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Notes from the Editors

Spring 2018 Edition

Welcome to Volume 29 of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development: The Journal of the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration (CAPEA)*. After a blind and rigorous review process, the editors have accepted a set of very strong contributions from a variety of perspectives concerning the profession of school leadership and school leadership preparation.

Volume 29 begins with the article *The Web of Reclassification for English Language Learners—A Cyclical Journey Waiting to Be Interrupted: Discussion of Realities, Challenges, and Opportunities*. This article highlights the racialized and social class discourses in the educational field. In spite of the fact that English language learners represent a growing number of students in our public schools, there continues to be no official language policy at the national level. This lack can result in ad hoc language policies developed at the local level that may not advance the academic achievement of English language learners. The authors unpack obstacles and discuss opportunities associated with language minority student classification practices and, more specifically, English language learners' reclassification to fluent proficient status. The authors conclude with recommendations for school and district leaders concerning how to apply the liberty afforded to districts by the CDE in a way that best meets the students' needs and that is also socially just. The remaining articles in this section focus on praxis, in that the research presented disseminates knowledge for both leadership preparation programs and the field of school/district leadership. *Is It Rational or Intuitive? Factors and Processes Affecting School Superintendents' Decisions When Facing Professional Dilemmas* examines the decision-making processes of superintendents and the factors that affect their decisions. This research shows that superintendents' decisions are influenced by their intention to safeguard the interests of students, their perceptions about the community's acceptance of their decisions, and the advice of trusted consultants. Findings also suggest that superintendents

developing leadership preparation coursework. Students reported on the relationship between the leadership readiness beliefs of prospective school leaders and the efficacy-building experiences they participated in during their university preparation program. A moderate positive correlation was found between the number of efficacy-building experiences in which students took part and the leadership readiness that they reported. The article concludes with specific recommendations for university programs that desire to best prepare their students through efficacy-based training.

This journal would not have been possible without the efforts of numerous people. First, we would like to thank all the authors who contributed manuscripts. A very special thank you goes to the Editorial Review Board, who worked tirelessly to review and edit all the submissions. We also wish to acknowledge our copyeditor, Stefania De Petris. We could not have completed the journal without her excellent skills and assistance to the authors. We would also like to thank our President R.D. Nordgren, from the National University, for his constant encouragement and

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Section One: School Leadership

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The Web of Reclassification for English Language Learners—a Cyclical Journey Waiting to Be Interrupted: Discussion of Realities, Challenges, and Opportunities

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Abstract

In this article we unpack the obstacles and opportunities associated with language minority student classification practices and, more specifically, English language learners' reclassification to fluent proficient status. First, we discuss classification permanency for language minority students. Second, we provide an overview of national reclassification practices. Third, we discuss the practical application of California Department of Education's (CDE) guidelines for reclassification of students from English Language Learner (ELL) to Fluent English Proficient (FEP). We conclude with recommendations for school and district leaders on how to apply the liberty afforded to districts by the CDE in a way that best meets the students' needs and is socially just.

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Conversations around the academic obstacles affecting language minority students frequently permeate educational circles and spaces. Yet, how language minority students are stratified within public school systems is less frequently discussed. In this article, we argue that the way language minority students are classified and reclassified deserves much attention.

The practice of student classification is more than one-fold. Although commonly used in education subfields (e.g., special education, gifted and talented education, Native American education, English language development, among others), classification itself carries a high potential not only to impact classified students' K-12 experiences (Okhremtchouk, 2014), but also to shape their long-term and even life trajectories, as the two are intertwined and not mutually exclusive. In the case of language minority students, being classified is unavoidable. From the very first day language minority students enroll in a public school, they are classified based on their deemed proficiency level in the English language through an assessment measure used by a school district of enrollment.

For example, if a language minority student is found to be fluent in the English language, he or she is classified Initially Fluent English Proficient (I-FEP/FEP). If a student is deemed not fluent in the English language by the district of enrollment, he or she is classified as an English Language Learner (ELL). When an ELL student eventually reaches proficiency in the English language as determined by her/his district of attendance, he or she is then reclassified to Fluent English Proficient or R-FEP (please find a more comprehensive definition of terms in Appendix A). Indeed, language minority students' classification throughout their K-12

public education system is a complex process that involves multiple stakeholders, including educators, administrators, and parents. The classification process is often based on standardized tests and assessments, which may not fully capture a student's language proficiency. Additionally, the classification process can be influenced by factors such as the student's cultural background and the school's resources. The classification process is a critical component of the educational system, as it determines the services and supports that a student will receive. The classification process is a complex process that involves multiple stakeholders, including educators, administrators, and parents. The classification process is often based on standardized tests and assessments, which may not fully capture a student's language proficiency. Additionally, the classification process can be influenced by factors such as the student's cultural background and the school's resources. The classification process is a critical component of the educational system, as it determines the services and supports that a student will receive.

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proficiency in speaking, listening, reading and writing” (U.S. Department of Justice Civil Rights Division & U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights 2015, p. 1). However, in terms of reclassification, federal government’s only guideline is that “an EL[L] student must not be exited from EL[L] programs, services, or status until he or she demonstrates English proficiency on an English language proficiency assessment in speaking, listening, reading, and writing” (U.S. Department of Justice Civil Rights Division & U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights 2015, p. 3). Further, the post-reclassification requirements state that: (a) reclassified students must be monitored for a period of two years to ensure that their exit from ELL programs is not premature, and (b) any academic deficits ELL students incurred during their time in ELL programs must have been remedied.

Whereas the identification process for ELLs shares a number of similarities across the nation (i.e., starting with home language survey, followed by language proficiency assessments), states do differ in the number of criteria used to reclassify their ELL students to

