis on research methods as part of the curriculum 90 (51.1%)
- Emphasis on business and finance as part of the curriculum 92 (52.3%)
- Focus on characteristics of successful school leaders 91 (52.3%)
- Professional development for program faculty 97 (56.1%)
- A plan for attracting highly qualified faculty 92 (52.9%)
- Invitations to local school or district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes 117 (68%).

An additional eight items were cited by at least 40% of the respondents. Thus, overall, of the 24 design elements reflected in the literature calling for reform of

leadership preparation programs, fifteen items already existed in 2002-3 in at least 40% of the programs.

A third category indicates elements that existed in 2002, but were dropped during redesign. This category was chosen by the smallest percentage of all, and no more than 3.4% of participants indicate that an element had been dropped.

A fourth category indicates that the element was not part of the program in 2002, but was added at a later date. Two elements were selected by the highest percentage of participants: *The addition of online courses* 83 (47.4%), and *use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data* 83 (47.7%). For the element, *deliberate use of student assessment data for program improvement*, 33% chose this category. This is significant since a major thrust of NCATE over this time period has been an emphasis on performance-based assessment and the use of evidence in program decision making.

The final category in this section indicates that elements are not part of the program at all. At least a quarter of respondents indicated that the following design elements are not features of their programs:

- A path for non-traditional students 81 (46.3%)
- Regularly scheduled meetings with school district leaders to look at assessment data 56 (32.7%)
- Invitations to school districts to review candidate assessments 67 (39.0%)

Several of these categories are at least a bit surprising. For instance, while almost half of the respondents indicated that their program has added online courses, more than a

quarter have not ventured into online instruction. Even though an emphasis of NCATE deals with partnerships with PK-12 organizations, over a quarter do not feature partnerships with school systems to sponsor cohorts. Finally, although NCATE standards emphasize that design and review of assessment data should include representatives from the field, almost 40% do not invite practitioners to examine assessment data.

Combining the data on reform. In order to depict programs and program reform with greater clarity, the categories used in the survey were collapsed into new categories which are found in Table 8. The point of combining data is to give greater emphasis on what elements were unchanged through program reform and what elements were redesigned. The new categories are as follows:

The categories *had in 2002 and is the same*, *had in 2002 and redesigned*, and, *had in 2002 and dropped* all indicate that an individual element was a part of the program in 2002-3. A new category was formed: *had element in 2002*.

The categories *had in 2002 and is the same*, *had in 2002 and redesigned*, and *did not have in 2002 and added* all indicate that they are currently part of programs regardless of whether they were changed. These were combined to form a new category: *have element now*.

The categories *had in 2002 and redesigned*, *had in 2002 and dropped*, and *did not have in 2002 and added*, all indicate some type of reform/redesign for those elements. These were combined to form a new category: *redesigned*.

The categories *had in 2002 and dropped* and *is not a program element* were combined to give up an updated form of *is not a program element*.

Finally, the category *had in 2002 and did not redesign* is the same. This helps give a whole picture about the levels of redesign by indicating elements that were not part of redesign.

In all, the resulting categories are not mutually exclusive, i.e., some answers are counted in more than one category. However, the intent here is to give a clearer picture of the status of programs in 2002-3; the design of programs today; and the degree of change that programs initiated.

Table 8

Elements of Redesign in Combined Categories

Element	Had Element In 2002-03	Have Element Now	Not a Program Element	Redesigned	Unchanged
Student cohort groups	60.8	80.7	19.3	47.7	36.4
Class schedules to fit student needs	84.7	96.6	3.4	42.1	55.1
Course locations to Fit student needs	75.4	93.7	6.3	48.6	47.4
Addition of online courses	25.1	72.6	27.4	61.1	11.4
Path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure	36.0	51.9	48.0	32.5	21.1
Emphasis on research methods as part of curriculum	80.7	92.0	8.0	41.5	51.1
Emphasis on business and finance as part of the curriculum	89.8	91.5	8.5	42.0	52.3
Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learner	85.8	97.2	2.8	51.7	45.5

Requirement for annual course updates by faculty to reflect new content	67.2	81.0	19.0	37.9	43.1
Focus on characteristics of Successful school leaders	89.1	98.3	1.7	46.6	52.3
Emphasis on program instruction and how classes are taught	85.1	97.1	2.9	54.1	43.1
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	81.2	93.2	6.8	54.0	39.8
Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership	88.6	98.3	1.7	49.5	48.9
Professional development for program faculty	76.9	85.5	14.5	29.5	56.1
A plan for attracting highly qualified faculty	75.9	80.4	19.5	29.3	52.9
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes	62.3	68.0	32.0	25.7	43.4
Use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes	67.2	81.0	19.0	37.9	43.1
Use of student assessment data for program improvement	64.8	97.7	2.3	68.8	29.0
Regularly scheduled open forums students, faculty and guests for feedback	58.3	78.3	21.7	40.0	38.3
Partnerships with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort	54.0	70.5	28.5	44.3	29.5
Regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data	48.5	66.7	33.3	38.0	29.2
Invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data	40.1	61.0	39.0	38.9	22.1

Invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes	90.7	98.8	1.2	30.8	68.0
Use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data	43.1	90.8	9.2	73.0	17.8

* Combined results section

In collapsing the three sections together into one category called *Redesigned*, the percentage of participants reporting some form of redesign becomes clearer. In the version with combined categories, seven of the 24 elements were chosen by average of 50% or more participants as *redesigned*. These are:

- The use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data (73%)
- Deliberate use of student assessment data for program improvement (68.8%)
- The addition of online courses (61.1%)
- Emphasis on program instruction and the way(s) classes are taught (54.1%)
- Emphasis on a logical progression of courses (54%)
- Focus on characteristics of successful school leaders (52.3%).
- Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners as part of the curriculum (51.7%)
- Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership issues (49.5%).

Another seven items were redesigned by at least 40% of the responding programs.

In categorizing the data using the combined version, not one element under the

redesigned category was chosen by fewer than 25% of the participants. These data clearly show that university programs that prepare school leaders have been actively responding to calls for reform, and have done so by addressing many of the issues cited in the reform literature.

The category *unchanged* refers to elements perceived as unchanged since 2002. This category is the same as in the original survey data. The following were reported as *unchanged* by 50% or more participants

- Class schedules to fit student needs (55.1%)
- Emphasis on research methods as part of the curriculum (51.1%)
- Emphasis on business and finance as part of the curriculum (52.3%)
- Focus on characteristics of successful school leaders (52.3%)
- Professional development for program faculty (56.1%).
- A plan for attracting highly qualified faculty (52.9%)
- Invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes (68.0%)

Though a sizeable percentage of chairs report these elements as unchanged, in some cases there may also be a relatively large percentage reporting that they are redesigned. For example the element, *class schedules to fit student needs*, is perceived by 55.1% of chairs as unchanged while 42.1% perceive it as reformed. It is also true that survey data shows that for each of these “unchanged” elements, at least 80% of the respondents suggest that their program features these design elements currently, hence, “no change” does not suggest that the elements are not part of the program design, but rather that they have been part of the design all along.

The combined category that shows which elements are not currently featured in programs includes elements that were presented in 2002 and dropped, and elements that were never featured. Though none of these are reported by over 50% of programs, four are notable with more than 30% of programs reporting that respective elements are not part of their programs. These are: *path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure* (48%), *use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes* (32%), *regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data* (33.3%) and, *invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data* (39%).

Two of the categories formed from combining survey data are *had in 2002-3* and *have now*. Though neither category indicates reform by itself, these data provide a clear picture of design features of educational leadership programs in 2002-3 and today. Perusal of these data show that at least 75% of the programs had fully half of the design features as a part of their program configuration in 2002-3, suggesting perhaps that there has been less of a need for change than some pundits argue. Today, at least 75% of the respondents claim that their programs feature nineteen of the twenty-four design elements. Seven elements were found to be a part of 95% or more programs in 2009-10, thus making them a mainstay in 2002-10 in almost all programs of reform that are accredited by NCATE. These are:

- Class schedules to fit student needs (95%)
- Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners as part of the curriculum (97%)
- Focus on characteristics of successful school leaders (98%)

- Emphasis on program instruction and how classes are taught (97%)
- Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership (98%)
- Use of student assessment data for program improvement (97%)
- Invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes (99%)

Of particular interest here, given research in the field and the emphasis of NCATE over the past decade, is the inclusion of “focus on characteristics of successful school leaders” and “use of student assessment data for program improvement.” Overall, these data suggest that there has been a great deal of reform and that programs have adopted the kinds of design elements suggested in the literature.

When measured against one another, these two categories are also useful in comparing the perceived program growth of the elements. All of the 24 elements from the survey were found to have increased in prevalence between 2002-03 and the present, some more dramatically than others. Six elements grew in popularity by more than 20%. These are:

- Student cohort groups (24%)
- Addition of online courses (48%)
- Use of student assessment data for program improvement (33%)
- Regularly scheduled open forums for students, faculty and guests for feedback (20%)
- Invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data (21%)

- Use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data (47.7%)

Figure 1 displays percent of programs with each of the twenty-four design elements in both 2002-3 and 2009-10. This indicates the level of growth of each element.

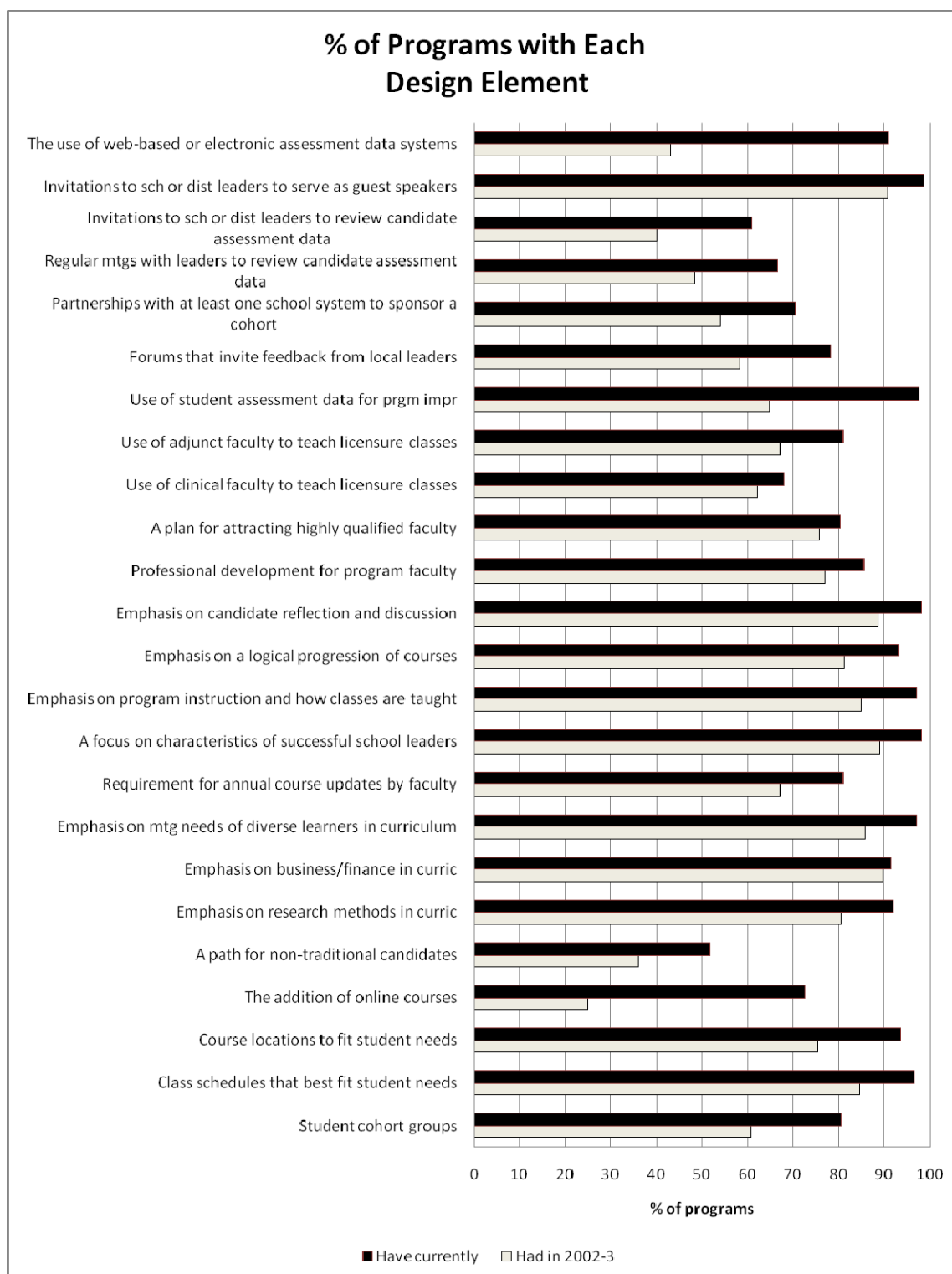


Figure 1 *Program Growth Between 2002-3 and 2009-10*

UCEA membership and program reforms. The University Council for Educational Administration is a consortium of higher educational institutions committed to advancing the preparation and practice of educational leaders for the benefit of schools and children. This is done by the promotion and sponsorship of research, improvement of professional development for educational leaders and professors, and by influencing state and national policy. Given this status, the question of whether UCEA membership status results in different perceptions of reform is of interest and relates to this study on preparation programs.

A comparison of means for all twenty-four program reform components based on UCEA membership and non-membership is found in Table 9. A series of one-way ANOVA tests were conducted to compare the sample means on 'UCEA membership status toward perceptions of reform by program chairs in educational leadership'. Twenty-four different elements that are perceived as reformed in programs of educational leadership were used in the analysis.

Table 9

Comparison of Means: UCEA Membership and Extent of Reforms

Reform	MN Difference	UCEA	Non-UCEA
Student cohort groups	.0021	.4651	.4672
Class schedules to fit student needs	.0586	.3721	.4307
Course locations to Fit student needs	.1128	.5581	.4453
Addition of online courses	.0171	.5814	.5985

Path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure	.0873	.2558	3431.
Emphasis on research methods as part of curriculum	.0171	.4186	.4015
Emphasis on business and finance as part of the curriculum	.0696	.4419	.3723
Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners	.008	.5116	.5036
Requirement for annual course updates by faculty to reflect new content	*.2374	.1860	.4234
Focus on characteristics of Successful school leaders	.1330	.3488	.4818
Emphasis on program instruction and how classes are taught	.0444	.4884	.5328
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	.0399	.5581	.5182
Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership	.0545	.4419	.4964
Professional development for program Faculty	.09	.2093	.2993
A plan for attracting highly qualified Faculty	.1046	.2093	.3139
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes	*.1604	.3721	.2117
Use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes	*.2374	.1860	.4234
Use of student assessment data for program improvement	.0203	.6512	.6715
Regularly scheduled open forums students, faculty and guests for feedback	.0011	.3953	.3942
Partnerships with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort	.0417	.4651	.4234
Regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data	.0828	.4186	.3358

Invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data	.0682	.4186	.3504
Invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes	.0482	.3256	.2774
Use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data	.0714	.6512	.7226

Three of the twenty-four one-way analysis of variance tests produced statistically significant results. These are found in Table 10

Table 10

ANOVA: UCEA Membership and Reforms

Reform	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
Use of clinical faculty to teach Licensure courses				
Between Groups	1	.842	4.555	.034*
Within Groups	178	.185		
Total	179			
Requirement that faculty update courses annually				
Between Groups	1	1.843	8.211	.005*
Within Groups	178	.224		
Total	179			
Use of Adjunct Faculty to teach licensure courses				
Between Groups	1	1.843	8.211	.005*
Within Groups	178	.224		
Total	179			

P < .05

The ANOVA determined that there is a significant difference in group means of chairs with different UCEA membership status and their perceptions of the program reform *use of clinical faculty to teach* [$F(1,178) = 4.555$, Sig. = .034].

There was a significant difference in group means by UCEA membership status and chairs' perceptions of the program reform *requirement for faculty to update courses annually* [$F(1, 178) = 8.211$, Sig. = .005].

The ANOVA determined that there is a significant difference by UCEA membership type on perceptions of the program reform, *use of adjunct to teach licensure courses* [$F(1, 178) = 8.211$, Sig. = .005].

The analysis of variance test determined that there are significant differences between the reported perceptions of participants who were members of the UCEA and not members on *requirement that faculty update courses annually*, *use of clinical faculty to teach licensure courses*, and *use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure courses*. Given that there are twenty-four reforms and only three are shown to be perceived differently by UCEA members, the findings are not very profound.

University Type and Program Reforms. Program chairs were asked to describe the university with which their program is affiliated. Universities were rated as doctoral, research, and comprehensive based on the number of doctoral students graduating each year and the university's perceived commitment and funding for research. Research universities confer 50 or more doctoral degrees

annually and place a high priority on research; Doctoral universities offer undergraduate and graduate degrees and confer up to 50 doctoral degrees annually; Comprehensive universities offer a range of undergraduate and Masters degrees.

Given the various levels of scholarship at each of three types of university, analysis of variance was performed to determine whether significant mean differences exist in survey results by university type. Table 11 shows the means for each of the survey results.

Table 11

Comparison of Means: University Type and Extent of Reforms

Reform	Research	Doctoral	Comprehensive
Student cohort groups	.4694	.4000	.4938
Class schedules to fit student needs	.3469	.4600	.4198
Course locations to Fit student needs	.4898	.5000	.4321
Addition of online courses	.4694	.6800	.6049
Path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure	* .1837	.4400	.3210
Emphasis on research methods as part of curriculum	.3673	.4600	.3827
Emphasis on business and finance as part of the curriculum	.4490	.3400	.3827
Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners	.4490	.4800	.5432
Requirement for annual course updates by faculty to reflect new content	.3265	.3600	.3827
Focus on characteristics of Successful school leaders	.3878	.4600	.4691
Emphasis on program instruction	.4490	.6600	.4691

and how classes are taught			
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	.4490	.6400	.5062
Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership	.5306	.5400	.4074
Professional development for program Faculty	*.1224	.3800	.2963
A plan for attracting highly qualified Faculty	.2245	.3600	.2716
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes	*.3673	.2400	.1728
Use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes	.3265	.3600	.3827
Use of student assessment data for program improvement	.6122	.7600	.6296
Regularly scheduled open forums students, faculty and guests for feedback	.3265	.3800	.4444
Partnerships with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort	.4694	.3800	.4444
Regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data	.3469	.4200	.3210
Invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data	.2857	.4200	.3704
Invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes	.2245	.3000	.3086
Use of web-based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data	.6327	.8000	.6790

Table 12

ANOVA: University Type and Reforms

Reform	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
Path for non-traditional candidates				
Between Groups	2	.814	3.862	.023*
Within Groups	177	.211		
Total	179			

Professional development of

program faculty				
Between Groups	2	.863	4.504	.012*
Within Groups	177	.192		
Total	179			
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure courses				
Between Groups	2	.578	3.190	.044*
Within Groups	177	.181		
Total	179			

P < .05

The ANOVA determined that three of twenty-four elements had significant mean differences (see Tables 11 and 12). Differences in means existed in *path for non-traditional candidates*, *professional development for program faculty*, and *use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes*.

A review of the mean differences in Table 11 for *path for non-traditional candidates* indicates significant mean differences for *research* (.1837) and *doctoral* (.4400) for a total mean difference of .2563. A review of the mean differences for *professional development for program faculty* indicates significant difference in means for *research* (.1224) and *doctoral* (.3800) for a total mean difference of .2576. A review of the mean differences for *use of clinical faculty to teach licensure courses* reveals significant mean differences between *research* (.3676) and *comprehensive* (.1728) for a total mean difference of .1948.

In all, based on university type three of twenty-four elements were found to have significantly different means based on university type. In addition, for each of the three elements, the significantly different means existed between only two of the three types. Thus, we can conclude that mean differences based on

university type are found in only a small percentage of cases and are, therefore, mostly insignificant.

Summary of quantitative analysis on reform. By collapsing the data and combining the categories *reformed*, *added*, and *dropped*, a clearer picture develops of what reforms took place between 2002 and 2010. Most prominent of these are candidate assessment, courses that emphasize technology, course design and delivery, and increased interaction with local school districts. Likewise, by collapsing the categories *had in 2002 and reformed*, *had in 2002 and didn't reform*, and *had in 2002 and dropped*, a picture of what programs had in 2002 shows that many programs had many of the elements in 2002, with the lowest percentage reporting at 25.1% for the element *online programs*. The data also show that large percentages of the programs employ features associated with high performing programs, and that there has been considerable attention to program reform and renewal since the adoption of ELCC standards.

Analysis of variance was run to determine if there were significant mean differences on reforms based on participants' UCEA membership status or university type. The ANOVA determined that there were significant differences in the means of three out of twenty-four elements for UCEA membership and three out of twenty-four for university type. Given the small percentages, it is the conclusion of the researcher that differences are too minor to impact results and neither UCEA status nor university type significantly affects the outcome of the data on reforms.

Field -Based Experiences

The second research question is on program reform in field-based experiences and consists of two questions of several parts. Question 17 inquires about the number of required field experience hours in 2002-3 and in 2009-10. Question 18 asks participants to choose one of four levels of agreement or disagreement on 11 statements related to field experiences and reform.

Table 13 shows the average reported minimum in 2002-3 was 216 hours and range of hours required for field experiences ranges from 0 – 720. The average reported minimum for 2009-10 was 267 hours and hours ranged from a low of 10 to a high of 710. Thus, the averages for 2009-10 indicate an increased number of minimum required hours but a slightly smaller range.

Although there were a total of 181 survey respondents, only 121 answered the first part of question 17 which asks how many hours the field experience required in 2002, and only 129 answered the second part on required field experience hours for 2009-10. The quartiles shown in Table 14 indicate that the 2009-10 hours have increased over the 2002-3 in all three ranges.

Table 13

Comparison of Field Experience Hours in 2002 and 2010

Numbers of Hours	2002-3	2009-10
Mean	216	267
Median	180	250
Mode	150	300

Range	720	700
Standard Deviation	163.7003	156.6055

Table 14

Field Experience Hours by Quartiles

Quartile	Hours 2002-3	Hours 2009-10
25th	100	150
50th	180	250
75 th	300	300

The next survey question asks participants to rate a series of statements built around the field experiences on a Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. In the original grouping of the data, the order ascended from one, *strongly agree* to four, *strongly disagree*. The data were transformed from the original in order to show ascension of rank from one, *strongly disagree* to four, *strongly agree*. This was done in order to keep analysis in sync with other sections where ascending agreement corresponds to higher numerical choice. A fifth category, *we do not have this component*, was also available, and this response was analyzed separately to show the number of programs that do not feature various components for field experience. As seen in Table 15, the selection and training of field mentors is the least likely to be part of field-based experiences as compared with other components. This is consistent with data in Table 16

that indicates less emphasis on the role of the field mentor than on any other field experience component. Overall, though, results show that the vast majority of elements of reform are a part of field experience.

Table 15

Programs That Do Not Have Field-Based Components

Number	Component	Do Not Have Component
1.	The field experience begins earlier in the program.	3
2.	The field experience is more integrated with and complements the program.	2
3.	Selection requirements for mentors have become more stringent.	9
4.	Training requirements for field mentors have increased.	16
5.	Increase emphasis on the importance of student journals for reflection.	6
6.	Increased emphasis on a project such as a school improvement plan.	4
7.	Evaluating how well student interns develop/maintain good working relationships.	6
8.	Evaluating student competence in a school leadership role.	4
9.	Leadership experiences with Various grade levels.	6
10.	Increased emphasis on experience at various school sites.	8
11.	Field-based experience that that incorporates NCATE Standards.	2

Table 16, on the sustained field-based experience, indicates strong agreement with most of the eleven statements related to change in the internship. This indicates an internship experience that is longer, more varied, and more integrated into the preparation of school administrator than before. The highest percentage of participants chose the category, *strongly agree*, for eight of the eleven statements, and in all eleven, participants chose either *strongly agree* or *somewhat agree* more often than the other categories. The means are all above the midpoint, with all but two means above three. Thus, program reform is perceived by program chairs as significant in the field-based experience.

Table 16

Sustained Field Experience Frequencies and Distributions

Statement	N	Strngly Disgree	Smwhat Disgree	Smwhat Agree	Strngly Agree	Mean/SD
The field experience begins earlier in the program.	166	15.1%	13.3%	25.3%	46.4%	3.030/1.097
The field experience is more integrated with and complements the program.	168	3.6	6.0	25.0	65.5	3.523/.7656
Selection requirements for mentors have become more stringent.	160	8.8	18.8	40.0	32.5	2.962/.9308
Training requirements for field mentors have increased.	151	11.3	22.5	36.4	29.8	2.847/.978
Increased emphasis on the Importance of student journals for reflection.	161	5.6	15.5	44.1	33.5	3.093/.8717
Increased emphasis on a project such as a school improvement	164	6.1	9.1	24.4	60.4	3.390/.8717

plan.

Evaluating how well student Interns develop/maintain good working relationships.	163	2.5	8.6	37.4	51.5	3.380/.747
Evaluating student competence in a school leadership role.	165	1.8	9.7	30.3	58.2	3.448/.7441
Leadership experiences with various grade levels	164	4.9	17.7	37.8	39.6	3.122/.8706
Experiences at various school sites.	159	5.7	17.6	36.5	40.3	3.113/.8928
Field-based experiences that incorporate NCATE/ELCC Standards	165	1.8	6.1	26.7	65.5	3.557/.6927

*Highest percentages are in bold face.

The following statements were chosen by 50% or more participants in the *strongly agree* category:

- The field experience is more integrated with, and complements, the coursework. 110 (65.5%)
- There is increased emphasis on requiring students to complete a project, such as a school improvement plan, while at the internship site. 99 (60.4%)
- There is increased emphasis on evaluating how well student interns develop and maintain good working relations. 84 (51.5%)
- There is increased emphasis on evaluating student competence in a school leadership role. 96 (58.2%)

- There is increased emphasis on a field based experience that incorporates elements of the NCATE Advanced Standards for Programs of Educational Leadership. 108 (65.5%)

Neither *disagree* category for field experience were chosen by even a quarter of respondents. Statement number 4 *training for mentors increased*, shows a combined percentage rate of 33.8% for *somewhat* and *strongly disagree*.

UCEA membership and field-based experiences. A series of on-way ANOVA tests were conducted to determine if group mean differences existed for program chairs from either of three types of university and their perceptions of elements from the field experiences Prior to analyzing the data using inferential statistics, preliminary analysis was completed in order to inspect the patterns of scores for groups with varying university type. This provided an indication of the variability of scores within each group and allowed a visual inspection of the differences between groups.

Table 17 shows the means indicating perceptions of change for UCEA status, member and non-member. Significantly different means are asterisked.

Table 17

Comparison of Means: UCEA Membership Status and Extent of Field-based Experiences.

Component	Member	Provisional	NON-UCEA
The field experience begins earlier in the program.	2.025	2.000	2.008
The field experience is more integrated with and complements the program.	1.512	1.000	1.536

Selection requirements for mentors have become more stringent.	2.131	1.250	2.240
Training requirements for field mentors have increased.	2.421	1.750	2.447
Increased emphasis on the importance of student journals for reflection.	*2.421	1.000	1.975
Increased emphasis on a project, such as a school improvement plan.	1.820	1.250	1.650
Evaluating how well student interns develop and maintain good working relationships.	1.846	1.500	1.725
Evaluating student competence in a school leadership role.	1.641	1.000	1.661
Leadership experiences with various grade levels.	2.205	1.000	1.968
Experience at various school sites.	2.153	1.250	2.041
Field-based experiences that incorporate NCATE/ELCC standards	1.512	1.240	1.483

In an analysis, a one-way ANOVA was used to examine if there were group mean differences between chairs in programs with different UCEA membership status (full, probationary, none) and perceptions on field experiences. The ANOVA determined that significant difference was found between group means by UCEA membership status and the reform, *increased emphasis on the importance of student journals for reflection*. Results are shown in Table 18. We conclude that chairs of programs with varying UCEA affiliation had different perceptions on the emphasis on student journals as reform based on whether their programs were full, provisional, or non-UCEA members.

Table 18

ANOVA: UCEA membership and Extent of Field-Based Experiences

Reform	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
Student journals for reflection				
Between Groups	2	4.092	6.043	.003*
Within Groups	152	.677		

Comparison of the means indicates significant differences between the means for *member* (2.421) and *provisional member* (1.000) for a total mean difference of 1.421. Therefore, faculty from programs with full UCEA membership perceived the component differently than faculty from programs with provisional membership, but there is little reported different in perceptions of faculty who are provisional and non-members.

University type and field-based experiences. In an examination of university type and reforms in the field experience, a comparison of the means indicates that there is significant difference based on type of university and the degree that program chairs perceive *emphasis on competence in a leadership role*. Table 18 shows the full listing of means for each element and university type.

Table 19

Comparison of Means: University Type and Extent of Field-Based Experiences

Component	Research	Doctoral	Comprehensive
The field experience begins earlier in the program.	2.000	1.852	2.144
The field experience is more integrated with and complements the program.	1.613	1.367	1.565

Selection requirements for mentors have become more stringent.	2.181	2.163	2.240
Training requirements for field mentors have increased.	2.511	2.346	2.445
Increased emphasis on the importance of student journals for reflection.	2.232	1.808	2.094
Increased emphasis on a project, such as a school improvement plan.	1.674	1.571	1.786
Evaluating how well student interns develop and maintain good working relationships.	* 1.883	1.449	1.855
Evaluating student competence in a school leadership role.	1.837	1.428	1.657
Leadership experiences with various grade levels.	2.204	1.877	1.947
Experience at various school sites.	2.340	1.895	1.959
Field-based experiences that incorporate NCATE/ELCC standards	1.613	1.449	1.438

ANOVA was run to determine significant differences in means. From this, we can determine that the element *emphasis on evaluating good working relationships* indicates significantly different means. Thus, one of eleven elements of reform was found to be significantly different based on university type. The ANOVA data is presented in Table 20.

Table 20

ANOVA University Type and Field Experiences

Reform	df	MS	F-Ratio	Sig.
Emphasis evaluating good				

working relationships				
Between Groups	2	3.023	3.326	..038*
Within Groups	165	.909		
Total	167			

P < .05

A comparison of the means suggests that significant differences are found between research and doctoral types but not between others. Thus, we can conclude that of eleven elements only one element indicates significant mean differences based on university type. This difference is between only two of the presented types. Thus, differences in all are not significant.

Summary of quantitative analysis on field-based experiences. Field-based experience increased from 2002-3 in the number of required minimum hours. In addition, all eleven components were rated with high percentages of agreement over disagreement on a likert scale, indicating high level perceptions of reform. ANOVA performed that looked for significant mean differences for programs based on UCEA membership or university type indicated only one positive difference for each of the two. Given that there are eleven elements, one perception of difference for UCEA status and one perception of difference for university type, indicate little, if any, significant impact overall. Thus, field-based experiences are perceived as significantly reformed between 2002 and 2010, with little difference based on noted program affiliations.

Reform Influences

This section asks participants to select the extent to which each of the following influenced decisions concerning program design on a four- point Likert scale. Each influence and the level of redesign they influenced are found in Table 21.

Table 21

Influences on Program Reform

Influence	N	Not at all	Somewhat	Moderately	Substantially	M./SD
Research on effective leadership programs	181	2.8%	17.1%	33.7%	46.4%	3.237/.8326
Input from program faculty.	181	1.7	5.5	21.0	71.8	3.629/.6674
Input from program students.	180	3.9	17.2	45.6	33.3	3.083/.8110
Feedback from graduates	180	3.9	17.2	37.8	41.1	3.161/.8467
Design of other programs at your university	178	34.8	36.0	23.0	6.2	2.005/.9113
Design of programs at other universities	180	11.7	46.1	35.0	7.2	2.377/.7850
Design of non-university program	177	58.2	28.8	9.0	4.0	1.587/.8149
Examination of student performance on assessments	181	5.5	24.3	29.8	40.3	3.049/.9326
Examination of Performance on the SLLA	180	30.0	17.7	23.3	30.0	2.533/1.207
Pressure from university to generate income.	180	41.1	31.1	19.4	18.3	1.950/.9703
NCATE Standards on leadership preparation	181	3.3	16.6	27.1	53.0	3.298/.8624

Changes in state licensure requirements	180	7.2	12.2	25.0	55.6	3.288/.9424
NCLB laws	181	23.8	40.3	28.7	7.2	2.193/.8826
Grant money from federal or local agencies.	180	64.4	27.2	7.2	1.1	1.450/.6791
Grant money from private Foundations	180	71.7	18.3	8.3	1.7	1.400/.7137
Feedback from schools systems	180	6.7	25.6	40.0	27.8	2.888/.8899
Perceived public perception of school leaders	174	21.8	29.3	39.1	9.8	2.367/.9325

Note: High percentages are in boldface.

Analysis of means shows that the factors that had the greatest impact on reform, on average, were input from program faculty (3.63); NCATE standards (3.30); changes in state licensure (3.29); and research on effective leadership programs (3.24). Categories that were chosen by the most participants are highlighted in bold. From these, scores for three components indicate that 50% or more of participants perceive them as substantially influencing reform. These are:

- Input from program faculty (71.8%)
- NCATE Standards on educational leadership preparation (53.0%)
- Changes in state licensure requirements (55.6%)

Three components are perceived by 50% or more participants as having no influence on reform. These are:

- Design of non-university based leadership programs (58.2%)
- Grant money from federal or local agencies (64.4%)

- Grant money from private foundations (71.7%)

Assuming that significance can also be found in grouping categories, two side-by-side categories also yield substantial information. In joining the categories *not at all* and *somewhat* and forming a new category, *less likely*, components appear that are perceived as small influences by 70 percent or more. Likewise, by forming the new category, *more likely*, from the categories *moderately* and *substantially*, stronger influences of 70 percent or more are found. A list of components perceived as more or less likely to influence reform by 70% or more is found in Table 22.