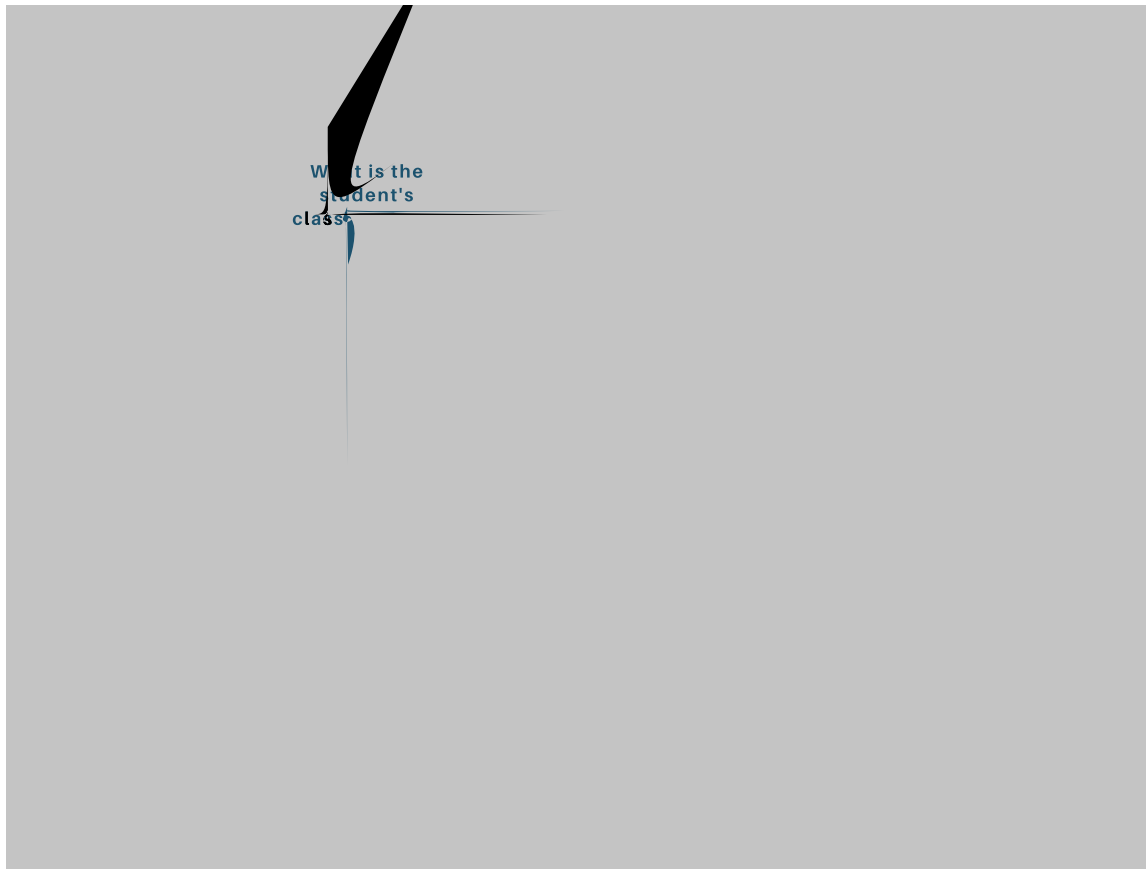


Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Typical Education Experience: ELL vs. English-Only

Reclassification often serves as a gateway that breaks the cycle and is supposed to allow former ELL students to experience the system in a similar way to English-only mainstream student; however, ELLs' "equal" access to the "same" system is not to be taken for granted. In addition to meeting reclassification criteria in their district of attendance, students are expected to navigate a system that is unlike what they have previously experienced/have been socialized to. This is arguably a change for the better, except that it also presents a challenge: Especially for those students who have been subjected to prolonged enrollment in English Language Development (ELD) programs, this can feel like being thrown into the deep end of a swimming pool without having ever taken a lesson and being told to swim. Additionally, the reclassified students still carry a classification label (and therefore are subjected to classification permanency, as previously discussed), which quite possibly continues to facilitate placements in classes that are less challenging and more remedial. One study of ELLs at a California school ($n = 355$) found that English learners were far less likely to take college preparatory courses or were enrolled in courses that covered less material compared to their mainstream counterparts (Callahan, 2005). Academic literature on long-term ELLs and students who have reached reclassification but then have "regressed" attest to these situations (Kim & Herman, 2010).

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Problems and Opportunities

California gives LEAs much room to interpret and implement the criteria that language minority students must meet in order to become reclassified as English proficient. The implications of this for students and the correlated responsibility taken on by district leadership when it comes to establishing district policy cannot be overstated. Although carrying an ELL classification in the short run can support ELL students' academic trajectories, the long-term impacts of ELL classification and, therefore, in-school stratification practices affect students' academic trajectories as well as college and career opportunities

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heightened responsibility and the need for precise decision making in establishing local criteria

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3. Ongoing Assessment for Post-Graduation Opportunities

We suggest that LEAs take a proactive step in examining and reexamining post-graduation opportunities for language minority students early in their K-12 careers and frequently as the students move through the K-12 pipeline. Taking into account the permanency associated with language minority student classification and its potential impact on the students' academic as well as life trajectories is a solid start in addressing the opportunity factor. That is, academic placements must be carefully thought through, especially for those language minority students who have been reclassified or are initially classified as fluent proficient. These two classifications should not drive key decisions pertaining to academic opportunities/offerings. We also suggest a cautious examination of academic placement decisions pertaining to ELLs, especially if the students have carried ELL classification for more than two years.

It is absolutely paramount for district leaders to ensure that the academic opportunities for language minority students are similar to those of English-only mainstream students. To this end, language minority students must be offered classes and experiences that serve as a gateway to post-secondary offerings.

4. Need for Uniformity and Further Discussion in Leadership Circles

Drawing from our earlier discussion, there are two issues with the current flexibility in California's (as well as other states') policies regarding reclassification of ELLs. One issue is with the subjectivity and/or relevance of some of the measures used. Whether a student's math grades should affect their classification and how (and if it is possible) to make teacher recommendations less subjective are two examples of this.

Another major problem is the lack of consistency among LEAs and among states. The idea that where a student lives could determine his or her learner status is troublesome. If one's classification is as arbitrary as the place in which one is born, how can the classification be achieving its purpose? We argue that it cannot.

We challenge educational leaders to become a part of the policy conversation around classification and reclassification. There is work to be done, starting with conversations around the purpose of classification and reclassification. Designing curricula centered around student strengths and needs, with the intent of helping students develop the skills they do not have yet and deepen those they bring with them, is one important step. So is doing everything possible to avoid delaying students' access to rigorous content material until language proficiency is reached. Designing assessment tools (or implementing the use of current ones) that consistently and accurately measure when students become likely to succeed in mainstream classes is critical.

In the absence of these conversations, California (along with many other states) has put the responsibility of making these determinations onto its LEAs. It is our hope that each LEA will use this opportunity to implement policies that are student centered and focused on social justice, and that district leaders will use their influence to bring these conversations to the fore among leaders in the state as a whole.

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Appendix A

Is It Rational or Intuitive? Factors and Processes Affecting School Superintendents' Decisions When Facing Professional Dilemmas

Walter H. Hart, Ed.D.
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Abstract

Given the critical impact of their decisions and of the community's perception of their performance, it is reasonable that school superintendents would seek to understand the factors that influence their decisions and the processes used to make them. The researcher in this study used a qualitative approach, interviewing 13 school superintendents about the factors that affected their decisions and the extent to which they utilized a rational or intuitive decision-making model. The results show that superintendents' decisions are influenced by the belief that they must safeguard the interests of students, by their perceptions about community acceptance of their decisions, and by the advice of trusted consultants. Their responses suggested that superintendents blend a rational approach with their intuition when making decisions, a strategy that mimics dual process approaches.

Every aspect of an organization's success depends upon leaders making effective decisions. Hiring and retaining personnel, long-range planning, goal setting, resolving conflict, professional development, and budgeting are just a few examples of functions that depend upon quality decisions, and within every major decision lies the opportunity for success or failure (Lunnenburg & Ornstein, 2012).