Table 22

Program Influences: More or Less Likely to Influence Reform by $\geq 70\%$.

Component	More likely	Less likely
Research on effective Programs	80.1%	
Input from program faculty	92.8%	
Input from program students	78.9%	
Feedback from graduates	78.9%	
Examination of student performance on assessments	70.1%	
Design of other programs at the your university		70.8%
Pressure from university to generate Income		72.2%
NCATE Standards on leadership preparation	80.1%	
Changes in state licensure requirements	80.6%	
Grant money from federal or local agencies		91.6%

When combining categories, the influences with the highest percentages are *input from program faculty, NCATE Standards, and State licensure requirements*. The latter two are consistent with what is found in the interview section while the interviews did not focus on input from program faculty.

Summary of quantitative analysis on influences. The quantitative data on program influences reveal that *input from program faculty* is by far the largest perceived influence, followed by *NCATE Standards on leadership preparation and changes in state licensure preparation*. Though some other influences were perceived by 40% or more in the *substantially* category, they didn't come within 10% of those three perceived as the largest.

Conclusions for the Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis reveals that there has been substantial change in leadership programs from 2002 to 2010. In particular, the collapsed data on program reforms highlights a greater degree of redesign in all twenty-four elements presented. Foremost of these are related to technology and use of data, course updates and delivery, assessment of candidates, and increased interaction with school districts. In addition, evidence suggest that in many programs a substantial number of the twenty-four elements were present in programs before 2002 and have undergone redesign rather than been added.

The data relating to field experience similarly show a substantial degree of reform. The extent and nature of clinical practice embedded in leadership preparation programs has been a focus of critics, so these data are especially significant. Overall, the two sections on reform elements suggest that a great deal of change has taken place in thirty-five program elements in total.

The final section, on what factors most influence reform, determined that only six of seventeen components were perceived as substantially influential. Foremost among these is input from program faculty, followed by pressure from the accreditation agency and the influence of state education agencies. Given the types of reforms that appear to have gotten the most attention (e.g., field experiences; use of candidate data to inform change), this makes sense; much reform appears to be spurred on by faculty who are at the point of delivery of preparation programs, along with organizations vested with monitoring and ensuring their performance.

Presentation of Qualitative Data

The qualitative evidence collected from program chairs provides an opportunity to approach the research questions by mining thick, descriptive information about reform of leadership preparation programs. These data provide both an opportunity to triangulate, i.e., to determine if like themes emerge from conversations with a number of chairs, as well as to learn more about why certain patterns of response may be evident. . As expressed in at least one interview, the initial impression by those who were involved in reform was that it was not to be taken seriously – e.g., some reforms would be initiated but such processes were far more about moderate change than true systematic reform.

When reform came, its depth and timeline varied from state to state and sometimes, from program to program. In sum, the qualitative analysis will make the following points on reform:

- Most of the reforms from the quantitative section are highlighted by program chairs in the qualitative. This is especially important as in the qualitative section the chairs were not given a list to select from (as in the survey) and had to rely on firsthand knowledge.
- Reform, not just change, took place. Even programs that responded to mandates for reform in piece-meal fashion did so knowing that they were responding to reform standards that encompassed the entire program.
- Levels of reform were often associated with the level of applied pressure by the influencing entity (the state, ELCC, or other).
- Entities that are in position to offer or take away funding, accreditation, or licensing appear more instrumental as influencing programs to change than those that pushed for change for the sake of better preparation.

The following background section describes the influences on reform which are instrumental in describing what happened and why. The presentation begins with some background information derived from the interviews, followed by discussion of evidence related to each of the research questions.

Background. Initially, the drive toward reform was met with skepticism, with some program faculty believing that true reform would not actually occur. This has proven to be wrong in most programs where reform has been initiated. Still, in many states, when

politicians and education officials decided to move toward reform, programs responded with greater swiftness and depth than when they were not pressured by the states.

As an example, for the following respondent, reform translated to examination of scope and sequence, resulting in relatively minor changes:

We took what was already there, and what we found when we began a review of the entire curriculum, we found a great deal of redundancy, which of course, was one of the things that Levine was implying in his report. So, we eliminated the redundancy and in the process of that we updated the textbooks (Interview with respondent B).

In contrast, the following respondents program is in a state that pushed reform, and s/he acknowledged that initially, state mandates for reform were met with with skepticism that later changed:

States pushed for reform because they realized that these programs were sorely out of date, they are out of touch with what the principalship has become with the emphasis on education leadership/instructional leadership. So that's where [state] is. It was totally driven by the state, um, the colleges and universities were very slow to come to the table about this, almost, and this predates my time here, but from my impression, they were, you know, thinking this is just a fad, we don't want to change, they're really not serious about this. Well, they were serious about it...And our program was approved in April, just this past April, and the way the program has changed is it's a dramatic shift from the old, management

style program, you know, where you learn about personnel in its own setting
(Interview with respondent I).

Eventually, in this case, reform was taken seriously, which resulted in major changes.

Two broad levels of reform emerged from the interviews. Three of the ten participants reported complete program redesign where the state, or a state appointed office, informed program personnel that they were to close out their old programs completely in favor of new ones by certain dates or risk being put out of business. The other seven programs report no such edicts from the states, but tell of reforms driven by a combination of state entities and the ELCC that are more gradual in nature and involve realigning parts of their already-existing programs to meet new criteria.

In all three of the programs that underwent complete reform, the program chairs were changed. Thus review of the processes is difficult because new chairs could only recount either what they had heard or what they think occurred. In one case, the program chair recounted program reform as driven by the faculty in response to literature, seemingly unaware that some reform may have occurred before he arrived and his appointment as part of a more practitioner-based faculty was a part of a reform that was already in the works.

Chair A is in a program that was completely closed out in favor of a new one. She describes new course descriptions, goals, requirements, formats and assessments as follows:

[State] recently changed its certification, with respect to the certification of administrators and schools, and so basically what we then did is - they sunlighted

all of the educational leadership programs in colleges and universities in the state. And we had to redesign our program...but what we had to do at that point was make sure our program reflected performance based leadership activities, because of the new certification for the state. They expected all of the assistant principals and principals and central office personnel, who had staff evaluation duties and responsibilities, to have gone through a performance based leadership program. So then we made sure that the assessment pieces in our courses reflected the performance based activities. So, most of the changes were a focus away from looking at just theory and focusing more on the practical approach and looking at case studies and more practical approaches to using information content in the course that we relate to some specific problem or issue or concern at the school. (Interview with respondent A).

Programs that underwent more gradual reform processes tended to either align themselves to standards in order to meet requirements for approval or responded to state mandates. Because all ten of the programs are from states with full NCATE partnership, the schools of education in which they are located should all be accredited. That does not necessarily mean that all of the programs of educational leadership are nationally recognized however, and the standards of rigor by which this has been approached appear to vary by state.

I thought things coming out of the state were kind of positive, that the state had a direction from the legislature, down to the state board of education, down to the state superintendent of schools that the focus was going to be on student learning

and student achievement. So the state, over the last five years, started a process of changing the, not quite the policies, but the procedures that they were looking at for school leaders. They didn't state what courses to teach or what was going to be in your courses, but it was pretty obvious that the focus coming out of the state was to have school leaders who were going to be instructional professionals (Interview with respondent C).

Where ELCC is involved, most programs that have undergone reform appear to have done so with the goal of meeting expectations for national recognition or because the school of education with which the program is affiliated is NCATE accredited. Though the process for meeting ELCC Standards is clear, there appears to be less rigor in overall reform when programs do not have state education offices giving them direction or input. For example, program Chair G has led her program for four years where she is currently the only full-time professor. In order to meet NCATE Standards she examined where her program was and how it could meet objectives on paper that would also prepare her students for the state certification test. During our interview it became clear that the program she is in is oriented mostly by need to meet basic standards and not to become something completely new and different:

Well, they make sure that, one of the things we've done is created a matrix to, and we've made sure every standard is being addressed at least two or three times in the different courses so, you know, we've come to take a look at the big picture with all of the courses that the candidates have to take and the standards and a check sheet, you know, make sure we had everything aligned – that's one way we

did it...we didn't change the titles of any courses, but we did change some of the content. And, a lot of the textbooks these days have the ELCC standards in them as you know. So, I wouldn't say every single textbook does include those standards, but a lot of them do. And we just make sure the students realize, and one of the things I do, with my students is, at the beginning of every semester, is I start the class out with a review of the standards and remind them that this is what we're covering and these are the standards in general...I don't want the students – the candidates – not to know what the standards are, and that we have to meet those. (Interview with respondent G).

The next example typifies reforms that are driven by the state. Professor E is in a program that has also changed gradually. He cites the major influence on reform as being the state rather than NCATE, though he acknowledges NCATE's role in establishing new standards for programs. He thinks that the changes have been positive and the examples he gives indicate that the program is close to meeting the same level of redesign found in programs that underwent complete reform:

For instance, in the school finance course, they have to develop a school level budget. It doesn't just talk about the theories of finance and theories of public funding, but more, ok you have money, you have funding, how do you budget it? How do you distribute it according to programming needs, how does that budget relate to the mission of the school, related possibly to data from SOL scores, if we needed to increase emphasis in math, how does that budget relate to data that you

have, so that's kind of an example of how we would approach the change of some of that. (Interview with respondent E).

When the programs are studied in depth, differences among all of them surface and it becomes clear that, whether programs were sunlit or given specific changes to make, all ten were transformed at different levels with varying perceived pressures. The differences found in each program including size, location, number of faculty (Table 5) as well as level of state influence and perceptions of past successes in educating school leaders indicated in the interviews, have made each program's reform efforts unique. Still, all of the programs are described by their chairs as responding to either the state or ELCC standards, and thus, the changes are part of a systematic and planned reform that responds to an external stimulus rather than change that is driven from within.

Qualitative Analysis on Reform

The following are program areas where redesign has been highlighted by program chairs. This corresponds to the first research question which asks, "to what extent have programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?"

Categorizing the qualitative data on reform. The following areas surfaced consistently in the discussions, thus leading to the conclusion that these are at the core of reform. Each of these areas are also found in the quantitative data.

Instructional leadership. In the quantitative section, the emphasis on instructional leadership runs through a variety of elements but is probably best characterized by *A focus on characteristics of successful school leaders* and *Emphasis on reflection and*

discussion time for students to discuss leadership issues. Though almost all of the chairs who were interviewed mentioned the move from a management-oriented principalship to one that is steeped in instructional leadership, the training provided varies. Some programs seem to allow for that emphasis to occur passively from textbooks and individual classes on their own, while other programs make it clear that planning for, and assessing candidates on instructional leadership skill is a high priority. “I’ve also seen a change in the emphasis – not just from NCATE, but from the state – toward a focus on the school leader to be more of an instructional specialist, to be able to do things as a school leader that are going to have a direct impact on student achievement” (Interview with respondent A).

Chair I is the sole, full-time faculty member in an urban program that was closed out and begun anew with vigorous state oversight. His new program is permeated with the theme of instructional leadership:

Ok, for instance, almost every course has that emphasis, it’s a personnel class it emphasizes how do you hire and retain good folks that are going to impact instruction, and so you make ties between the nuts and bolts of the legalities of personnel and the impacting of instruction, but then in almost all of the courses it is an instructional focus and emphasis. For instance, we have a building culture and climate course, and in that, it’s how do you build a climate in your school that emphasizes student achievement? And so, the litmus test for everything that’s done in the class is, ok, what is the impact on student achievement rather than you kind of go through that class and learn some theory and learn some

ways of doing it, it's like, no, ok, let's apply this: what impact is that going to have on student achievement? So, it's taking the theory and applying the impact it's having on student achievement (Interview with respondent I).

The emphasis on instructional leadership is often linked with other reforms. For example, it is a factor by which candidates are assessed at the center of the field-based experiences, especially with the inclusion of specific activities that are based on increasing student performance.

Chair E, who has two full-time faculty and twenty-five students, describes the focus on instructional leadership as deliberate – driven not just by the ELCC, but the state as well. Thus, it is a planned reform that comes from the standards and is not simply change by itself:

Most of the changes were a focus away from looking at just theory and focusing more on the practical approach...using information content in the courses that we relate to some specific problem or issue. I've also seen a change in the emphasis – not just from NCATE, but from the state – toward a focus on the school leader to be more of an instructional specialist, to be able to do things as a school leader that are going to have a direct impact on student achievement. (Interview with respondent E).

Curriculum reform. The survey data show moderate levels of reform in *emphasis on research methods as part of the curriculum, emphasis on business and finance as part of curriculum, requirement for annual course updates by faculty to reflect new content, a*

focus on characteristics of successful school leaders, an emphasis on a logical progression of courses, and the addition of online courses.

The qualitative data indicate that for almost all of the programs, reforms began with the coursework and curriculum. Under mandates to build programs that are practitioner-oriented with an instructional leadership leaning, program chairs report significant reforms. These include the addition or elimination of courses, the adjusting of courses to reflect an emphasis on practical skills, the elimination of redundancy, the streamlining of courses toward a more coherent progression, and the addition of mandated practica that complement the field experiences. Following the previous section that detailed how differently programs have approached reform, the following interviews indicate diversity as to where various programs are in curricular redesign:

So, that our curriculum went through some major changes in that, instead of having stand-alone courses like personnel, law, budget, facilities, instead of having courses like that, the curriculum changed and pulled in a variety of things – it's almost like mini modules per course and the titles changed substantially to reflect what the modules in that course were about. (Interview with respondent B).

I would say the only thing that would be different...was in asking the students to be more explicit in how they're connecting theory to practice. We knew they were doing it, but now we're asking them to do more explaining of how they're using this piece of the literature or how they see their own practice in that piece of the literature. (Interview with respondent J).

Most of the [curriculum] changes were a focus away from looking at just theory and focusing more on the practical approach and looking at case studies and more practical approaches to using information content in the course that we relate to some specific problem or issue or concern at the school. I've also seen a change in the emphasis – not just from NCATE, but from the state – toward a focus on the school leader to be more of an instructional specialist, to be able to do things as a school leader that are going to have a direct impact on student achievement (Interview with respondent E).

Given the drive to make classes more performance-based, several programs require assignments and clinical experiences in the leadership courses that mimic real life situations. One program refers to them as labs, but they involve separate, hands-on activities that differ from the sustained internship and are more tailored toward the individual class versus overall school administration. Sometimes these are designed by individual professors while other times, the entire department has constructed them for use in every course as a program requirement.

Each of our courses has at least two field based experiences, by and large though Phil, that uh, works out to be they go and observe something or they interview someone and the write about. But they actually have to participate in some way, but I'm not so sure it's as challenging as the residency is (Interview with respondent H).

Candidate assessment. In the quantitative data, three reforms deal with the topic of candidate assessment. They are *use of student data for program improvement, invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data, and regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data.* The qualitative data supports the quantitative but also details the feelings about assessment as expressed by some of the interviewees.

The ELCC/NCATE process requires just one performance-based assessment, the Student Leadership Licensure Exam, which is taken at the end of programs. Still, several program chairs mentioned that the job of assessing candidates is time consuming and exhaustive, in part because the increase in field experiences has led to an increase in time spent on rating candidates' performance. The shift to performance-based assessment is a major change in how programs in schools of education operate, in general, and in programs that develop school leaders, these performances may be even more complex because students do not have as much of an opportunity to lead an entire school during their pre-service education (i.e., there are few opportunities analogous to student teaching in teacher education programs).

A second concern that emerged is the dislike of quantifying candidates' behaviors such as through the development of assessment rubrics for performance-based activities. Two participants cited concerns about reporting student progress in ways that ignore intellectual growth in favor of set standards and expected behaviors.

Chair D leads a fairly large program located in the mid-west. With seventeen full-time faculty members, he chairs the largest program in this study. His concerns express a disdain for measuring student behaviors in the way is department is asking because he feels the assessment requirements reduce unquantifiable data to something that does not accurately portray what is occurring:

The assessment requirements for ELCC are very constraining to what we do because they're a certain type of measure which is quantified, which I don't think is good for an assessment of learning at any level, and certainly not for the graduate level. So we've had to change a lot of what we do in our courses courtesy of the assessment, and the ELCC thinks they are valid measures of what students know and what students do. So I clearly have significant issues with that. And hopefully that gets to some of what you are asking. Would we recognize all of the different programs as a result of all this? I'd have to answer yes. And in the age of NCATE and ELCC the student experience is different. From my experience, not very positive. (Interview with respondent D).

Chair J feels that the imposed assessments take away from the students' ability to think in a free and intellectual manner. She leads a program that is located in a university system just outside of a major city in the northeast. Her program has 55 students and 2 full-time faculty. She spoke candidly about what she thinks her students need and how this sometimes conflicts with standards that

base a good deal on candidate assessment on conformity to norms that she feels leave no room for an intellectual response: “There’s such a current focus on the clinical component that, personally, I feel worried about, because I feel school leaders should be thoughtful intellectuals in addition to being effective practitioners” (Interview with respondent J).

Chair H comes from a different perspective. Rather than seeing assessments as imposed on his program, he has chosen the reporting instrument himself and he is positive about outcomes. He described the state as giving faculty wide latitude on several program structures as long as specific reforms and standards can be found within the overall program.

We also use something, Phil, it’s called the Leadership Practices Inventory, I’m not sure you’re familiar with that or not...It is an online program from Wiley publishing, two authors in this program are Kouzes and Posner...I can’t remember, but anyway, it has 30 discrete leadership skills that should be present in a leader in any organization, whether it’s school, business, church, whatever - it really is, we administer that twice during each semester, twice for each resident, and do a self-assessment. The principal evaluates them on the same 30 skills, and then up to 5 other observers chosen by the resident, evaluate the resident on those 30 skills, and we download a consolidated report and then we talk to the resident about uh, well, you know, you rated yourself as a 1-10, you rated yourself as a 7 on this, but your observer has rated you as a 3. What do you think

the reasons for the discrepancy are? We're kind of pleased with that - we've only used it for a year now (Interview with respondent H).

Use of cohorts. In the quantitative data, student cohort groups are perceived as redesigned by 47.7% of the respondents. This indicated moderate reform. The data also shows that cohorts have been, and continue to be, a common component in preparation programs. While NCATE standards neither mandate nor discourage cohorts, some states appear to favor them. Because they are seen as a way by which students can learn to work together and support a sequenced course structure many programs continue to include cohorts to some degree. In the interviews for this study, no program chairs reported that cohorts were new to them. Rather, participation in a cohort either became a requirement for all in the program or the program expanded and encouraged cohort use. “When I started in this program, which was in 2002, it was already a cohort model, there was already a big focus on reflective practice, there was already an integration of coursework because there was a cohort...” (Interview with respondent J). Still, continuous use of cohorts was not always the case.

In response to whether cohorts were added as part of redesign, program chair B responded, “uh, no, it had been in effect for several years and then it had stopped. And then we came and brought it back. Um, but at any rate when we brought back the cohort model, essentially what we tried to do was align our curriculum much like you do in public schools to where things were sequential. One course would lead to the next course” (Interview with respondent B).

What appears evident is that the cohorts support a more integrated and sequential course structure and, as programs respond to NCATE Standards, many include cohorts for in a supportive role in this area.

Community outreach. Five survey questions delved into the area of community outreach, but almost all of them refer to the local school district. All of them ranged in the 30%-40% range, indicating moderate reform.

Evidence that preparation programs are highlighting this was found in the interviews, but this was not central to the discussions on course reform. In one program, a course was developed and put into place in order to give candidates practice in dealing with the public and develop the knowledge and ability to effectively reach out to the school community. This was the only instance where such a course was mentioned, however. As school–community relations are considered an important component of the ELCC Standards, the assumption is that they are highlighted as part of the field-based experience or may not be something new to programs as they were already in place prior to reform.

Recognizing and using data. Only one question addresses research methods as part of the curriculum, which could include using data for student achievement but could also be interpreted as research on other topics. This is most likely because the survey questions were informed by research, only a fraction of which had been written on the topic of data driven instruction when the literature review section for this report was researched.

In the interviews, the training of candidates to use school data to inform and drive classroom instruction was mentioned several times, describing how in some cases courses teaching candidates how to interpret and use data have been added to program curricula in order give candidates skills they need to work in school settings as educational leaders.

Professor C discusses how both data and working with constituencies have become important in his program:

I guess the two main courses that were, I mean, we did some shuffling of some things, but the two main courses that changed, one was a data course – using data in schools, and the other was a school and community course, where we designed a course to think about what are the different internal and external stakeholders and constituencies which you would have to deal with as a school leader. Which had been sort of sprinkled throughout other courses, we decided that we need a course on that just in itself. (Interview with respondent C).

Most often, data was infused into the already established curriculum rather than added in the form of new courses. Program Chair I describes how this works in conjunction with course required practica. As he notes, it is sometimes difficult to teach candidates from school systems that are not proficient in data use because the candidates are not as familiar with the concept as are those from schools and school systems that use data regularly:

It's in every single one of their labs. The labs are very focused on, ok, what do you do to impact student achievement? Go find the data. It's in everything that they do, um the downside of that is when you're pulling people from very different school divisions, it's hard to teach. Ok, this is what you do, you have to do the more general things. Ok, this is the kind of data that you would look at. It would be easier to teach them how to analyze data if, for instance, in the state everybody used the same data base (Interview with respondent I).

While almost all chairs described how using data has become integral to their programs, not all did. Program Chair F leads a small program in a rural area. Most of the faculty are adjuncts working full-time in local school systems as practitioners. He claims that revision in his program has mostly been driven by ELCC, not the state. When questioned about how his program teaches the use of data, he replied as follows: "We have courses that teach you how to develop a program, to look at the results of the program and make changes in it, um, but nothing that's data-based like the number of kids or demographics of the school" (Interview with respondent F).

Program faculty. As a subject of reform on the survey, program faculty and their needs were among the lowest scorers in reform areas with perceptions of reform related to faculty at only between 20% and 30%. Four questions related to program faculty and reform: *professional development for program faculty, a plan for attracting highly qualified faculty, use of clinical faculty to teach*

licensure classes, and use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes. While reform in these areas was modest, it should be mentioned that data indicate many of the above mentioned elements were a part of programs before 2002.

From the interviews we know that the number of full-time program faculty varies within the 10 programs, ranging from 0 to 17, though it is difficult to count accurately from one program to the next as some include roles that other programs do not. Three of the programs in the interview portion of this study operate with one full-time professor who is the program chair and who coordinates by assigning classes to adjuncts or those who are full-time practitioners at other programs at the same university. Such programs rely mostly on adjuncts, who are local practitioners, to teach their courses. This is somewhat surprising, since NCATE accreditation standards include review of reliance on adjuncts and whether units have the resources to support their program offerings with appropriate full-time faculty.

We have people working at the job, teaching, that know how to do the job. That's it – that's an important thing. It's not someone who's been out of the administrative arena for 15-20 years. This is somebody who's got in a school, you know, doing the job as an assistant principal, or principal, or a superintendent, and is now teaching you in a classroom tonight. So, everything's real world. And it's a constantly changing group of examples that are given because the instructors are dealing with what happened this

year or in a previous year, not something that was out of a book and this happened 20 years ago. (Interview with respondent F).

While in some interviews program chairs expressed the concern related to academic freedom that faculty were sometimes handed reforms without being involved in their conception, faculty resistance to implementation appeared minimal. This was especially true in programs with few full-time faculty:

We've had very good cooperation, at least in my department. And again, remember that the college program is a smaller part of these teachers' world. Most of them are instructors or administrators in school systems someplace. Some are superintendents, some are principals, vice-principals, so, and they enjoy doing what they do, and I don't say that lightly. (Interview with respondent F).

Well, the faculty when these changes were starting to take place was only three, and now we're down to two, so its not like a large faculty. But there were regulatory changes going on at the state level with all of the departments and I don't think there were any, I don't think necessarily resentment, but probably some concerns that there were new state regulations and we've got to change according to the state, but I don't remember hearing anything coming out of ed. leadership. We just kind of accepted that the state's got a focus and teachers have to be trained

in a certain way to be prepared and we felt the same way with the applying for school leaders. (Interview with respondent E).

School district interaction. Four of the survey data refer to interaction with the school district and perceptions of reform were in the 30% - 45% range.. These are: *partnership with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort, regularly scheduled meetings with school district leaders to review candidate assessment data, invitations to district leaders to serve a guest speakers in classes and invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data..*

The findings of the qualitative data supported by the interviews indicate moderate increases in program interaction with local school districts in several areas including candidate assessment, cohort sponsorship, and invitations for guest speakers. Programs continue to interact with school districts as part of their field placement programs, where school administrators are often asked to take a lead role in mentoring candidates.

In cooperation with central office professional personnel, four of ten interviewed say that they have begun cooperative review boards that include school district personnel. Meetings sometimes take place every month, but more likely are held once or twice per year and focus on school internship placements and getting feedback from the districts on candidate achievement and what the programs can do to better meet school district needs.

I think our feedback from the school systems is, we have been more responsive, um, I think they in particular, appreciate the folks we've

brought in. Now part of that is we've had some representatives, we've helped sponsor something called the Valley Superintendents Round Table, which was all the superintendents – we've involved them in all of the searches, so I think they feel more invested than ten years ago...so I think we've gotten a lot of positive facts...we've gotten mostly positive feedback. (Interview with respondent C).

Some programs have made a concerted effort to become allies with school districts by hiring former practitioners as professors. "We also work with the superintendents and our associate Dean, who was a previous superintendent, attends the superintendents' meetings, so, you know, he's the kind of linkage between what kind of leaders are we getting out there, what kinds of things to we need to be doing" (Interview with respondent E).

Summary on qualitative reform analysis. Program chairs report steady reform in almost all program areas. Chief among these are candidate assessment, instructional leadership, curriculum redesign and reform in course delivery, and increased interaction with local school districts. Faculty were supportive in most areas of reform with some concerns expressed about how students were being assessed in ways that may limited their intellectual exploration in favor of cookie cutter type training and the loss of academic freedom that occurred when programs were not asked to participate in planning out reforms.

Given that programs were responding to ELCC standards, as transmitted through the states or directly from ELCC, and given that many of the reforms were similar

(though varying in degree), it can be assumed that the changes are a concerted effort at program improvement based on the research and discourse that went into forming the ELCC standards. Thus, changes that were made are seen as reform rather than change for change's sake.

Table 23 summarizes reforms from all of the interviews, including information that was not highlighted here. It does not, however, give weight as to which reforms were mentioned more often.

Table 23
Emerging Qualitative Themes on Program Reforms

Themes	Specific Reforms
A.) Program Structural Reform	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.) Use of/changes with /increased use of cohorts 2.) Changes in number of class weeks 3.) Courses placed in sequential alignment 4.) Increased number of courses required for completion 5.) Increased overall emphasis on NCATE Standards and aligning Standards to courses. 6.) Closer relationship with school districts 7.) Increased emphasis on student assessment
B.) Instructional Reform	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.) Syllabi aligned to Standards 2.) More emphasis on instructional leadership for school administrators. 3.) Field experiences in individual courses 4.) New instruction materials/textbooks 5.) Courses placed in sequential alignment 6.) Addition of new courses, especially in use of data and technology.

C.) Faculty	1.) Introduction of lead professors 2.) Faculty more practitioner based 3.) Faculty more research based
D.) Technology	1.) Use of data more integrated in classes 2.) Use of data for student assessment 3.) Greater number of blended courses
E.) Student Assessment	1.) Increased level of assessment on quantifiable information.

Qualitative Analysis of Field-Based Experiences

To what extent have field experiences in programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts? Expansion of the field based component, mostly in the form of an internship, was the most commonly reported reform in the interview section. In all ten of the interviews, chairs indicated that their programs had some form of an internship prior to 2002, and in 9 out of 10 cases, the internship was changed in activity requirements, number of required hours, or both as part of reform.

Program chairs reported greater quality in the internship experiences, an increase in the number of minimum required hours, greater emphasis on completing specific administrative tasks versus hours, and increased variation in school site and grade level experiences. Several chairs pointed to this last element as a departure from the days when candidates were to simply line up their own internship experiences in the schools in which they were already teaching.

Though ELCC's *Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership* stipulate a period of at least six months during which candidates will participate in a full-time internship, only one of the ten programs has a field experience that is full-time and lasts for one semester. Another program has candidates serve in an administrative role during summer school. Though several of the chairs stated that they hope to eventually have a full-time component, they attributed the costs and logistics of pulling candidates from their teaching assignments and providing substitutes as prohibitive.

The depth of the internship appears directly related to two things: the involvement of the state and the relationship the program has with local school systems. This is apparent despite that each of the programs participating in the interview section is located in a state with full partnership with NCATE. Though ELCC Standards call for a certain kind of internship, the reality appears to be that the states and school districts are where the money and authority reside. States that do not allocate funds for full-time internships find other ways to provide an internship experience that is both intensive and extensive, as ELCC requires. When the state calls for a developed and fully integrated program that involves candidate placement in several different school environments and grade levels, and with specific administrative tasks, an intense field experience is more likely to occur. Likewise, when a superintendent of schools is able to finance a full-time, semester long internship with county and state funds, the possibility of that occurring is strong.

In the programs studied here, level of reform varied but was mostly significant and some reform was mentioned by every participating interviewee. Some programs added hours or semesters while others completely revamped the field component to include required hours specific to particular courses. These included tasks of varying rigor intended to replace required number of hours with specific learning activities.

Chair F describes his program's reform efforts as primarily driven by his state under ELCC's umbrella. Thus, the state doubled the required internship hours from 150 to 300 while the reporting mechanism is provided by ELCC.

The state has come up with 34 standards. There's a portfolio that's developed around those 34 standards and the candidates in the internship program have to answer to those standards and there's a page and a half to 2 pages where they'll describe what they did, what assignments they had that covered those standards and how they were exposed to the different standards (Interview with respondent F).

Another chair describes how his program's internship changed from having minimum required hours to a focus on administrative task completion. His program added more field experiences instead of simply adding more hours onto what they already had:

We went from hourly tasks in the internships to having the students complete different activities. For instance in the first internship, which would be in the summertime, the students were required to do their

internship in a grade level and in a school in which they did not work. And during that time they had 20 activities that they had to accomplish during that internship, uh, and all of those activities were directly related to the Standards as well as the evaluation, and they had to do with things that school leaders would have to accomplish during that time of year.

(Interview with Chair B).

One program chair serves on a congress that was appointed by the state to develop new standards for preparing principals to be instructional leaders as opposed to school managers. Members of the Congress are educators from two of the local county school districts, often principals, who have helped define the field-based standards. His program's internship is full-time.

The residency is a full semester, every day, in schools, acting as an administrator, working for a mentor type principal but doing leadership type things. There are 18 specific tasks they must accomplish during their residency. The [school district] superintendent and the [school district] tax payers are paying for substitute teachers for these folks for a full semester while they practice being administrators. We want a memorandum of agreement with all 11 districts we serve, so far we've only been able to get six superintendents to sign off on the memorandum of agreement. But they tend to look at the cost of a sub, which is about nine thousand dollars for a semester, and gnash teeth and wring hands while in reality if they think

about what they're getting in return for nine-thousand dollars it's a pretty good deal (Interview with respondent H).

Though the NCATE Standards call for trained mentors to guide candidates, one area of the field based component that received little attention in the interviews is the recruitment and preparation of mentors who will work with and oversee candidates while they are on site. This coincided with the data from the surveys, where it was indicated that preparation of field mentors was not an important element of reform. Some programs describe a process by which school district personnel identify sitting school administrators who can fit well into the role of mentor, but little is mentioned of training or placing a candidate under the day to day tutelage of a trained mentor who has experience in educational administration. More often, programs have worked with school systems to identify exemplary principals and these are appointed to serve as unofficial mentors. Two of the chairs noted that a common complaint of candidates was that the principals in the schools in which they are placed do not give them enough meeting time.

Field-based experiences are not limited to sustained internships, however, and many programs reported the placement of field-based requirements in courses as a component of course redesign. One program refers to these as labs, which are required in all EDLE courses. Another stated that the requirement is left up to individual professors.

Program chair H describes the benefits of field-based learning as a component of individual courses as follows:

Where they're studying the personnel piece, they're actually applying it with a mentor principal at the same time rather than waiting 'til the end of the program and trying to remember these things and having an internship that's not as intentional. Labs are much more intentionally focused on problems that they're going to face as a principal and things they're going to have to do to develop school improvement plans, identifying achievement gaps, and coming up with strategies for addressing those types of things that they're going to face as a principal. (Interview with respondent H).

The interviews backed up data from the surveys and indicated that field experiences are an important component of reform. Field experiences in individual courses, which are not a part of the sustained requirement, were also a part of the conversation and received positive acclaim where they have been instituted.

Summary of analysis of field-based experiences. Qualitative data back up what was found in the quantitative analysis and indicated that field-based experiences have gained importance since 2002 in terms of time and their placement in the programs. Several chairs mention that, in addition to the sustained field experience, many or all licensure courses now have components requiring candidates to relate what is learned in class to field projects. Though

sustained field experiences have increased in time and scope, only one program reports a full-time sustained field experience lasting six months.

Though ELCC standards stipulate a full-time sustained field-based experience, only one program has such in place. Given that funding for the full-time internship was procured from local district superintendents, the inference is made that the possibility of some reforms is tied to local school districts, funding from the state, or both. This concept reinforces what was found in the last section where state educational offices had the ability to close out some programs of educational leadership in favor of new ones.

Qualitative Analysis of Reform Influences

In this section, the case will be made that two influences stand out among the rest: states and the ELCC – while the affect on particular programs by either depended on location and level of state involvement. The survey data indicates that program faculty, the state and the ELCC are regarded by chairs as more influential to reform than any other influence. Driving the more prominent influences are the ability to provide (or take away) program funding, accreditation, and/or licensure for graduating candidates. No other influences were found to have this same level of coerciveness.