Before we delve into this matter, it is important to clarify some key terms. A decision is a choice among alternatives; decision making is the process used to make that choice. Because decision making is part of all administrative functions, effective leaders must be adept at this skill (Kowalski, 2013). Individuals occupying mid-level management positions often rely on established policies to guide their actions, making what Lunnenburg and Ornstein (2012, p. 136) call "programmed decisions." Kasten and Ashbaugh (1988) found that whereas routine programmed decisions required discretion, enforcing existing policy is less challenging than the creative problem solving and complex decision making that executives engage in when facing professional dilemmas. Unlike routine decisions, a dilemma is a predicament for which there is no clear solution, unclear or nonexistent policy, and typically no precedent (Hoy & Tarter, 2008). Executives at the highest level of the organizational hierarchy frequently face dilemmas (Agor, 1985).

Like CEOs in major organizations, school superintendents frequently face dilemmas (Touchton & Acker-Hocevar, 2011). Limited resources, relations with elected boards, conflicting community values, teacher performance issues, and curriculum changes are just a few examples of such challenges (Noppe, Yager, Webb, & Sheng, 2013). Dilemmas faced by superintendents often stem from political and external forces that manifest through state and federal mandates. Dilemmas require creative thinking and may cause discrepancies between the superintendents' values and the organization's expectations. Superintendents are committed to following the rules of the organization, a belief system called the "standard administrative orientation" (Langlois, 2004, p. 78). Experienced superintendents understand the difficulties associated with resolving dilemmas and develop mechanisms for coping with this uncertainty (Langlois, 2004). In fact, superintendents must learn to accept ambiguity and conflict (Litchka, Fenzel, & Polka, 2009).

The lively nature of organizations, coupled with the multiple demands placed on

Despite its limitations, however, intuition plays an important role in decision making. Ignoring the intuitive feel that something is not right can result in the implementation of bad decisions, whereas the overemphasis on data analysis suggested by the rational model can result in missed opportunities (Hayashi, 2001). Intuition may also be integral to completing complex tasks with short time horizons (Crandall, Klein, & Hoffman, 2006). Combining intuition with objective analysis can result in an effective management style in which intuitive judgments are intelligently used (Haidt, 2001).

The Influence of Context

Regardless of which approach is used, the existing literature has long noted the importance of context as a factor in decision making. In the 1970s, Vroom and Yetton (1973) argued that the social context surrounding a decision influences its outcome and acceptance, claiming that the best approach for resolving a dilemma is dependent upon situational variables including problem complexity, time availability, leader and follower understanding, and the impact of the decision on subordinates. Argyris and Schön (1974) suggested a possible link between beliefs, decisions, and intuition, as individuals often state that their beliefs guide their actions. However, Argyris and Schön also noted that tacit knowledge often affects decisions in ways that do not always align with those stated beliefs. More recently, Kahneman and Klein (2009), proponents of the naturalistic decision making approach, noted a link between the decision maker's experience with a particular environment and the effectiveness of the resulting decision. Salas et al. (2010) also described the level of expertise as a con

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The test is, if this were for your child, would you feel differently about the solution we are coming up with. The answer should be no. When it becomes personal, you take a broader view than you might when it is somebody else's child.

The participants noted that when facing disagreements about student issues they would often seek input from those with expertise, such as legal counsel, curriculum specialists, or other district officials. Doing so helped to ensure they would balance policy guidelines with the best interest of the students. Participant 13, noted that it is challenging to make decisions that adhere to established policies when those policies do not always effectively account for individual student needs: "How do we honor our policy and get to a situation we can stand on but allow a solution to support a child?"

The public context. The responses revealed that the participants were influenced by how they thought stakeholders would respond to their decisions. Participant 6 noted: "I am constantly thinking about how the city council is going to react." Participant 9 said: "You earn the trust of the community every day. Decisions we make cannot erode that trust."

The participants described seeking input from those who were going to be affected by their decisions, a process that Participant 13 called "360-degree decision making." They believed that doing so increased decision acceptance while decreasing mistakes. Several participants attributed negative stakeholder reactions to decisions to not gathering sufficient input. Participant 3 recalled misjudging how poorly a seemingly innocuous decision would be received: "We did not vet or educate or get feedback from every level of the organization to build understanding. The teachers misunderstood our intentions. The miscommunication snowballed. It became a big deal." Participant 4 said: "If you are going to make a good decision, and it is going to affect a lot of people, you have to make that decision with the input of a lot of people."

As boards of education represent community views, the participants said that they sometimes consulted with their boards when facing dilemmas and tried to anticipate how they would react to various proposals. The participants said that discretion was required about when to consult, because the board might have to serve as an appeals panel in student or employee discipline cases. When asked who influenced his decisions, Participant 2 responded, "My team, and all the people around me. The principals. And the board. The board forces their will. Everything I do I am thinking about what the board is going to think. They are omnipresent."

When discussing public context, the participants described satisficing behaviors, seeking workable but not necessarily ideal solutions. Participant 1 said: "There isn't just one right answer. You go through a process to come up with the best answer you can." Participant 2 commented: "You implement the solution that is the win-win." Participant 3 noted: "No matter what we do somebody isn't going to like it. There's the right decision and then there's the one the community may like more or less." Participant 5 said:

I wrote a budget plan and delivered it to the board and to a public hearing. The process of multiple steps and involving a lot of people gave us a result we could live with. We didn't necessarily like it, but we could live with it.

Consulting counts. Another theme to emerge was that the participants' decisions were influenced by the opinions of advisors, frequently district leaders and fellow superintendents. Participant 6 said: "Surround yourself with good people and listen to them." Participant 12 said: "I value input and I'm ok with disagreement. I tell my folks to not let us fall into a hole that you saw." Participant 5 said: "I try to build a strong cabinet and I tell them, 'Don't say yes to me. We will get in trouble quickly if you are all yes people.'"

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Participant 2 observed:

I always try to look at it from the approach of, “Is there a win-win?” You are wrestling for a win-win and have a mental process going on to come up with a solution. It will hit me that we could do that. Maybe it’s divine intervention. I don’t know other than it’s just there.

Participant 9 described an intuitive moment that occurred after thoughtful consideration of how to resolve performance concerns affecting two employees: “It hit me driving to work one morning [snaps fingers], we need to flip these two folks [have them switch assignments]. I was getting ready to dismiss both of them. Now, it works great.”