Despite NCATE/state partnerships in all ten programs represented in this section, there appears to be a lack of understanding by at least three program chairs as to where reforms originated and what is driving them. Most often, either state departments of education or appointed committees (that are distinctly

separate from the departments of education), have been at the forefront of the reform push. Still, it remains unclear as to whether the states were influenced by ELCC, or they worked together to arrive at mutually agreed upon reform agendas. Because the ELCC Standards are a constant in these states, which are all NCATE partnership states, it seems likely that the variation comes from the individual states. In cases where the state chooses to take the lead, ELCC reforms are implemented through the state in order to meet Standards. In cases where the state does not take the lead, ELCC still requires compliance from programs for national approval and appears to work with programs more directly in order to allow them to meet requirements.

In response to the question, “what influenced reform in your program?” chairs responded with a variety of answers. Some of the following interview segments illustrate the level of confusion found in the interviews regarding reform and what the primary influences are.

Program H does not even mention ELCC: “The state, and they may have taken their cue from NCATE, but NCATE was not a part of our initial meetings. Our state Board is a governing board and it’s almost regulatory, well, it is regulatory in every sense of the word” (Interview with respondent H).

In response to being asked about what influenced reform, program chair G attributed a lot to ELCC’s standards and the need to meet these for accreditation:

“I think that it would be that we had an upcoming NCATE accreditation visit and we had to make sure we were meeting all of the ELCC standards as part of our getting ready for that” (Interview with respondent G).

Program chair C attributes reform to NCLB. Though the NCLB laws do not directly drive program reform, they do influence what schools need and therefore, in an indirect way, they influence what programs teach. “I think it was a couple of influential things. We needed to pay close attention to NCATE and NCLB, but before NCLB we were already heavily influenced by the state-wide reforms of [state comprehensive assessment system] and, that was big for us” (Interview with respondent C).

Program chair J attributes reform to the state and NCATE. In mentioning the local big city, she is indirectly referring to reforms her program has had to put into place in order to meet standards set by the state, which now directs administrator licensing functions that were previously handled by the city.

Chair I makes it clear that the state in which his program is located has been active in school reform since before 1991 when a major law was enacted to equalize public school funding. As with many educationally related causes, educational reform eventually found its way to the training of school leaders and, with funding from a foundation grant, the state took the lead by setting up an oversight board that is distinctly separate from the state department of education. He is also aware that his program is coming up for ELCC review and must make

minor changes to meet standards. When asked what the impact of NCATE Standards have been, he says,

It is my impression that, when all of this started, [state board] was looking at NCATE cause, [state board] was involved in the NCATE process as the state body for that, so I would assume that they looked at that, but I came into the redesign late so I don't have that foundational stuff. (Interview with respondent I).

In discussing influences, two of the ten program chairs expressed that they prefer working with their state education offices more than ELCC because of better familiarity with the state education officials. When asked about his feelings toward ELCC/NCATE, chair E stated,

Well, we're under their regulations and, sometimes the fact that they're not a phone call away and yet, I met Honor, but you know, we don't have what I'd call a working relationship with the NCATE people like we do with the state department, and I can call their person with the state department and say I don't quite understand this and, you know, we can kind of walk through this process and things that we're thinking about doing, so I feel more comfortable dealing with the state than I do with the national level. I see them as kind of a board that kind of overlooks things and makes sure that we're moving in the right direction. (Interview with respondent E).

Though the survey data list program faculty as most perceived influence toward reform, in the interviews they were only credited as an influence once. Chair B, from a program with 3 full-time faculty members, describes reform as completely faculty driven and coming from influences in literature, especially Arthur Levine's (2005) study on programs of educational leadership. According to Chair B, the major reforms were in curriculum and field experiences. Because the faculty participated in implementing the reforms, they supported them as well:

Well, the bottom line of it was everyone was supporting it because everyone had ownership of it. It was all done collegially, there was nothing done and mandated. It was done through the university which paid us to get together as a group and work through the redesign of the program. So, it was all done collegially so even though we all have our little niche in the curriculum, everyone was involved in the alignment, everybody was involved in knowing what the other people were teaching and I think there was great benefit to that (interview with respondent B).

Summary of qualitative analysis for influences. The program chairs spent most of their time describing the processes that were driving reform. This seems natural since many chairs must contend with these pressures day to day. While most described fairly straightforward interaction with state and accrediting agencies, a few mentioned that they were either insulted or dissatisfied with the stance that these influences had taken toward reform.

The major influences noted in the qualitative data are the state and ELCC standards, both of which have some political muscle by which to induce reform. While some program chairs reported spending a lot of time responding to either influence, a few indicated that they did not know what was driving reform, or could not distinguish between ELCC and the state education office.

Chapter conclusion

The quantitative data presented in this chapter show significant redesign and reform in most of twenty-four elements presented in an online survey taken by program chairs. Key among these are reforms in coursework, teaching by program faculty and course delivery as well as candidate assessment, online courses, relationships with local school districts, the addition of cohorts, and the integration of hands-on activities into coursework. Fewer programs reported reform on the efforts made for inclusion of non-traditional candidates in programs. Eleven additional elements of reform related to the field-based experience were also rated, with all areas represented as being the focus of reform for a majority of respondents. Analysis based on UCEA membership and type of university showed little difference in the reforms section and even less in the field-based experiences.

The survey data indicated that the greatest influences toward reform are program faculty, the state, and the ELCC. School district input and candidate assessment data used for program planning were perceived as slightly less influential but still important nonetheless.

Qualitative data indicate that most, if not all reforms determined by the quantitative have occurred and, in most cases are being implemented, though at varying speed and with varying levels of cooperation. Reform has taken place in coursework and delivery, teaching strategies by professors, hands-on and data driven instruction, candidate assessment with data, online courses, cohorts, and relationships with local school districts. Most conversation on reform mentioned the field-based experience in detail, confirming the notion that this is an important element of redesign. Some areas of reform that were highlighted in the quantitative data are barely mentioned in the qualitative, leading the researcher to conclude that when presented with open ended questions on what reform occurred, if any, chairs were inclined to talk mostly about reforms that were most prevalent or directly affected them.

Influences on reform was a popular topic in the interviews, and program chairs who were interviewed tended to meld conversations about reforms with the influences driving them. Disdain for the ELCC was found in some interviews, with less disdain displayed for state education offices which were described by at least one chair as familiar and more inclined toward local issues. Program faculty, which was rated by a large percentage of chairs as a major influence on reform, were barely mentioned by those interviewed as an influence. Drawing on the issues presented around the influences, the researcher determined that in open-ended questions, with no list of possible influences presented, participants tended to focus on those that affected them the most.

Because of the power held by both the state and ELCC, their influence was associated by some chairs as a violation of academic freedom and the loss of intellectual inquiry for students and these became front and center issues for several.

In chapter 5, what has been reported here will be matched with the literature and serve as a basis for discussion on what reform has taken place, where programs are now, and where they may be headed. A final section relating reform to institutionalism will take the position that higher education is different from other professions in its value of research, academic theory and intellectual discourse. Because of these, programs in higher education may not follow reform patterns that are typical of other institutions.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Chapter 4 presented both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of data. In this chapter, the findings will be compared with the literature that was the basis for this inquiry. Given the questions asked in the survey and interview sections, certain information was collected to answer the three research questions posed in relation to the reform of educational leadership preparation programs. Findings that offer answers to these questions will be highlighted and discussed with regard to their meaning for the field of educational leadership. In addition, some unexpected findings that also contributes to the knowledge base will also be discussed.

The conclusion will be that substantial reform has taken place in almost every area and that programs have changed primarily due to the influences of the state and the ELCC.

Purpose

This study examines how university-based programs of educational leadership are responding to research on school leadership preparation and political demands that programs meet criteria by which their graduates are licensed. It draws from the influences that led to the creation of the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership (e.g. perceptions of school failure, changing roles of leaders, increased

research on effective leadership and preparation, and federal and state influences on school leader preparation) and it considers how university-based programs have pursued change in the way school leaders are prepared.

Research Questions

After a review of research detailing both the historical and recently perceived shortcomings of educational leadership programs, three research questions were formed that frame the study. These are:

1. How have programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
2. To what extent have field experiences in programs of educational leadership been reformed/redesigned in response to academic and political contexts?
3. What factors either facilitated or constrained reform/redesign?

For the purposes of discussion, all of the data relating to program reform will be presented together in this chapter. Information will be grouped by the following themes of reform: communication with local school districts; improved course instruction and delivery; professional development for program faculty; application of technology to leadership programs; and relevant field experiences. Each of these will be followed with a dialogue on what the reform means for educational leadership programs.

Increased communication and interaction with local school districts. The literature states that leadership faculty and field practitioners have been traditionally isolated from one another when they should be coming together with the common goal of building effective school leaders (Goduto, Doolittle, & Leake, 2008). School districts

must participate in the training and selection of future school leaders, not simply send them to a university for a program that may bear little resemblance to real life (Goldring & Sims, 2005). In providing expanded field placements, helping leadership programs recruit top educators for leadership roles, and assisting program faculty in determining what principals need to know, school districts can help shape future leaders who are effectively ready to solve every day administrative problems (Barnett, 2004, Hale & Moorman, 2003).

Four elements on the survey pertained to cooperation and support between school districts and leadership programs. All four of these indicate that between 30% and 45%, of the respondents perceive that their programs have acted on redesign on these topics, thus pointing to significant reform levels. These are: *partnerships with at least one school district to sponsor a cohort* (44.3%), *regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data* (38%), *invitations to district leaders to review candidate assessment data* (38.9%), and *invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes* (30.8%).

An examination of components that are indicated as part of programs in 2002-3 indicates that ‘partnerships to sponsor a cohort’ (54%), ‘regularly scheduled meetings’ (48.5%), and ‘invitations to district leaders to review candidate data’ (40.1%) are perceived by roughly half of program chairs as being in existence prior to the implementation of the ELCC standards in 2002. The related reform, ‘invitations to district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes’ (90.7%) was perceived by a large

number as a part of leadership programs in 2002-3 and 98.8% regard this as part of their programs today.

Qualitative data show that five of ten program chairs reported an increased relationship with a local school district in response to the question of how their program has been reformed since 2002. Given that ten of the ten also report revision to the field component via either increased hours or added specific performances, it is fair to say that all of those interviewed have increased some form of interaction with local school districts.

It was found that programs and school districts often establish stronger ties when there is a specified benefit for doing so. Two chairs indicated that they have reached out to their local school districts in a marketing strategy by which they have picked up more students. Three of ten reported that their programs have advisory councils that include local school district leaders. Three in ten also report that at least one of the school districts near them has its own program for training administrators that either supplements or supplants their program. In two of these, their program sends instructors to the school district to teach certain courses in that program. In four of ten programs, adjuncts come directly from the school systems, which chairs report as a positive because students get exposure to what is going on in the field right now.

Several program chairs indicated that the movement in their programs toward a more practitioner-based faculty was motivated by the desire to increase the relationship they had with local school districts. As detailed in the qualitative data, this sometimes

was motivated by the motive to attract practitioners from local school districts to serve as adjunct or full-time faculty members.

Discussion. The survey data indicate that reform in this area is significant and, though many programs previously had some of the elements of school district interaction prior to reform, it has increased. The exception to this is *invitations to serve as guest speakers in classes*. This makes sense, as the other three involve either cohorts or assessment data, both of which are an ELCC component, while inviting a district leader to be a guest speaker is not. In addition, the data showed that this component was strong prior to reform.

The qualitative data examine reasons behind the efforts to establish new ties. These include recruiting practitioners from school districts to fill full-time program faculty positions and an increase in the number of program advisory councils that include representatives from local school districts.

The combined quantitative and qualitative data suggest that school districts and programs of educational leadership are moving at considerable levels toward increased collaboration. Districts are more inclined to work with preparation programs to examine candidate data and collaborate on decisions concerning what candidates will be hired to fill administrative roles. In addition, by recruiting practitioners from school districts for faculty vacancies and adjunct positions, programs are placing an increased value on the practical experiences practitioners bring. This indicates that in some districts, there is a movement away from research-oriented faculty in favor of recent school administrators. Interestingly, there does not appear to be a difference between types of university on

these reforms, i.e., it is not the case that programs in non-doctoral granting comprehensive colleges or universities are more reliant on this type of reform. While this may be beneficial in some ways, it also carries the possibility of creating school districts that *inbreed* and create new leaders that look very much like the old. In addition, those who have not had the benefit of coming from a university setting may be less inclined to perform research that is needed for the continued improvement of the field.

The field-based experiences are a pronounced area of redesign and coalitions between school districts and leadership programs are most likely to form as a result of these. While such placements allow candidates hands-on experience and interaction, from another perspective they may also be limiting. This is especially true when future school leaders learn to respond to various situations by selecting from options in the same ways as those who mentor them. This may imply that decisions made by future administrators will be based on established characteristics of what they have learned in one or two settings rather than on intellectual thought or discourse. Thus, field experiences, which have been established to give students experience in real settings, may actually inhibit future creativity and growth.

Improved preparation and course instruction. Preparation programs have been accused of attempting to meet standards rather than making real efforts to reform. Such programs have sometimes had individual benchmarks for students, such as the passing of the SLLA, which allowed program chairs the claim that their students were well equipped for school administration (Hess & Kelly, 2007). Along those same lines, some program faculty have been faulted for not communicating with other faculty and pushing

coursework that has neither flowed in any one direction nor reflected modern content (Cambron-McCabe, 2003). Efforts at course overhaul appear mediocre (Quinn, 2005) and many programs have been considered easy to complete (Young & Creighton, 2002).

The data from this study indicate moderate perceptions of reform in areas of curriculum, course delivery and sequence, modern content and field-based experiences. *Emphasis on a logical progression of courses (54%), emphasis on program instruction and the way(s) courses are taught (54.1%) and emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners as part of the curriculum (51.7%)* are among the most prevalent reforms related to improvement of program curriculum. Also relevant as components of course reform and student assessment are *a focus on characteristics of successful school leaders (52.3%), Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership (49.5%), use of web-based electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data (73%), and deliberate use of student assessment data for program improvement (68.8%)*. The full grouping of reforms for course instruction is found in Table 24.

Table 24

Reform Elements Related to Sequence of Coursework and Modern Content

Element	Had in 2002-3	Have Now	Redesigned
Emphasis on research methods as part of curriculum	80.7%	92.0%	41.5%
Emphasis on business and finance as part of curriculum	89.8%	91.5%	42.0%
Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners	85.8%	97.2%	51.7%
Requirement for annual course updates by faculty	67.2%	81.0%	37.9%
Focus on characteristics of successful school leaders	89.1%	98.3%	46.6%
Emphasis on program instruction and how classes are taught	85.1%	97.1%	54.1%
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	81.2%	93.2%	54.0%
Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership	88.6%	98.3%	49.5%

As is evident from the number of elements listed in the table, this area captured more of the areas of reform than any other. In relating the moderate and high levels of

reform, it must also be noted that for all of the components specified, 90% or more chairs report that those components are a part of programs today and 80% or more reported that the elements had been a part of their programs in 2002-3. Thus while there has been a lot of attention to these areas as topics of reform, they are hardly “new” to programs that prepare school leaders.

Interviews supported the perception of steady course redesign and indicated that high priority was given to reforming courses and course content, the streamlining of courses for progression, and the increased emphasis on practical leadership traits in courses. As might be expected, the use of technology and data are relatively new to programs, and yet appear widely received and in use.

Discussion. The findings presented here indicate that program reform is moving at a substantial pace in this area of reform. While this is occurring, the qualitative data combined with the quantitative indicate that rates of reform appear to differ depending on the level of oversight from individual states and/or the ELCC. This variation makes it difficult to determine where reform will head should oversight change.

Central to this study is the question of what reform really means and the application of reform to coursework brings forth the ultimate question of whether better preparation will occur because reform has taken place? The literature on reform has been cited as being considerably thin and much of the *research* leading to the perceived need for reform is not much more than opinionated discourse on what scholars think programs should do. In contrast, there is little empirical data telling the field what works. Thus, while course reform, improved course progression, and a focus on characteristics of

successful school leaders all appear to be a sound way to improve educational leadership preparation, we do not yet have enough empirical data on the impact of these reforms. More discussion on reform and what it means will follow at the conclusion of this chapter.

Course delivery that meets students' needs. Each of the following elements relate to course delivery and is followed by its reported level of reform since 2002: *Class schedules to fit student needs* (42.1%); *student cohort groups* (47.7%); *course locations to fit student needs* (48.6%); *addition of online courses* (61.1%); and *path for non-traditional students to pursue licensure* (32.5%) All of these indicate substantial levels of reform with the exception of *online courses*, which is perceived by a very substantial percentage as redesigned, and *non-traditional students* which is perceived by low percentage of program chairs as redesigned.

Discussion. The data presented here, as well as the qualitative from the previous section, depict programs that are reforming and have most elements in their programs right now. Elements related to technology, such as online courses, show higher reform as they are elements that are more recently added. They are also perceived by a smaller percent as actually being in programs now, which may be related to the funding and training it takes for programs to add online courses and also to faculty reluctance to change. An even greater disparity exists in perceived percentage of programs with technology-related courses in 2002 and now. For online courses, only 25.1% of chairs reported them as part of their programs in 2002 as compared to 72.6% of programs that have them now.