Participants with lengthier tenures in their districts related intuition to a compilation of learning experiences, believing that they were more intuitive as veteran superintendents. Participant 8 sa

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Several recommendations arise for practicing superintendents. First, they should seek to understand their own decision making, realizing that there are advantages to blending the rational approach with their intuition. The superintendents in this study often attributed bad decisions to the failure to adequately involve others in a rational process, and in some cases, the failure to effectively utilize their intuition. Allowing time for reflection and gathering stakeholder input are helpful strategies for resolving these problems. Next, superintendents need to recognize the situational nature of dilemmas, whereby some require a rapid response whereas others demand more deliberate, methodical, and reflective action. Finally, this study illustrated that the effectiveness of decisions was affected by the involvement of quality advisors. Therefore, superintendents need to of be superdemand

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Large numbers of novice teachers leave education or their original school site at alarming rates. The highest rate of teacher attrition occurs in the first three years of teaching in the United States (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2010) reports that nationwide, 12% of new teachers (with one to three years of experience) left the profession within two years, and 23% left the profession within five years (NCES, 2015). Of the teachers surveyed in 2007 in the United States, another 10% changed schools the following school year. The National Center for Educational Statistics also found that certain subject areas—such as math, science, and special education—are more difficult to staff (Esch et al., 2005). Furthermore, this study noted that low-performing schools have higher proportions of underprepared and/or novice teachers than their higher-performing counterparts.

The negative outcomes caused by the high turnover rate among novice teachers in the United States (e.g., transition and recruitment costs) seem grave when coupled with the large

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Teacher Turnover and the Loss of Human Capital

Compelling evidence shows that teacher turnover depletes fiscal and human resources. The expenses accrued from teacher attrition are substantial, although with some variation among districts and states. Estimates of turnover costs per teacher range from \$10,000 to \$18,300. In 2007 The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) estimated the total annual costs of district turnover costs to be \$7.2 billion (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 2007), whereas a more recent study in 2014 found the annual costs to be \$2.2 billion.³

The school site costs associated with the voluntary turnover and migration of teachers certainly pose numerous problems in education (Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; NCTAF, 2010; Shockley, Guglielmino, & Watlington, 2006). It is known that turnover costs reduce human and fiscal resources for site- and district-level administrators, further taxing an already overburdened system (Texas Center for Educational Research, 2000). Sites disburse fiscal and human resources each time a new teacher is added on staff, which is particularly problematic for urban public schools that each year lose 20% of their teachers.

Teacher turnover is further exacerbated by the emphasis on narrowing student learning gaps by ensuring the retention of high-performing teachers. Researchers such as Darling-Hammond (2000) have stated that well-prepared teachers can be a stronger influence on student achievement than a student's background. However, the achievement gaps between the highest and lowest performing students persist (Haycock, 2001), and one factor may indeed be a teaching quality gap (Useem, Offenber, & Farley, 2007) aggravated by a yearly influx of novice teachers. As Haycock (1998) notes, turnover in some schools, particularly urban schools, contributes to such inequity.

Based on the negative effects of turnover, heightened concerns about employee retention, and the loss of human capital due in part to the retirement of baby boomers, in the next section we discuss additional reasons for which some employees stay and others leave (Van Dyk, 2012).

Predictors of Turnover

A strong predictor of student performance is teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rockoff, 2004). Schools with students with the highest need appear to endure the greatest teacher attrition (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2008). This problem has become more pronounced since 1994 (NCTAF, 2010), particularly for novice teachers. Researchers have primarily focused on the demographic characteristics of teachers who exit the field as well as on relevant predictive characteristics of the schools they work in and the students they work with.

Billingsly (1993) found that one of the most common problems is an inaccurate view of teacher responsibilities, that is, a disconnection between perceived and actual teacher duties. Additional research has found that teachers who are the least experienced (Boe et al., 2008; Guarino, Santibañez, & Daley, 2006) as well as the most academically able (based on college entrance scores) leave the profession at higher rates (Billingsley, 1993; Feng, 2005; Murnane et al., 1991). Murnane et al. (1991) and Borman and Dowling (2008) list the following

See <https://all4ed.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/PathToEquity.pdf>.

demographic characteristics of novice teachers who leave education: They are predominately young, female, and Caucasian secondary teachers without graduate degrees who teach in specialized areas such as special education, math, or science. Men over 35 years of age who work in secondary schools and previously worked in another industry also leave education at relatively higher rates (Eberhard et al., 2000).

School site conditions in urban schools, private schools, and schools with high rates of disciplinary problems and large numbers of English language learners have also been identified as factors that facilitate novice teacher turnover (Feng, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005; Ro

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Further studies discovered that employees with higher levels of embeddedness found other job options less desirable (Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman, 2011).

JE is shown to be a robust predictor of retention among a multitude of professions and diverse groups of employees, such as law enforcement and military officers; informational technology workers; hospital, retail, and bank employees; and collegiate coaches (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Results from a meta-analytic review of job embeddedness in 65 studies on JE uncovered that the link between JE and turnover is stronger in females (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012).

If applied to the education field, the JE construct may provide an innovative approach to explaining why novice teachers leave, and it may also suggest the changes necessary to bolster the intention to stay. This study examines the question: How does JE predict novice teacher retention?

Method

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of JE as a predictor of novice teacher retention in the K-12 public school setting. This study examined the relationship between teacher attrition and JE by building on prior research in organizational management. We sent surveys to two groups of potential respondents: current and former novice K-12 teachers in three Central California school districts. Two of the districts surveyed are located in rural, agricultural areas, and one in a suburban region in Central California. We identified teachers with fewer than five years of teaching experience who were hired between 2006 and 2010 and sent surveys to 500 currently employed K-12 teachers who had been working for their district for less than 5 years. A total of 128 usable surveys were returned (26% return rate). Surveys were also sent to an additional 100 novice teachers who had voluntarily left one of these three districts during that same period. Of these, 15 usable surveys were returned, resulting in a 15% return rate.

Instrumentation

JE is “a broad constellation of influences on employee retention” (Mitchell et al., 2001b, p. 1104). Mitchell et al. (2001a) developed a 42-item survey in Likert-type, fill-in-the-blank, and yes/no format to measure the different facets of JE. Survey items focus on the respondents’ fit into the organization’s culture, their linkages to coworkers and members of the community, and the sacrifices they would make if they left. Total scores indicate the degree of JE, which is calculated by computing the mean of the six aspects of the overall construct (Mitchell et al., 2001a).

Each district’s Human Resources provided two lists of novice teachers (Stayers and Leavers). Each of the novice teachers was sent a copy of the embeddedness survey (see Appendix A) with items adjusted to the past tense to accommodate the Leavers. Each of the teachers in both groups was contacted multiple times with the incentive of a gift card provided

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Figure 3. Novice Teacher Job Embeddedness

Results

Based on years of research in organizational management, JE may help explain why some individuals remain in their organization rather than leaving for other positions. Due to the high attrition and mobility rate for novice teachers, this study asked whether JE can help predict novice teacher retention. Our hypothesis was that JE would be significantly higher f

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We analyzed the relationships among the four sub-tests and ran correlations among all four dimensions. The results are reported in Appendix C. The relationship between Community Fit and Organizational Fit is statistically significant but modest ($p = .05$), as is the relationship between Community Sacrifice and Community Fit ($p = .01$). The most robust correlation is between the Organizational Fit and Organizational Sacrifice dimensions ($p = .01$). The correlation values suggest that the items associated with each subcategory measure different characteristics.