The element *path for non-traditional students* ranks among the lowest in every category but *not a program element*. This appears to be an outlier: an element that has been discussed in the literature but is not favored by leadership preparation programs.. From this data it is clear that leadership programs are most interested in working with traditional candidates from teaching and education backgrounds. Though the literature called for the inclusion of non-traditional candidates, especially in urban areas where school leaders of traditional background are sometimes hard to recruit, the data presented here shows that in most programs this is far from a priority. There may be multiple explanations for this: First, recruiting non-educators for leadership positions at the same time that the field is emphasizing instructional leadership represents something of a contradiction. Second, inclusion of non-traditional recruits is not an emphasis under accreditation standards, hence this pressure to attend to this area of reform is not present.

More professional development for program faculty. Research suggests that many programs have been static for a long time in this area (Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002), and before 2002, the availability of professional development for faculty was uneven at best. This was especially true in state universities, where funding for higher education was receiving less support (Jackson & Kelly, 2002; Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002).

Only one of the survey reform questions relates to the professional development of program faculty. While 29.5% of respondents indicate that they have redesigned it, 85.5% perceive that it is a part of their program now and 76.9 perceive that it was part of

their program in 2002-03. This shows that less than one-third of programs report redesign but it continues to be in existence for most.

The qualitative data confirms that professional development for faculty has not been first and foremost in importance in redesign. In response to the first question, not one program chair mentioned professional development for program faculty until it was brought into the interview. The data cites instances where program faculty did not like and/or understand some of the reforms that were taking place and chose to retire or leave programs rather than adapt to new processes. In discussing this, program chairs did not mention efforts to help those faculty become current with better training.

Because many programs use a number of adjuncts, providing professional development may be difficult and programs must be creative in the ways they support instructors who are not full-time. Two chairs indicated that their programs had gone to a lead instructor system, where full-time faculty who are teaching the same courses as part-time faculty make themselves available to guide the adjuncts on what to highlight in their teaching and what requirements must be implemented due to reform. In this capacity, full-time faculty became a resource for part-timers. While this addresses some basic course needs, it does not assist full-time faculty in their own need for professional development.

Discussion. In attempting to determine why redesign of professional development for program faculty gets relatively little emphasis, one might look at the whole of higher education which promotes a tenure system that includes research and publishing requirements. Federal and state education officials, who are responsible for doling out

limited funding for professional development, may assume that on the graduate level professional development is not as important as it might be on the elementary or secondary levels because full-time program faculty are often working with research that keeps them informed in ways other instructors are not. As a profession, there is also an implicit assumption that professional growth is the individual's responsibility, i.e., "keeping up with field" is a part of the professional's role. This is, of course, debatable, but it presents a position that puts higher education personnel in a unique category. It may be a more tenable position in relation to an individual's growth and development, as well, whereas calls for reform relate more to the need for collective learning and action.

As programs are called to reform, it would seem that training faculty should be of high importance. On the other hand, the lack of professional development may stem from the faculty themselves, many of whom might prefer intelligent discourse and discovery to receiving prescribed information. To the extent that reform involves less reliance on research-oriented program faculty and more on those who are practitioners, the content of future professional development will be something to take note of.

The application of technology and data to leadership preparation. The literature on technology and educational leadership preparation – especially that which describes the state of preparation programs before 2002 - is sparse. This is understandable when considering that *online programs* were reported by relatively few program chairs as an element that existed in 2002 and it was one of the most cited as added by 2009-10. Though computers and technology have had some influence in the educational field for at least the past thirty years, their relevance to school administration continues to evolve. It

can be argued that campus-based university programs are under greater pressure to offer online courses and the fact that they are appearing is not necessarily always for the best (Fusarelli, 2004) and that educators need to make sure students are able to master other skills before participating in media-based learning (Monke, 2006). Others, (Mayer, Musser & Remidez) take the position that web-driven programs can provide learning environments that join textbook learning and life-like problem solving together in order to give students opportunities to generate proactive solutions.

The quantitative data from this study indicate that technology has constituted some of the greatest changes in educational leadership programs with the *addition of online courses* reported by 72.6% of participants and *use of student assessment data for program improvement* reported by 97.7% as *redesigned*. As more university-based programs integrate technology into their programs, it is possible that we will see more blended programs (e.g. programs where there are a combination of online and classroom based courses) and more online programs as options in university-based programs.

Discussion. Though limited, the literature on technology and educational leadership (and even the entire field of education) emphasizes that the integration of technology has both benefits and costs. On the *pro* side, technology helps instruction become more active and permits candidates greater opportunities to solve problems and work in other non-traditional ways without leaving a room. This is especially helpful in rural-based programs, where travel time and money can become an impediment to those who seek to enroll in educational leadership courses. The use of technology in preparation programs may also make candidates more technologically educated or savvy,

and this too is important if they are to drive school instruction that will ultimately include technology use by students.

On the *con* side, it often seems as though colleges and universities sometimes make choices based on numbers and profits rather than what is best for education. This is especially true with online and for profit programs sprouting up around the country that promise a limited candidate pool faster access to education and quick degrees offered in non-traditional ways. Quantity of offerings and access may become a substitute for quality, and some program offerings (like internship and clinical experiences) may be quite difficult to monitor using online delivery platforms. It would seem best for traditional university-based programs to limit the movement somewhat, requiring some restriction on the full implementation of online courses until research has determined how students fare in the long run.

Obviously, what is missed in such entities as programs that are completely online are the benefits of personal interaction that include meeting people face to face and solving problems while working with others in authentic work settings. If the training of school leaders is to reflect the job to which they aspire, technology must be integrated (or blended) with onsite intellectual discourse and team work where students are exposed to real life situations rather than simulated ones. It is only through experiences that candidates can truly decide if school administration is right for them and it is only through assessing candidates in schools that program faculty can decide whether candidates are right for the profession.

The increased use of technology has allowed for the quantifying of tasks by which candidates are more readily measured in their preparedness to take on school leadership roles. While this can be of great help in recruiting the best candidates into school leadership jobs, the qualitative data presented in this study suggest that quantifying candidate behaviors and relating them to standards can have an element of forcing square pegs into round holes, where individual leadership gifts may be ignored and bypassed in order for candidates to meet certain expectations for leadership. The downside to this may be school leaders that look alike without the creative attributes that have long been touted as valuable in the educational field.

Field experiences that are relevant to leadership duties and invite real-life problem solving by the intern. The research indicates leadership programs have, until recently, offered too few problem solving opportunities, where students can attempt to put theory into action through life-like situations (Bridges, 1992, Darling-Hammond & LaPointe, 2005, Glasman & Glasman, 1997). To enhance this, a sustained, field-based placement can complement what is learned in the classroom (Hallinger & McCary, 1998).

ELCC Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership (2002) state that the internship should provide interaction with staff, students, parents and community leaders (Standard 7.1.a), include a six month minimum full-time experience (Standard 7.1.b), take place in multiple settings (Standard 7.4.a) and include an appointed mentor (Standard 7.5.b), (NPBEA, 2002).

This study indicates that the sustained field experience increased in hours from an average of 216 in 2002-3 to an average of 267 in 2009-10. The interview data also determined that there was also an increase in the number of course-related projects that involved both problem solving tasks and additional work in the field.

The field experiences survey section indicates level of agreement or disagreement to eleven statements related to reform. Components with the highest levels of perceived reform (i.e., strongly agree) are: *Increased emphasis on a project, such as a school improvement plan* (60.4%); *evaluating student competence in a school leadership role* (58.2%); and *field experiences that incorporate NCATE standards* (65.5%).

In combining the two levels, *strongly and somewhat agree* for all of the statements, the average percentage of agreement is 80.1%, indicating that perceptions of reform in the internship are quite substantial across the board. Only one of the *strongly agree* and *somewhat agree* combinations indicate an average percentage of agreement that is less than 70%. That component is: *training requirements for field mentors have increased* (somewhat agree = 36.4%; strongly agree = 29.8%) for a combined agreement of 66.2%.

The interviews revealed that ten of ten programs have field-based components and, though many programs reported an increase in required hours, some have shifted to an emphasis on completing specific tasks rather than counting hours. In all, nine of ten programs reported a change in hours, a movement toward activity-based requirements, or both.

The qualitative evidence also determined that only one program of ten has a sustained, full-time six month internship that allowed interns to work in progressively more challenging field roles. The role of mentor was downplayed in all of the programs with supervision and oversight being shared between school administrators and full-time program faculty.

Discussion. Strong and consistent perceptions validate the concept that the field experience is a key component of reform. Given that expansion of and attention to field experiences were called for in most of the literature citing the poor state of many educational leadership programs, it should be regarded as a good thing that field experiences have received such attention. The fact that only one of the ten programs whose chairs were interviewed has a full-time, sustained internship lasting for at least six months raises questions about how far the field has come in relation to the desired outcome, a sustained and full-time clinical experience. It appears that most programs are still striving to attain the goal of providing an extensive and intensive field experience, with costs and logistics as daunting obstacles. If reform is about better education, it would seem plausible that states would attempt to work out ways by which the standard could be better implemented. If the reform is centered on monetary issues, other questions arise as to what are the best ways to allocate funds and who should bear the costs associated with meeting the standard.

Ultimately, the drive for sustained field experiences whether full or part-time, add to programs that have been traditionally classroom-based while challenging newer programs that seek to be almost completely online. At the center of this particular reform

is not just hands-on learning, but the experience of interacting with other humans in face-to-face situations. Candidates will need to deal with conflicts everyday in school leadership positions and whether or not the concept of an internship is modeled after other professions, the human factor in a field that is full of daily variations, makes it a valuable component.

Program type and UCEA status. An ANOVA was run on all twenty-four program reforms to look for differences in group means for respondents from various university types and from universities with different UCEA relationships. The results indicated that there were significant differences in group means related to perceptions of reform for only three program reforms based on university type, and differences in group means in perceptions for only three reforms based on UCEA membership status. Neither can be considered very profound given the number of reforms.

Discussion. These results suggest that there is no discernible pattern of differences with regard to reform based on type of university or UCEA membership status, i.e., universities are engaged in reform at rates that are even with other universities. Neither the level of research they do nor their relationship with a major reform association influence perceptions of their reform. This is surprising, given earlier studies relating to characteristics of leadership preparation programs and faculties (McCarthy & Kuh, 1997) and popular beliefs about differences in quality and structure of programs at comprehensive versus research/doctoral universities. On balance, these findings suggest that the nature of reforms, and perhaps the pressures for reform, have resulted in comparable actions across university/college types.

Influences on reform. The research for this section dates back to the reaction from the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellent in Education, 1982), when states were spurred into action by a study commissioned by the Department of Energy indicating that American students' standardized test scores were in decline in key areas of mathematics and science, and the American public school system was not keeping up with the instructional rigor found in other countries (NCEE, 1982).

Since *A Nation at Risk* appeared, a plethora of commissions and reports involving both academia and state departments of education have moved for national standards for the preparation of teachers and school leaders. NPBEA was established in 1988 and ISLLC in 1994, both which greatly contributed to the national standards movement. In 2002, NPBEA published Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership. Also in 2002, the No Child Left Behind laws were enacted which created a national push for accountability and the use of data in measuring student achievement.

In the broad context of these influences, the evidence presented here suggest two primary influences on reform of school leadership preparation programs: changes in state policy or licensure requirements and the NCATE/ELCC Standards. These influences relate to both historical and contemporary forces for change. It is clear from the research that an abundance of reform movements related to political pressures and written reports have influenced both states and academia to act for the past 30 years or more. Immediate influences on reform connect to these more historical ones, and in the context of this study, serve as the immediate incentive for change

Evidence presented in this study shows that there is some disagreement in relation to major influences. Survey data show that *input from program faculty* (substantially=71.8%) rates highest among perceptions as to what drives reform and substantially higher than *NCATE Standards on leadership preparation* (substantially=53.0%) and *changes in state licensure requirements* (55.6%). In contrast, ten of ten participants in the interviews rated either the state, NCATE/ELCC, or both as key influences and neither program faculty nor research of effective programs are mentioned prominently. While other reforms are perceived by moderate percentages as also influential on reform, none come close to these top three.

Discussion. In attempting to explain why this may be, it is important to remember that the quantitative choices were given to program chairs in the survey, while the qualitative were in response to open-ended questions. It may be the case that when specifically asked about various influences, several may be rated highly, but when prompted to comment off the top of one's head on what influenced reform, only the most salient becomes the focus of discussion. It appears from these data that the most significant impetus for reform is from the state or as a result of the accreditation processes, and once prompted to reform, the direction is influenced by internal actors. This seems consistent with what is known broadly about reform – i.e., that reform happens when there is a combination of top-down and bottom-up pressure and support. This may be why several chairs expressed concern about intellectual rights and the perception that their programs were moving toward a cookie cutter, one-size-fits-all model of preparation, but yet virtually all programs are actively engaged in reform.

Not surprisingly, of all the influences presented in the survey, the two that stand as foremost in both quantitative and qualitative data are those with the potential to exercise the most muscle. The state, through its role as the licensing agency for educational leaders, has the power to close out programs that don't meet its licensing requirements, and ELCC, as the SPA that recommends programs for national recognition, has the power to influence the legitimacy of leadership programs and even possibly affect the accreditation of the entire school of education. Thus, a better term for the roles of the state and ELCC is that they drive reforms while the other entities may still influence it in some ways.

As determined in this research, a lack of collaboration with key stakeholders on decisions affecting an organization can lead to resentment. This is probably truer in fields such as higher education, where the program faculty are themselves usually well-educated and perhaps more inclined to questions directives that involve their area of expertise. A discussion of where this type of drive can lead in the field of academia follows in the next section on institutionalism.

Conclusions and Thoughts on the Data

The purpose of this study was to examine how programs of educational leadership preparation have responded to academic and political contexts that have called for reform. Specifically, this study was about perceptions of change in programs since 2002. This research has determined that, at least in the perceptions of program leaders, change has occurred substantially. Care has been taken to note that many of the elements presented in the survey were already a part of programs before 2002 and that, in some

cases, program elements have not changed. Still, when all of the counting is done, most programs are different in terms of coursework and delivery, technology, field-based experiences, faculty support, and relationships with local school districts. The programs were prodded to change by authoritative entities in the forms of the state and ELCC, and it appears the majority have responded

. Though change has occurred, this study has not determined either the extent of quality of change. Webster's Online 2011 defines *reform* as "to put or change into an improved form or condition" (www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/reform). Using this definition as a springboard, it is really in the eye of the beholder whether or not true reform has happened and if programs are better preparing school leaders as a result. One significant limitation of the research was that much of it is opinion-based, lacking in empirical proof, and while the subject of inquiry was reform, the research did not extend into the outcomes of change. Thus, there are many in the field who think they know what educational leadership preparation needs, but fewer who have studied it using empirical proof in order to make points. Thus, taking this perspective, whether programs are better and whether the changes described here are reforms that leave the field improved depends on whether education has improved because of what is happening in leadership programs. The outcome of these changes is a prime subject for further inquiry

A different perspective on reform relies more on contexts than definitions and takes the position that reform occurs when a collective group intentionally responds to standards and/or mandates that intend improvement. The ELCC arrived at the standards though years of research on beneficial practices. Though we do not yet have empirical

data indicating that improvement has come about from the implementation of these standards, we can nevertheless refer to the process as *reform* given the intent for improvement.

The Future of Educational Leadership Preparation

In the following section the case will be made that universities containing programs of educational leadership qualify as organizations and, therefore, are subject to the same pressures to change and reform as other organizations as are the programs contained within them. Neo-institutionalism and the need for legitimacy are discussed as is isomorphism as related to leadership preparation. A final section proposes that, by its very nature, higher education is different from most other organizations in its value of intellectual thought and individual response. Thus, leadership programs might become similar but may not participate in isomorphic outcomes in the same ways as other organizations.

Programs as organizations. Proponents of models of institutionalism have pointed to education as an example of the homogeneity that comes after a field is well established. DiMaggio, 1982 (as cited in DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) proposed four ways by which organizational fields are defined. Programs that prepare educational leaders meet these attributes in all four ways. It is no surprise then that education has been among the most studied organizational fields by neo-institutional theorists.

An increase in the extent of interaction among organizations in the field.

This study indicates that university-based educational leadership programs have made strides in forming increased levels of communication with local school districts, which

has been mutually beneficial. Communication has also increased between programs and state offices of education and accrediting institutions, though some of this has come from mandates for reform. Program chairs as a whole expressed preference in dealing with state level education officials over those from ELCC, mostly because relationships with state officials, with whom they work on other projects, have grown to become collaborative, even as formal mandates have come into play.

Emergence of inter-organizational structures of domination and patterns of coalition. For programs of educational leadership, this has occurred with both state education departments and ELCC, where meeting guidelines for licensure of candidates and program accreditation have meant shifts in both the structure and approach to teaching within programs.

Increase in the information load with which organizations in the field must contend. The increase in data and data-based information in schools has spurred further need for training in programs that prepare school principals. Research from this study also points to a reform in the emphasis on business and finance, which has also added to the information load. Probably most poignant is the change in emphasis on the school principal from building manager to catalyst for diversity to instructional leader. Preparation for the shifting role puts pressure on programs preparing leaders to restructure traditional courses and add new information and practices where necessary.