Our hypothesis was that JE would be significantly higher for Stayers than for Leavers. We calculated means and standard deviations by sub-scale for responses by Stayers and Leavers

Implications for Practice

In a recent study, teacher attrition and mobility data showed that 7% of novice teachers surveyed left the profession and another 13% moved to another school (Goldring, Taie, & Riddles, 2014). Research points to a higher rate of departure for teachers with fewer than five years of

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APPENDIX B:

Means and Standard Deviations for OrgFit, ComFit, OrgSac, and ComSac for Stayers and Leavers

DV	Stayers		Leavers		Total	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
OrgFit	44	5.1	39	8.0	44	5.6
ComFit	22	3	18	5.6	21	3.5
OrgSac	39	5.6	38	7	39	5.8
ComSac	21	3.2	68	18	26	15.8

APPENDIX C:

Correlation Between 4 Dimensions of Job Embeddedness

Variable	OrgFit	ComFit	OrgSac	ComSac
OrgFit	1			
ComFit	.180*	1		
OrgSac	.669**	.197*	1	
ComSac	-.130	-.221**	.085	1

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX D:

Summary of Univariate Results for Job Embeddedness in Relationship to Stayers and Leavers

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
OrgFit	328.224	1	328.224	11.162	.001
Error	4146.238	141	29.406		
ComFit	148.300	1	148.300	13.083	.000
Error	1598.330	141	11.336		
OrgSac	26.140	1	26.140	.780	.379
Error	4724.517	141	33.507		
ComSac	29877.280	1	29877.280	726.510	.000
Error	5798.538	141	41.124		

Note. SS = sum of squares; MS = mean squares.

Section Two: Leadership Development

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**An Examination of K-5 Principal Time and Tasks to Improve
Leadership Practice**

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Abstract

This study highlights the high rates of attrition among school leaders that result from increased demands on school principals. This article reports on a unique university and school district partnership that worked together in action-based, community-engaged research to address the time allocation and tasks in the daily life of principals. The findings highlight the complex and changing roles in the daily work of school principals. Moreover, this study serves as a model for community engagement and exemplifies how universities and districts can work together to improve school leadership.

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Literature Review

The Changing Role of Principals

The role of the principal has been evolving over the years. The concept of the principal as a building manager has given way to a model in which the principal is an aspirational leader, a team builder, a coach, and an agent of visionary change (Alvoid & Black, 2014). There have been increasing layers of responsibilities for principals (Cooley & Shen, 2003). Wells (2013, p. 335) observes:

Across America, principals are charged with leading schools with diminished resources, increased expectations for student achievement, changing demographics, and increased accountability and connectivity, often referred to as “24/7” access from central office personnel, parents, students and school board members.

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Support

With regard to time management, experience may help. Research shows that time spent on administrative tasks decreases by roughly 13% as principals gain more experience (Hornig, Klasik, & Loeb, 2010). This may be due to the fact that principals with longer tenure in the same schools appear to delegate more (Grissom, Loeb, & Hajime, 2013). This information indicates that principals require supports from all levels including parent leaders, administrative assistants, assistant principals, resource teachers, school leaders, and district leaders. Newer principals have reported that sometimes they do not feel adequately supported in their roles by their school districts (Alvoid, 2014). Support from superintendents is important for all principals, but it is especially important for principals who have less experience in their current school districts (Chang, Leach, & Anderman, 2015).

Professional Development

Building leadership capacity in others requires effort, unique insight, and explicit skills. Specific training and support systems can allow principals to perform more effectively. It is important for districts to develop systems and policies that will give principals the authority and support that they need to appropriately train their staff, and that will also provide principals with ongoing opportunities for feedback and development (Wells, 2013).

Slater (2008) discusses the importance of training principals in the methods of building capacity, which require the principal to share leadership with others. School reform may be achieved and sustained more effectively when improvement is not dependent on one person but is a shared responsibility among staff, students, and parents.

Technology to Assist Principal Time Schedules

The Northwestern University School of Education has developed electronic applications that capture the activities and allocation of time across workdays. One such tool, the Principal Experience Sampling Method, instructs principals to use handheld computers to report the activities they are performing any time the device beeps during the day. Another web-based tool called The End of the Day Log captures how school leaders allocate their time across nine leadership domains: building operations, finances, community or parent relations, school district functions, student affairs, personnel issues, planning/setting goals, instructional leadership, and professional growth. Using a calendar interface, school leaders report how much time they spent on each domain during each hour of the school day (Northwestern University, 2017). This tool helps leaders to be aware of their actions and to better allocate their time. Often, principals are not able to pinpoint what they have done when they sit down and reflect at the end of the day. With the vast array of activities, interruptions, and outside influences they experience at work, many principals may see their day as a blur.

Principal Activities

Camburn et al. (2014) conceived of principal leadership practice as a series of actions taken by principals to influence people, processes, and organizational structures. According to these

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scholars, principals exercise influence through nine domains of responsibility: (a) building operations, (b) finances, (c) community or parent relations, (d) school district functions, (e) student affairs, (f) personnel issues, (g) planning and setting goals, (h) instructional leadership, and (i) professional growth. Further, they organized the domains into five broad areas: school management, instructional leadership, planning and setting goals, boundary spanning, and personal development (Camburn et al., 2014).

Grissom, Loeb, and Master (2013) found that principals spent an average of 12.7% of their time on instruction-related activities. Brief classroom walkthroughs were the most common activity, accounting for 5.4% of principals' time use; formally evaluating teachers accounted for 1.8% of principals' time; informally coaching teachers to improve their instruction occupied 0.5% of their time; and 2.1% of their time was spent developing the educational program and evaluating the school curriculum.

Marshall (2008, p. 18) indicates that principals perform many different roles, namely:

- ! Mission: Giving staff members and students a clear sense of direction.
- ! Climate: Making the school a safe place that runs smoothly.
- ! Alignment: Meshing curriculum and assessments with state standards.
- ! Resources: Getting teachers the tools they need to be effective.
- ! Instruction: Nurturing the best possible teaching in every classroom.
- ! Hiring: Using every vacancy to bring in excellent teachers.
- ! Interim assessments: Using data to continuously improve teaching.
- ! Collaboration: Fostering constant sharing of ideas and resources.
- ! Results: Keeping supervision, professional development, and teams focused on outcomes.
- ! Parents: Maximizing family support of students' education.

Because there is no consensus about the roles and responsibilities of the principal, school leaders are often overwhelmed by the possibility of having to do it all. According to Alvoid (2014, p. 3), "These changing expectations, coupled with insufficient training and support, have led many principals to the conclusion that the job is no longer sustainable."

Methodology

The study took a multi-phased approach to provide better insight into the demands elementary principals face and the way they allocate their time on daily activities in a school district near a state university on the West Coast. The district is a suburban, middle-sized K-12 public school system. The demographics indicate that 60% of the students are Hispanic, and 25% are English learners. In addition, there are many students in poverty in this district, with more than half the students qualifying for free and reduced lunch and 10% considered homeless.