Development of mutual awareness among participants in a set of organizations that they are involved in a common enterprise. While a mutual awareness between schools and the institutes that prepare their leaders may have been in existence since the

first programs of educational leadership preparation were founded, the level of intensity has been raised in the last twenty years or so with the advent of national standards and calls for reform in the way that schools do business. A sense of understanding between programs that train leaders and school districts from which they come and return seems obvious and yet is still in design in many instances.

Overall, programs of educational leader preparation exist as organizations in a common field, and as national standards have been introduced, the research base in the field has strengthened, and political pressures have been brought to prompt reform, the field has become more tightly coupled. State and national associations of leadership preparation programs reinforce like pressures on programs, and one prominent accrediting agency defines both the nature and outcome of desired change as applied to all programs in the field who seek national recognition. Institutional pressures are significant.

Pressures and reform. For programs of educational leadership, the data presented here show that the two major influences driving reform are state offices of education (or their designee) and the Educational Leadership Licensure Consortium (ELCC). A few other influences, such as school districts, research on effective programs, and feedback from graduates, also put pressure on programs to change, but not with the same degree of force. The influence of program faculty was perceived highly in the survey data but not in the qualitative.

There is a national agenda for programs of education leadership in the form of the ELCC Standards. States themselves have been under pressure from various entities,

including federal law and public perceptions of poor public education, to improve education. Preparation programs have been under pressure from both federal and state educational agencies to jump into the reform movement through program approval processes or risk being replaced. In their drive to implement reform, some states have become NCATE partners to give their reform proposals legitimacy and direction in the form of a recognized accrediting agency. NCATE itself is recognized by the U.S. Department of Education and is the largest accrediting agency for schools of education in the United States (and NCATE has recently announced a merger with its chief rival, further homogenizing its impact). Thus, both states and the ELCC have created pressures by pushing reform on programs of educational leadership.

This relates to neo-institutional theory, which promotes the understanding that organizations act/react to societal norms and external pressures in the search for legitimacy. By instituting reforms that, in themselves, have yet to be proven to increase student achievement or better prepare school leaders, programs are responding to pressures from their environment in order to maintain requirements for the licensure of their students and the legitimacy that comes from being nationally recognized. As research in the field further defines characteristics of effective school leaders, and as national accrediting and state licensing agencies coalesce around components of effective preparation programs, pressures are exerted on programs to conform to institutionally-defined attributes of effective programs. The net result is a more homogenized delivery system, with reforms that look alike, at least in a broad sense, across a wide array of organizations.

Powell and DiMaggio (1983) define three mechanisms through which isomorphic pressures occur. Mimetic pressures on programs of educational leadership, which influence them to look like other programs in the same field, and even other professions, can be found in several reform components. For an example of this, we can again turn to the internship, which the data from this study tell us has increased greatly in size and scope over the past ten years. The idea of an internship is not new. It has been an integral part of preparation in the fields of medicine, architecture, and law for decades. Because these fields are older and highly regarded, they hold a certain legitimacy that may be lacking in newer professions. By mimicking the preparation of highly regarded fields, entities that pressure programs of educational leadership turn to the training used in other successful professions and include these as ways of increasing the importance of leadership preparation. In the long run, leadership programs take on characteristics of other preparation programs because doing so raises their level of status and legitimacy.

Normative pressures are also evident in the research from this study. In several of the interviews, respondents seemed to boast about how their programs were regarded by the state as better in responding to reform than those at other local universities. One program was cited as so exemplary at reform that it was among a few in that state to be chosen to lead other programs in order to show them how it is done. In this sense, programs are pressured to follow other programs that have met the mark for success, even if doing so does not necessarily improve what they do. Given what has been said about the lack of empirical knowledge on how reforms have been instituted and what this ultimately will mean for student achievement, it would be reasonable to raise the question

of why the particular reforms are being instituted when there appears to be no proof that they will lead to better schools. Still, the pressure on institutions to meet expectations or norms, cause some to become competitive in their desire to get there.

Coercive pressures are also evident. That is, programs need to respond to policies and regulations imposed by state agencies, as well as conforming to demands from accrediting bodies. Program chairs D and J, both of whom lamented the loss of intellectual thought and academic freedom as a result of pressures they perceived as leading to isomorphism, were in programs that had been initially rejected by ELCC for not meeting standards to the satisfaction of reviewers. This created a great deal of stress on the parts of both, who cited the countless hours spent on adjusting their program to meet reforms, some of which they disagreed on. Programs that do not meet state requirements risk losing their students to other programs that can provide them with the prerequisites for state licensure. All of this adds to the pressure to respond to changes in the ways that external driving forces demand.

In discussing institutional isomorphism, and the three mechanisms of such (coercive, mimetic, and normative), it is a quest for both legitimacy and resources that have induced programs found in this study to seek ELCC approval in the first place. Thus, even though many programs operate within states that have full partnerships with NCATE, and thus, national recognition/program approval is not always a choice the programs still ultimately respond for legitimacy and from this receive tangible and symbolic rewards.

In sum, as national standards for school leaders have gained traction and been adopted by both accrediting agencies and state governments as a part of credentialing procedures, pressures have been exerted on programs of school leadership preparation to reform. Neo-institutional theory provides one explanation of why results of this study suggest a high degree of conformity across program types in terms of the nature of reform. The fact that the states and ELCC are cited as the most prominent influences on reform is quite consistent with the prediction of neo-institutional theory. This entails that organizations in highly institutional fields such as education will seek legitimacy from their entities in their environment by conforming to the “institutional rules” that define exemplary practice.

Diversity amidst conformity. Even with the tendency for isomorphism in organizations, individual professions differ from one another in level of required education, product, and degree of autonomy. Because of this, it would seem that how an organization responds to change may be influenced by the nature of the profession. Thus university programs, which, as part of higher education, supposedly have a higher than normal appreciation for intellectual thought and academic freedom may be less inclined to conform to institutional pressures to be like other organizations in their field.

The uniqueness of higher education as a profession of educated members with high regard for academic freedom, makes the field somewhat unique. Given this, it is possible that leadership programs are different from other organizations in the ways they respond to external forces. For example, in the qualitative data, Chairs D and J strongly emphasize their dismay at the lack of intellectual inquiry their students will get as their

program moves to a more cookie-cutter type preparation that involves going through gates in order to meet standards. For both of them, some of the reforms are like trying to put square pegs in round holes in that they ignore the individuality of each candidate. Chair J continues to emphasize an intellectual approach while meeting reforms on paper. Thus, both are resistant to reform and both indicate that parts of reform will not ultimately work.

In the case of programs of educational leadership preparation, neither the forces that drive reform nor the programs that institute them are consistently alike from state to state or program to program. The interview data suggests that, though a basic structure does exist, programs differ with regard to faculty background and number, kinds of field experiences, level of rigor, course structure, candidate appraisal, school district collaboration, and many other elements. Some programs have no full-time faculty members while others have many. Three programs reported three very different number of standards required by state offices, and implementation of standards vary as well.

Though ELCC/NCATE and states might be considered the greatest influences on program reform, this study found that perceptions on ELCC's oversight differ from one chair to the next though seven of the ten mention working with ELCC to some degree. Some program chairs professed to be unaware of the presence of ELCC within the state other than to acknowledge that their program was NCATE accredited. Two said that their state education offices had been instituting reforms long before the NCATE Standards were implemented in 2002. Other chairs fretted about ELCC's interference, particularly with standards and work related to the assessment of candidates.

Survey data show that program chairs perceive a wide variety of influences. In line with institutional theory, NCATE Standards, state policy, and research from effective programs were all credited highly as influencing reform. This indicates that reform was influenced by more dominant organizations as well as organizations that are touted to be exemplary. Data also indicates reform resulting from input from program faculty, feedback from graduates, and examination of candidate performance on key assessments. Each of these categories are actually components of unit assessment systems that are embedded in NCATE standards, so it may be that they are emphasized because of the influence of NCATE on schools of education. Nonetheless, they may be sources of diversity.

Though the field experience showed some level of reform in nine out of ten programs involved in the interviews, these also varied as did survey information revealing that the required minimum number of hours for field experiences in 152 programs varies from 20 to 710. Several programs indicated that they have no minimum number and that field experiences are based on completed tasks instead of minimum time. Some field experiences take place in the summer months, where candidates are sent to school systems to serve as summer school administrators. Other field experiences are mostly integrated throughout the coursework, where the actual sustained experience at the end of the program is downplayed in favor of learning experiences that relate to course material.

Overall, then, evidence from this study shows that there has been a significant degree of reform of leadership preparation programs, and that the degree and type of

reform does not appear to differ significantly across institution type. As predicted by neo-institutional theory, program chairs cite their states and accrediting agencies as the most prominent forces behind reform. However, interview data suggest that there may be considerable variability in reforms underneath the broad definitions studied, i.e., reform enacted may differ across programs even within a broad conformity across the field.

Limitations of this study

The purpose of this study was to determine to what degree programs of educational leadership have responded to calls for reform. Due to the dearth of empirical studies on reform and how it has impacted educational leadership, it is hoped that the information gathered and presented here contributes to the knowledge base.

The study was based on perceptions of program chairs and depends on both the honesty of the participant as well as competent knowledge of the subject matter he or she is speaking about. While all of the data for this study was treated as valid, there is the possibility of bias, particularly in the qualitative section. It is doubtful that any program chair is going to respond to questions on his/her program by stating that no reform has occurred, even if none has. Still, the quality and effectiveness of reform was not studied and thus, the possibility of exaggeration exists and, admittedly, is somewhat probable in parts.

The section of the survey that is rooted in reform differs in scope from the sections asking for a level of agreement on statements. Though both are based on perception, in the section on reforms, respondents were able to choose from unique categories to describe whether program elements existed, were added since 2002, or were

reformed. The other two sections ask respondents to indicate degrees of agreement with statements related to change, and this involves a different level of thought. Still, both types of questioning give a broader description of what has occurred.

In pilot testing the survey, the limited number of experienced program chairs willing to participate in either one of the two pilots raises the question as to whether the survey was as valid as it could be. A best scenario would have included finding an available survey that had already been used in other studies and perhaps making minor alterations in order to fit this study. This would allow for the instrument to be tested repeatedly, which it was not for this study. While none of the program chair indicated that any part of the survey was inadequate or confusing, (even though many are assumed to have backgrounds in conducting research) some sections were answered by fewer participants, which raises the question as to whether sections of the survey were problematic.

The reform section of the survey was collapsed into new sections in order to provide both clarity and stronger argument that reform has occurred. In adding the columns titled *had element in 2002 and dropped* and *did not have element in 2002 and added*, we have changed the notion of reform from what it was before. Previously, reform inferred that an existing element was altered in order to make it something different. By collapsing columns together, the definition of reform as used here has been broadened to include *added* or *dropped*.

Ideas for Further Research

This study began as an inquiry into field experiences and how they have evolved in relation to preparation programs over the past ten years or so. In researching that topic, it was discovered that little empirical research is available about the much larger topic of educational leadership reform since the ELCC Standards were implemented in 2002, and thus, the scope of this research was changed. Given the results indicating strong agreement that elements of field experiences have reformed and grown over the last nine years, an up-to-date study on the topic of field experiences would expand the research that is presented here.

Another worthwhile study involves the complicated relationships between NCATE, ELCC, and states, and how these work together toward the common goal of reform. This study indicates that, though programs are implementing common reforms, the influences on the programs and the pace of reform vary from state to state, and in some states, from program to program. Thus, an in-depth study on each state, the relationship with ELCC, and levels of reform in all of the ELCC approved programs as perceived by program faculty, would seem a natural follow up to the research presented here.

Finally, additional perspectives on reform would either validate or conflict with the research presented in this study. Thus, a study of actual school leaders from the perspective of those who attended ELCC and non-ELCC approved programs, that measures perceived readiness for the tasks they are now facing, would add to the literature. Likewise, a study from graduates of ELCC approved programs on which of the

elements found in the *reform* section of this report most enhanced their learning might also be beneficial to the research base.

Finally, until programs have fully implemented reforms and put them into practice, we do not have knowledge about unintended outcomes or rates of improvement in either programs or schools. Therefore, inquiry into the quality and effectiveness of reforms would greatly add a great deal to this work.

Appendix A

Survey of Programs Chairs

**PROGRAMS OF EDUCATION LEADERSHIP AND THEIR RESPONSE TO
POLITICAL AND ACADEM...**

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of the nature of reform and redesign in university-based programs of educational leadership. In addition to learning about the features of program redesign, the research is concerned with the influence of academic and political contexts of reform, including the adoption of NCATE's Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership Preparation. The mixed-method study will include this survey and a small number of interviews. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete the following survey that will take approximately 20 minutes.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in educational leadership preparation.

CONFIDENTIALITY

While it is understood that no computer transmission can be perfectly secure, reasonable efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of your transmission. We do not ask your name on this survey, nor do we ask for any information that can be used to identify your college or university.

PARTICIPATION

Participation in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time or for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is a portion of a doctoral research project in education leadership at George Mason University. If you have any questions or comments about your participation in this study, please contact Philip Robey, doctoral candidate, at 202-744-5584 (probey@gmu.edu) or Dr. Scott Bauer, of the Program of Educational Leadership at George Mason University at 703-993-3775 or sbauer1@gmu.edu. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT

I have read this form and agree to participate in this study. Please click on the "next" button below to access the survey.

The George Mason University Human Subjects Review Board has waived the requirement for a signature on this consent form. However, if you wish to sign a

consent, please contact Philip Robey at 202-744-5584 or probey@gmu.edu.

Thank you for taking part!

Revised June 15, 2010

PROGRAM INFORMATION

The purpose of this section is to gather information related to your program and how it operates. This information is important in order to enable the researcher to ensure that all participating programs meet criteria for this study and to group, compare, and contrast various programs by selected criteria.

1. Either now, or during the 2009-10 school year, were you the permanent or acting Chair/Coordinator/Dean for a program of educational leadership preparation at a college or university?

☐ YES

☐ NO

2. Does your program offer course work that leads to eligibility for licensure for school principals?

☐ YES

☐ NO

3. Has your program been in existence since (at least) the 2002-3 academic year?

☐ Yes

☐ No

4. Which of the following best describes your program's relationship with The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)?

☐ Fully Accredited

☐ Provisionally
Accredited

☐ Currently working
toward Accreditation

☐ Not Accredited/Not
working toward NCATE
Accreditation

* IF YOU ANSWERED "NO" TO ANY OF QUESTIONS 1 - 3, OR "NOT ACCREDITED/NOT WORKING TOWARD NCATE ACCREDITATION" FOR QUESTION 4, PLEASE STOP HERE.

This survey is intended for chairs/acting chairs of university/college-based programs of educational leadership with NCATE association that have been in existence since before the 2002-03 school year. Thank you.

Revised June 15, 2010

Program information, continued

5. When was your program last reviewed by NCATE for accreditation/re-accreditation?

6. How many years have you been chairperson of your program?

7. Approximately how many students were enrolled in your program 2002-2003, and approximately how many are enrolled today?

Enrollment in 2002-2003

Enrollment today

8. How many full-time equivalent tenure track faculty are currently employed in your program? How many full-time equivalent clinical faculty?

Tenure track faculty:

Clinical faculty:

9. In what state is your program located? (If your program offers courses at multiple sites or online, please identify the primary location.)

10. Which of the following descriptors BEST describes the college or university with which your program is affiliated?

☐ Research - offer a full range of undergraduate and graduate programs, graduate more than 50 Ph.D.s annually, and place a high priority on research.

☐ Doctoral - offer undergraduate and graduate degrees, including Ph.D.s, but award fewer than 50 doctoral degrees.

☐ Comprehensive - offer a full range of undergraduate programs and masters degrees in one or more fields.

11. How would you best describe your program since NCATE adopted the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership in 2002?

☐ Essentially the same

☐ We have undergone minor revision - some courses have changed or been added.

☐ We have undergone basic revision - All of the courses changed but no significant structural changes have occurred with the program.

☐ We have undergone significant revision - some courses have been changed/added and structural components have changed.

☐ We have undergone major revision - most/all courses and structural components have been added or changed.

12. Is your college or university a full or provisional member of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA)?

- ☐ YES - Full Member
- ☐ YES - Provisional Member
- ☐ NO - Neither Full nor Provisional Member

Revised June 15, 2010

PROGRAM INFLUENCES

Faculty decisions toward the revision and redesign of program structure and/or coursework may be influenced by a number of factors.

The purpose of this section is to determine what elements may have influenced your faculty toward program redesign.

13. Please select the answer that best describes the extent to which each of the following influenced your decisions concerning program redesign.

	Not at all	Somewhat	Moderately	Substantially
Research on effective education leadership programs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Input from faculty members in your program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Input from students while they were enrolled in your program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feedback from your program's graduates about their preparation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Design elements of other educator preparation programs at your university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Design elements of preparation programs at other universities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Design elements of non-university based programs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Examination of candidate performance on key assessments used in your program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Examination of candidate performance on the School Leadership Licensure Assessment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pressure from your university to generate revenue.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NCATE Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership Preparation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Changes in state policy and/or licensure requirements.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"No Child Left Behind" laws driving accountability policies in k-12 education.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grant money from federal and local agencies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grant money from private foundations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feedback from school systems on graduate performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Perceived public perceptions of educational leaders.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If there are other significant influences, please specify:

Revised June 15, 2010

PROGRAM REFORMS

Some programs have been reformed a great deal since 2002-03 while others have not changed much.