The team of researchers set out to gather qualitative and quantitative information from 18 K-5 principals currently working in the North County School District. Eleven of the 18 principals completed the survey. The team organized quantitative survey data by the number of hours per week that each principal spent on named tasks and calculated the mean scores. They also identified trends in hours spent on certain tasks.

The graduate student researchers collected qualitative data by shadowing four elementary principals during their school workday. The researchers carried clipboards with a research-based list of principal tasks, and they put a check mark on the chart every five minutes to indicate the

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task the principal was engaged in and the time duration. Based on these observations, the team developed a frequency chart showing the principals' activities.

Additional qualitative data were gathered through interviews with six principals. The team analyzed the qualitative data to look for recurring themes in the time allocation and tasks of the K-5 principals. It was then analyzed, coded, and triangulated with data derived from the survey and from shadowing to determine patterns and themes.

Table 1
Tools and Analysis Used for Data Collection

Data Collected	<i>n</i>	Tools	Analysis
Survey	11	Digital survey with open response	Tally chart, median score
Shadowing	4	Task check-off sheet	Frequenc

Table 2
Top 10 Time-Consuming Tasks for K-5 Principals

Task	Hrs/wk
Fulfilling special education requirements (e.g. meeting with parents, compliance).	8.5
Developing relationships with students	7.6
Developing and monitoring a safe school environment	6.8
Preparing or conducting classroom observations/walk-throughs	6.5
Managing student services (e.g. records, reporting, activities)	6.3
Supervising students (e.g. lunch duty)	5.8
Using data to inform instruction	5.7
Preparing, implementing, and administering standardized tests	5.4
Developing an educational program across the school	4.9
Email, fax, call, or paperwork when topic or recipient is uncertain	4.5

Note. $N = 11$.

In the survey, principals reported very high numbers of hours spent on tasks. After totaling the estimated hours for each task, weekly work hours for the principals ranged from a low of 83.1 to a high of 207.5. The average estimated time that principals indicated they worked per week was 163.3 hours—that is, a 32.7-hour workday! This perception was uniformly present. If one were to assume a 40-hour work week for the principals, the 163-hour work week estimation was more than four times that amount. Overall, there was a sense of massive amounts of workload and the pressing need to address a large variety of tasks each day. The survey data were culled from personal perception and may present a confounding variable in this study.

On the other side of the scale, principals spent the least amount of time on the following ten items.

Table 3
Ten Least Time-Consuming Tasks for K-5 Principals

Task	Hrs/wk
Communicating with district for resources	2.3
Fundraising	2.1
Engaging in self-improvement	2.1
Personal time	1.9
Networking/interacting	1.8
Counseling staff on interpersonal relations	1.7
Interacting with staff on non-school topics	1.7
Working with the local community	1.6
Planning supplementary programs	1.4
Counseling out teachers	.7
Teaching students	.5

Note. $N = 11$. The survey data were possibly skewed by respondent #8 who listed either 5, 10, or 15 hours a week for nearly all 43 tasks except Developing Relationships, for which the respondent indicated 30 hours a week. Because of the small number of participants, respondent #8 was left in the sample, but a closer look at each item with #8 w

Organizational leadership. Under the theme of organizational leadership, networking with other principals was the most frequently observed task (8 times). However, networking with principals was one of the least-demanding tasks indicated on the survey, ranking 36 out of 43 tasks.

Instructional leadership. Planning or facilitating professional development was a highly observed skill (11 times) in instructional leadership. One principal was clearly involved in teacher observation during the shadowing, and this skill was reported seven times on that occasion.

Program development. Three principals were involved in program development in specifically planning after school or summer school programs during the shadowing experience (for a total of 20 times). One principal was involved in developing a program across the school (7 times). Program development, a category that incorporated several types of programs, was the most frequently observed activity of the four principals (see Table 4). In the principal survey, program development was in the top 10 time-consuming tasks, ranking ninth.

Internal relations. All principals were observed conducting classroom walk-throughs during the shadowing (11). Principals engaged in a variety of internal relations during the shadowing, being observed in nearly every category. In the survey, developing relationships with students was the second highest priority, with an estimated 7.6 hours per week.

External relations. There were only two total external relationships observed, and both were with district offices. This contrasts to the comments made in the interviews, where the time spent on district initiatives was perceived to be high. It could be that these interactions were not scheduled on the days of the shadowing so that observers could see the activities principals engaged in with students, teachers, and around the site.

Other. Two principals were engaged in emails, calls, or paperwork for a total of 10 observations. From the interviews, it seems that principals respond to emails and phone calls after hours. They also take paperwork home.

No activity observed. There were tasks that no principals were observed doing. Many of these are seasonal or are required only in certain contexts. These are:

- ! Student testing
- ! Attendance issues
- ! Coaching teachers
- ! Teaching students
- ! Evaluating curriculum
- ! Counseling staff
- ! Interacting with external community/organizations
- ! Communicating on district resources
- ! Fundraising

Table 4
Shadowing Summary

		A	B	C	D	Total
						29
	Managing student Services (e.g., records, reporting, activities)				2	2
	Managing student discipline		5		3	8
	Supervising students (e.g., lunch duty)	2				2
	Managing schedules (for the school, not personal schedule)	1			1	2
	Fulfilling compliance requirements and paperwork (not including special education)					0
	Preparing, implementing and administering standardized tests					0
	Managing students attendance-related activities					0
	Fulfilling special education requirements (e.g., meeting with parents, compliance)	5			10	15
Organizational Management						24

	development					
3h	Using data to inform instruction			1		1
Program Development						36
4a	Utilizing school meetings (e.g., School Site Council, committees, staff meetings)	2			1	3

7d	Engaging in self-improvement/professional development					0
TOTAL		40	34	37	44	155

Note. Four principals (A–D) were observed. A tally mark was made every five minutes to document the activity underway.

Summary. Principals were engaged in a variety of activities across all tasks of the job. The most activity was seen in the areas of program development and internal relations. The most frequent observations were planning programs, planning professional development, and planning/conducting classroom walkthroughs.

Interviews

Introduction. Six participants were randomly selected for an interview among 18 K-5 principals in the North County School District. The interviews included eight prompts, and they ranged between seven and 37 minutes. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and there was no identifying information connected to them. The interview questions were:

1. What's the best part of your day?
2. What typically takes up most of your time?
3. About how many classrooms do you visit each week?
4. What does a classroom visit, formal or informal, look like to you?
5. Outside of the contracted school day, how much time do you spend on job-related tasks, and what are they?
6. Tell me about the types of interruptions, positive or negative, you encounter on a day-to-day basis.
7. What dictates your time and tasks that you feel you have little control over?
8. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about your time and tasks at work?

Data and Analysis

Visibility on Campus

Overall, the interviews revealed that the principals were splitting their time between many different tasks and roles. When asked about the best part of their day, all participants mentioned some form of interaction with students, parents, or teachers. These principals love people, and especially students! Principal 4 said: “Because my favorite part of education was teaching, I love it when I’m actually interacting with the kids.” Visibility on campus before school, during recess/lunch, and after school were important, but the principals also prioritized classroom visits, as this is where they said they would get the opportunity to see the students learning. All the principals indicated that they visited “every classroom, every week” at least with an informal drop-in. Two principals shared their system to ensure they would make it into each classroom every week. Principal 5 said: “It is important for me to see what’s going on in the classroom. That is the most important part of the day: the teaching and the learning.” Being visible to parents, teachers, and students was something that every principal valued, and they indicated

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they might spend as much as three hours per day on campus interacting with students at recess, lunch, drop-off, and pick-up times.

External Forces

Principals know to expect the unexpected. Principal 2 said: “The positive thing about this job is that every day is different.” Visibility and an open-door policy added to the interruptions. However, none of the principals spoke of drop-in visits in a negative way, and many noted that those visits were helpful in reducing the amount of emails or more formal meetings because of the ability to address more quickly the needs of the student, teacher, or parent.

All principals spoke of the burden of outside forces taking away time. Everything from district initiatives to student discipline had to be accommodated, but at the price of doing less in instructional leadership or developing internal relationships.

Supportive Teams

All of the principals indicated the benefit of having support and how they split the work between themselves and other professionals. Student discipline was not something that all principals discussed; however, the three that mentioned it noted that the support staff (counselors, psychologists, and community liaisons) made a big difference. Principals who encountered a higher number of student behavior issues had larger populations of special needs children, including some with emotional and behavior disorders. These students seemed to require extensive support from the principals, both in and out of the classroom.

Completing Paperwork

In the interviews, the principals indicated that most of their time was taken with paperwork and clerical tasks. This result is in contrast to the surveys, where special education took up most of the principals’ time. Many principals found that clerical and managerial tasks prevented them from spending the amount of time they would have liked to spend in the classrooms, with students and teachers. Principal 3 said: “There’s the instructional leadership part and then there’s the managerial piece of it and what I think right now is that the managerial piece takes up most of the time.” Principal 6 said: “Paperwork is part of the job and it needs to be done, it just takes a lot of your time.” It could be that the special education meetings and reports require significant time as well. There is also an indication that there is a significant number of district meetings that may or may not be urgent and that, however, principals are required to attend. Principal 5 said: “If you are going to pull me out, for whatever, we know it's going to be needed. It's going to be necessary. It's going to be meaningful.” As principals strive to be visible on campus and present in the classrooms, off-campus meetings hinder their goals.

Long Workdays

When asked about additional work hours spent outside of the job site, some principals reported “limiting” that additional time to two to three hours, sometimes leaving work unfinished. Others

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Knows less than teachers on special assignments about curriculum	Some groups are problematic	Compliance issues for the district need streamlining	District sends surveys, documents, and changes	Lots of clerical work, including evaluations of documents		All need tools and support
Community involvement, outside agencies				Trust me to do my job	Build relationships	Build trust and relationships

Note. N = 6.

Triangulation of Data

Introduction

The combination of surveys, shadowing, and interviews produced rich data to better understand the time allocation and tasks of K-5 principals in the North County School District. Given the small sample of participants selected from just one school district, triangulating the data may lead to more confidence in the results.

Discussion

In this study, the principals indicated in all forms of data collections that special education programs, student behavior, and meetings took up a vast amount of their time. In some schools, these tasks might be delegated; in others, the principal was assisted by a counselor, psychologist, or outside agencies. The mandates of special education in particular were seen to be large and of high priority.

The principals also indicated that their relationship with internal stakeholders, particularly students, was very important to them. They felt that being visible and spending time with students was not only imperative but gave them great joy and pleasure.

The principals were observed spending time on program development. One principal interview indicated that the district office had new departments that asked principals to respond to new initiatives. The time spent on program development and the district-wide expansion of programs may be connected. There was an overarching sense that to leave the site for district office meetings, principals wanted to have a very compelling reason. They like to be visible and responsive on their site. Further investigation is needed in this area.

School paperwork is not typically done during the school day, which is a time when principals like to be visible. Most principals stay at school late or take the paperwork home with them to complete.

The principals like to go into classrooms, and one even mentioned missing being a teacher. However, in this school district there was no indication of any opportunity for principals to teach students.

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Table 6
Data Triangulation by Data Collection Tool and Tasks

	Special Education	Relationships with students	District office needs	Program development	Teaching students
Survey	X	X	X	X	0
Interview	X	X	X	0	0
Shadowing	X	X	0	X	0

Findings

This study was conducted to answer the research question: What tasks and timelines do K-5 principals in the North County School District engage in during work? The results were drawn from K-5 principals who completed a survey, participated in an interview, and were shadowed by Educational Administration master’s students. The school district was interested in finding out why some principals were experiencing stress over the time requirements and the tasks in their jobs. This is a summary of the key findings :

1. The contexts and experiences of the principals vary greatly from school to school.
2. All principals put a high priority on students, visiting classes, and being visible on campus.
3. The perception from principals is that they work around the clock...and more!
4. Principals spend the most amount of time complying with special education mandates, special education student behavior, and special education meetings.
5. All principals work additional hours to finish paperwork that cannot be completed during school hours.
6. Principals want district department initiatives to be streamlined and to require fewer off-campus meetings.
7. Principals vary in their abilities to create work systems that enhance job efficiency.
8. Principals want ongoing support.

The findings indicate that multiple settings affect the principals’ workload; that the principals have varied skills; and that district office demands require additional support, especially in the area of special education.

Limitations

The limitations affected the way the data were analyzed; the list of the top and bottom 10 time-consuming activities can help get a sense of the items that took up the most time, but it does not necessarily indicate how much time.

Further Areas of Research

The findings from the study indicate the need for further research on principal's tasks and time allocation to be used as a foundation for decisions that may support principals who feel stressed and overworked. Two questions that need to be addressed are:

1. What is the impact and benefit of district initiatives on school principals and their sites?
2. What strategies and resources for reducing principal tasks can be gleaned from research?

Summary

This research recruited Educational Administration master's level students to gather data on the time allocation and tasks of K-5 principals using surveys, interviews, and shadowing. The results vary and may be confounded by some responses, but overall they indicate that not all schools have the same demands on their principals, nor do all principals have the same organizational and time-management skills. A deeper awareness of the strains associated with the role of the principal and of the role of the school district office leadership in supporting or hindering the principals' tasks and time allocation may increase the likelihood that principals will be content on the job, have balance in their lives, and remain in their positions longer.

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**Do Something That Scares You Each Day:
The Role of Self-Efficacy in Preparing School Leaders**

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between the leadership readiness beliefs of perspective school leaders and the efficacy-building experiences in which they participated during university preparation programs. I developed and administered a survey to 176 prospective school leaders during the final months of their preliminary administrative credential preparation programs. I found a moderate positive correlation between the number of efficacy-building experiences in which students took part and the leadership readiness that they reported. Based on these results, this article offers specific recommendations for university programs that desire to best prepare their students through efficacy-based training.