Assuming that your program has undergone some reform or redesign, this section examines the nature/elements of your changes.

14. Indicate whether each of the following program features were redesigned, added, dropped, or remain unchanged since 2002-3

	Had in 2002-3 and essentially the same	Had in 2002-3 and redesigned	Had in 2002-3 and dropped	Did not have in 2002-3 and added	Not a component of program since 2002-3
Student cohort Groups	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Class schedules that are chosen to best fit student needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Course locations to fit student needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The addition of online courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A path by which non-traditional candidates may pursue licensure	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on research methods as part of the curriculum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on business/finance as part of the curriculum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on meeting the needs of diverse learners as part of the curriculum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. Program Reforms (Continued)					
	Had in 2002-3 and is essentially the same	Had in 2002-3 and redesigned	Had in 2002-3 and dropped	Did not have in 2002-3 and added	Not a component of program since 2002-3
Requirement for annual course updates by faculty to reflect new content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A focus on characteristics of successful school leaders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on program instruction and how classes are taught	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on a logical progression of courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emphasis on reflection and discussion time for students to discuss leadership issues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Professional development for program faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A plan for attracting highly qualified faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use of clinical faculty to teach licensure classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. Program Reforms (Continued)

	Had in 2002-3 and is essentially the same	Had in 2002-3 and redesigned	Had in 2002-3 and dropped	Did not have in 2002-3 and added	Not a component of program since 2002-3
Use of adjunct faculty to teach licensure classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Deliberate use of student assessment data for program improvement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regularly scheduled open forums that invite feedback from local school or district leaders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Partnerships with at least one school system to sponsor a cohort	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regularly scheduled meetings with school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Invitations to local school or district leaders to review candidate assessment data	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Invitations to local school or district leaders to serve as guest speakers in classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The use of web- based or electronic systems to compile and analyze student assessment data	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Revised June 15, 2010

FIELD EXPERIENCE COMPONENT

Assuming that your program currently has a field-based requirement, this section asks about how it has changed since 2002.

17. How many hours, if any, did your program require (minimum) for a field-based placement in 2002-2003, and how many hours do you require currently?

2002-2003

Currently

18. Compared to your program in 2002-03, to what extent would you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Currently, we do not have this component
The field experience begins earlier in the program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The field experience is more integrated with, and complements, the coursework.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Selection requirements for field mentors have become more stringent.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training requirements for field mentors have increased.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on the importance of student journals for reflection.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on requiring students to complete a project, such as a school improvement plan, while at the internship site.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on evaluating how well student interns develop and maintain good working relationships.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on evaluating student competence in a school leadership role.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on leadership experiences with various grade levels.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on experiences at various school sites.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is increased emphasis on a field-based experience that incorporates elements of the NCATE Advanced Standards for Programs of Educational Leadership.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other (please specify)

Revised June 15, 2010

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF PROGRAM CANDIDATES

In this section we ask about how your program recruits and selects candidates for admissions today, as compared with procedures in 2002-03.

19. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your program's recruitment and selection practices?

	Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Our program is more active in recruiting potential students for admission.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program partners with local school districts to establish criteria and processes for screening and selecting candidates.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program has seen an increase in applicants.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program's overall academic reputation has improved.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Candidates for admission are of higher quality.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program works harder to attract high quality school teachers as potential candidates.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Recruitment of student candidates is more of a program priority.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program's requirements for admission have become more rigorous.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program's tuition has significantly increased.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program's class schedules have become more convenient for students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program's class locations have become more accessible for students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our program has become more open to admitting candidates from the business sector with little or no experience as educators.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Candidates for admission tend to have more experience in the field of education.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other (please specify)

Revised June 15, 2010

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW BY PHONE

In order to better understand the topic, I am seeking to interview a select group of program chairs over the phone. All interviews will be kept strictly confidential. Your views will be integrated with the combined survey results to give an overview of how programs of educational leadership have responded to academic and political contexts. If you are willing to be interviewed, please click on the hyperlink, or e-mail me at the e-mail address, and leave this information: 1.) Your Name 2.) The best phone number to reach you at. 3.) Your e-mail address 4.) The university/college with which your program is affiliated. Thank you very much for your consideration! probey@gmu.edu

Revised June 15, 2010

Appendix B

Table Indicating Survey Revisions

Table 25

Revisions to Survey on Educational Leadership from Pilots 1 and 2, June 15, 2010.

Changes	Rationale
Changed language in Informed Consent to suggest that survey will take about 10 minutes instead of 20	Question 7 simplified.
Changed language in question 1 to include that program chair was in place during the 2009-10 school year and also ask if survey taker was "permanent or acting chair/coordinator?"	Suggested in research to keep "like" questions together and this followed a natural progression
Question 3: Added a question as to whether program has been around since 2002-3.	Fits criteria for participation
Changed language in Questions 2 and 7 from "educational leadership" to "school principals."	Fit criteria that one is in training to become a school principal.
Question 7 reworded	Per Pilot #2 to give clarity.
Moved Question # 8 to Question #5 space.	
Questions following to 8 then moved one space forward	Easier to read
Removed mandatory need to answer Q. 9	No reason for mandatory category. May turn off some survey takers.
Top of sections 13 and 14: simplified the section introductions to make them more reader friendly and less tedious.	Make each section easy to read without unnecessary wording.
Section 14 – reformatted into 3 sections for easier referencing of categories at the top of page	Per pilot 2 – suggested.

<p>Combined questions 15 and 16 into one question, now question 17.</p> <p>Entire Survey: Changed color of backdrop to a lighter, user-friendly shade of yellow.</p> <p>Question 14 - removal of words “reliance on” in reference to clinical and adjunct faculty teaching courses.</p> <p>Question 14 – Removed statement on “professional development for adjunct faculty.”</p> <p>In question 14, spread categories more physically apart.</p> <p>Added a progress bar at the bottom of each page</p>	<p>More succinct use of space</p> <p>One Pilot taker remarked that the previous green was too severe on the eyes</p> <p>Pilot #2 – stated that the original was an unclear statement. This makes it more direct.</p> <p>There is no reason to differentiate program faculty and adjunct here.</p> <p>Suggested by responder in pilot #2 as the former were cumbersome to distinguish.</p> <p>Suggestion from Pilot 1 to allow survey taker information as to how much farther they will need to go.</p>
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Appendix C

Letter of Invitation to Participate in Survey

**George Mason University
Education Leadership Program
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA 22030**

Dear Program Chair:

My name is Phil Robey and I am a doctoral candidate at George Mason University in Fairfax, VA. For my dissertation, I am conducting a study on **how university-based programs of education leadership have responded to the many political and academic contexts that influence how school leaders are prepared** in university settings. My study will be conducted under the supervision of my advisor, Scott Bauer, Ph.D., who is an Associate Professor of Education Leadership at George Mason.

As the chairperson of your school's program of educational leadership preparation, you are in the unique position to best judge the many challenges your program faces as well as know how your program has responded to such over the past several years. Given this, I am inviting you to contribute to a national body of knowledge being collected via survey that you may access online at <http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/educationalleadershipsurvey>. **My population consists of program chairs** at NCATE accredited, university/college based programs of educational leadership. I am specifically interested in studying programs that result in eligibility for licensure as school principals.

Your participation in this study is, of course, voluntary and all information pertaining to individual participants and/or programs will be kept confidential. Neither names nor identifiers will be on the survey, and interview data will be coded and stored in a locked cabinet at George Mason University when not in use by the researcher. While my primary mission is to complete my dissertation, I do hope that my results will also be presented in either a journal article or conference presentation as well. All of the data collected will be limited to this research, as authorized by George Mason University in Fairfax, VA.

Thank you for your consideration. Your survey should take no more than 20 minutes to complete. Should there be an e-mail problem, call me and I will be happy to follow up with a mailed copy of the survey.

As a special thanks, I am sending you a small gift of tea which you can enjoy while you are completing the survey.

Thanks again.

Philip V. Robey, George Mason University
202-744-5584 or, probey@gmu.edu
Scott Bauer, Associate Professor
Education Leadership Preparation Program
George Mason University

Rev. 6/15/10

Appendix D

E-mail to Program Chairs Reminding them of the Survey

**George Mason University
Education Leadership Program
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA. 22030**

Dear Program Chair:

By now, you should have received a letter (and complimentary gift of tea) alerting you to my dissertation study titled, **Response of Programs of Education Leadership to Academic and political Contexts**. This study will contribute to the growing body of knowledge on how university-based programs of educational leadership have responded to various calls for reform and redesign.

If you have not yet accessed the survey, you may do so by clicking on the following address:

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/educationalleadershipsurvey>

Survey responses are confidential and there are no identifiers on the survey itself.

As this is a mixed methods study, I am soliciting participants for a confidential telephone interview of about one-hour to take place at a time of your choice. If you are willing to participate in the telephone interview, please indicate so along with your contact information/best times to contact you on the last page of the survey.

Should you have any questions, or need to contact me, I am available at either (phone) 202-744-5584 or (e-mail) probey@gmu.edu.

Sincerely,

Phil Robey
Student Researcher, George Mason University

Scott Bauer, Associate Professor, George Mason University

Rev. 6/15/10

Appendix E

E-mailed Reminder No. 2

**George Mason University
Education Leadership Program
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA 22030**

August 18, 2010

Dear Program Chair:

It does not appear that you have yet responded to my invitation to participate in an important survey study on ***how university-based programs of education leadership have responded to academic and political contexts calling for program reform and redesign***. Your participation would be greatly valued and all individual completed surveys are completely confidential by design.

As the chair/Dean or coordinator of an NCATE accredited program, you are in the unique position to best judge the many challenges your program has faced and responded to since 2002. Given this, we really need your assistance in completing the survey. You may access it at www.surveymonkey.com/s/educationalleadershipsurvey.

Thank you for your consideration. The survey should take no more than 20 minutes to complete and will be used toward the fulfillment of my dissertation toward a Ph.D. in education leadership as well as articles that may be written from the research. If you have any questions, please feel free to e-mail me at probey@gmu.edu or call me at (202) 744-5584.

In my first letter, I was happy to send a packet of tea to participants to take while completing the survey. Recognizing that not everyone likes tea, please enjoy this coffee while you are participating in this important study.

Thanks again,

Philip Robey
Ph.D. Candidate
George Mason University

Scott Bauer, Associate Professor
Education Leadership Preparation Program
George Mason University

Appendix F

Consent to be Interviewed Form

**George Mason University
Fairfax, VA. 22030**

Response of Programs of Educational Leadership to Political and Academic Contexts.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of the nature of reform and redesign in university-based programs of educational leadership. In addition to learning about the features of program redesign, the research is concerned with the influence of academic and political contexts of reform, including the adoption of NCATE's Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership Preparation. **This informed consent form is for the interview portion of the mixed methods study.**

Confidentiality: The data in this study will be held in confidence by the researchers. Though this section of the data collection asks for your name and university or college, all information and data will be kept locked in a cabinet at the Education Leadership offices of George Mason University when not in use by the researchers. Upon completion of this study, all data linking you to this study will be destroyed.

Participation: Participation in the interview portion of the study is voluntary and you may withdraw from this at any time or for any reason. If you decide not to participate, or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty. There are no costs to you or any other party.

This research is a portion of a doctoral research project in education leadership at George Mason University. If you have any questions or comments about your participation in this study, please contact Philip Robey, doctoral candidate, at 202-744-5584 (probey@gmu.edu) or Dr. Scott Bauer, of the Program of Education Leadership at George Mason University at 703-862-4343 or sbauer1@gmu.edu.

Consent: My signature below indicates my willingness and consent to participate in the interview portion of this study. I understand that upon receipt of this signed consent form, I will be contacted for an interview lasting approximately one hour.

Printed Name

Signature

Please return this page in the postage paid envelope accompanying this agreement.

Thank you!

Appendix G

Response of Programs of Educational Leadership to Academic and Political Contexts

Questions for qualitative interviews

I want to talk with you about issues related to the redesign and reform of your program of educational leadership in response to various academic and political (or state) influences since 2002.

I'm mostly interested in your perceptions about specific influences toward redesign, as well as how you feel your program has responded to these. I'm also interested in how you feel about redesign and reform process as a whole.

1. I'd like you to tell me about the reforms or redesign in your program since the publication of the NCATE Standards for Preparation of School Leaders in 2002. How much has your program changed over the past seven years or so and what are some of the more visible changes? (Probe: Was the effort a consciously targeted one-time event or did it happen over time? Is it still happening? What particular reforms stand out? How are reforms working out? Some more than others? How so?)
2. Describe the influences or pressures that might have driven or constrained redesign or reform in your program? (probe for what these were, how they were perceived, what drove them, in what ways did they influence your attitude toward redesign? Were they successful and why?).
3. In what ways have your program faculty responded to efforts to influence the redesign of your program? (Probe for their actions and any responses toward redesign, any actions that stand out in particular).
4. Now that your program is redesigned, what have you gained? Lost? How is it better or worse? How is it unique and different from other programs? Do you feel that this uniqueness was enhanced or diminished in the reform process and why?

Appendix H

Informed Consent Form

**George Mason University
Program of Education Leadership
4400 University Drive
Fairfax, VA. 22030**

Page 1 of 2

Response of Programs of Educational Leadership to Political and Academic Contexts.

INFORMED CONSENT FORM – INTERVIEW SECTION

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of the nature of reform and redesign in university-based programs of educational leadership. In addition to learning about the features of program redesign, the research is concerned with the influence of academic and political contexts of reform, including the adoption of NCATE's Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership Preparation. If you agree to participate, this interview will last approximately 45 minutes and will consist of answering and discussing five questions related to the research topic.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in educational leadership preparation.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data in this study will be confidential. Though this section of the data collection asks for your name and university or college, all information and data will be kept locked in a cabinet at the Education Leadership offices of George Mason University when not in use.

by the researchers. Upon completion of this study, all data linking you to this study will be destroyed.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in the interview portion of the study is voluntary and you may withdraw from this at any time or for any reason. If you decide not to participate, or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is a portion of a doctoral research project in education leadership at George Mason University. If you have any questions or comments about your participation in this study, please contact Philip Robey, doctoral candidate, at 202-744-5584 (probey@gmu.edu) or Dr. Scott Bauer, of the Program of Education Leadership at George Mason University at 703-862-4343 or sbauer1@gmu.edu. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have any questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT

I have read this form and agree to participate in this study.

_____	_____
Printed Name	Signature

Date of Signature	

Please return this page in the postage paid envelope accompanying this agreement.

Thank you!

Appendix I

Timeline for Completion of Dissertation.

January, 2010 – Obtain approval of Dissertation Committee Members for Study.

March, 2010 – Submit materials to George Mason HSRB for review and approval.

April, 2010 – pilot survey to self and a group of seven EDLE program chairs and faculty. Obtain feedback and adjust as necessary.

May, 2010 – Second pilot sent to five program chairs and faculty.
Pilot qualitative questions for clarity.

February-June, 2010 – Gather names, addresses and e-mail information on program chairs.

June, 2010 – Send letter of invitation via U.S. mail to program chairs along with survey information

June, 2010 – Send e-mail with survey information one week after mailing of letter.

July, 2010 – Send second e-mail soliciting participation in the survey component and requesting participation.

July, 2010 – August, 2010 Send follow-up letters via SurveyMonkey requesting participation or completion of already begun surveys left incomplete.

July, 2010 – Mail Informed Consent Forms to Interview Participants with self addressed return envelopes.

July – September, 2010 – Gather qualitative data via recorded phone conversations from those who indicated on survey that they were willing to participate. If at least ten persons have not indicated willingness, send personal e-mails randomly to program chairs inviting them to be interviewed.

September - October, 2010 – Compile and analyze survey results. Compare and analyze quantitative with qualitative.

October, 2010 – February, 2011 – Compile, organize, write and edit dissertation chapters

Submission, review and defense – not later than March 30, 2011

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Curriculum Vitae

Philip Robey's Curriculum Vitae indicates that he has two degrees: A Bachelor of Arts degree in English from the Catholic University of America (1982) and an Master of Science degree in educational administration from Trinity University (1996). In addition to that, he has twenty-seven graduate credits in administration from the University of Maryland, where he did graduate work in the early 1980's, and seventy-two graduate credits in theology and philosophy from Catholic University where he did graduate work in the late 1980's. The Doctor of Philosophy degree caps a long history of education – some from necessity and some for pleasure.

In his career as an educator, Mr. Robey has taught grades 5 – graduate school over an eight-year span, from 1982 – 1990, and from 2006-2007. He has also served in the role of principal in a total of four schools: two elementary/middle schools, and two secondary schools. Currently, Mr. Robey is the Executive Director of the Secondary Schools Department at the National Catholic Educational Association in Arlington, Va.