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As a new leader, I arrived at my school site each day and told myself that I would confront my fear of new challenges at least one time during that day. If I encountered that task first thing, I gave myself permission to delay subsequent challenges when possible. In time, I came to realize I was leaning on solid research for success in school leadership. However, the list of demands placed upon today's leaders is longer than it was for me, and it continues to grow (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Fisher, 2011). Among other responsibilities, our school leaders are expected to transform instructional practices for diverse learners, foster inclusive cultures, meet the social and emotional needs of students and staff, develop coalitions that engage families and community partners, optimize fiscal resources, and respond to crises as they develop. Indeed, a newly appointed school principal is tasked with considerably different work than the retiring principal that he or she replaces. Complex tasks, often occurring simultaneously, require leaders to constantly rethink their roles, modify their responsibilities, and build new relationships (Davis et al., 2005; Dimmock & Hattie, 1996).

Although alternative methods for credentialing are available in some states, most school leaders continue to prepare through university programs. Critics have called for reform to these programs for many years (English, 2006; Levine, 2005; Murphy, 2006; Teitel, 2006), and some progress has been made with the revision of professional standards. Updated standards can serve to align expectations within and across programs, but they alone are not sufficient to ensure that

progressed. This is similar to what happens with successful and struggling schools and districts. Once school teams have been identified as achieving, they are praised for their performance, which begets higher goals and greater performance; conversely, schools that are identified as failing seldom seem to get beyond the label and continue to fail year after year.

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I asked candidates for the preliminary administrative services credential about their preparation programs. I selected five state university campuses for participation because they were well established, offered competitively priced programs, and were the top producers of educational leaders in the region of study at the time. In addition, graduates of these programs work in a wide variety of school settings. Although the requirements of these programs are specific to the state of California, prospective school leaders in other states participate in similar courses of study. This study sought to include all students who were within six months of completing their preliminary credential program. I administered a paper-and-pencil survey during face-to-face encounters in all classes that granted access. The convenience sample included 176 respondents.

Designed to explore the efficacy beliefs of individuals enrolled in preliminary administrative preparation programs, items in the survey measured two general constructs: leadership readiness (dependent variable) and efficacy-building experiences (independent variable). The first construct, leadership readiness, was developed to measure leadership efficacy. Efficacy is not a global trait but rather a measure of an individual's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a given domain (Bandura, 2006). Therefore, an efficacy survey in a given area, such as school leadership, must first identify the traits or behaviors that are required for success in that domain. It did not matter whether a respondent believed that he or she would actually have the opportunity to demonstrate a certain leadership behavior; rather, what mattered in the construct of efficacy was the individual's belief that he or she would be able to demonstrate the behavior. I also carefully worded my questions to avoid confusion with the construct of motivation: The survey did not ask participants to state whether they were eager to demonstrate the behavior, but rather whether they believed they could do so when needed.

Efficacy is measured by determining what is necessary to be successful in a particular domain of functioning (Bandura, 2006), and for this purpose I used the McREL Balanced Leadership Framework (Waters & Cameron, 2007). This meta-analysis identifies 21 leadership responsibilities that are correlated to student achievement. These responsibilities are grouped into three domains: focus, magnitude, and purposeful community.

The first domain, focus, designates the set of behaviors by which effective leaders ensure that the efforts of the school are aimed at developing practices that promote positive outcomes for students. The second domain, magnitude, includes responsibilities that support a substantial shift in the underlying value systems whereby schools operate rather than changes in isolated procedures or practices. Magnitude is represented by a break with the past as opposed to an extension of old practices: This is change that is outside of existing paradigms and that requires new knowledge and a new set of skills to implement. The third domain, purposeful community, is the cultivation of a school community that is bonded together by a common goal that can only be achieved if all members participate.

In the survey, these responsibilities were formulated into statements, and prospective school leaders were asked to consider whether they believed they would be able to successfully execute them. The statements were designed to provide information about overall perceptions of leadership readiness as well as readiness within the subdomains of focus, magnitude, and purposeful community. The data were measured by a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree (Table 1).

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each scale, I also computed subscale statistics; however, there was minimal variation among subscale scores, and therefore these data will not be the focus of this article.

To examine the proposed correlation between leadership readiness and efficacy-building experiences, I conducted additional statistical procedures. Arithmetic means were compared for the items in each construct to examine response trends across several items. For each participant, scores for leadership readiness and efficacy-building experiences were evaluated for association, outliers, and possible restriction of range (Coladarci, Cobb, Minium, & Clarke, 2008). Next, I calculated the Pearson product moment correlation (Pearson r) to determine whether there was a significant correlation between leadership readiness and efficacy-building experiences.

One might argue that this research does not adequately measure what participants really know about how to succeed as school leaders. Indeed, this study's purpose was not to measure the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of prospective leaders; rather, it was designed to evaluate

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Table 2

Leadership Readiness: Means for Scale and Subscales

Scale	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Leadership Readiness	4.32	.464	-1.172
Subscales			
Purposeful Community	4.42	.464	-.974
Magnitude	4.31	.478	-1.182
Focus	4.17	.547	-1.054

The second construct, efficacy-building experiences, was measured by asking participants to report on the types of experiences that research has linked to efficacy in which they took part during their administrative credential programs (Bandura, 1977). Participants noted whether they had experienced the activity and circled the number of occurrences for each item. Subscales were created based on the four types of experiences outlined in the research: performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and affective state.

With the exception of the verbal persuasion subscale ($M = 2.34$), means for the subscales were identical; although dispersion and skewness varied across subscales, calculated means for performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, and affective state were each found to equal 1.77. The mean for efficacy-building experiences in its entirety was 1.90 ($SD = .474$). The distribution for these values has a small degree of negative skew ($-.145$). These values are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

Efficacy-Building Experiences: Means for Scale and Subscales

Scale	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Efficacy Building Experiences	1.90	.474	-.145
Subscales			
Performance accomplishments	1.77	.587	.123
Vicarious experiences	1.77	.641	-.523
Verbal persuasion	2.34	.665	-.896
Affective state			

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readiness and efficacy-building experiences. Although stronger correlations were found for performance accomplishments ($r = .227$) and verbal persuasion ($r = .227$) compared to affective state ($r = .190$) and vicarious experiences ($r = .135$), all of these values were weaker than was the association between leadership readiness and the entirety of efficacy-building experiences (Table 4).

Table 4
Correlations Between Leadership Readiness and Efficacy-Building Experience, Overall and Between Subscales (N = 176)

	Efficacy-Building Experiences (Overall)	Subscales			
		Performance Accomplishments	Vicarious Experiences	Verbal Persuasion	Affective State
Leadership Readiness	.268*	.227*	.135*	.227*	.190*

Note. * $p < .01$.

Implications

The negative skew in all items of the leadership readiness scale demonstrates that participants tended to rate themselves in the higher portions of the scale, and responses of “somewhat likely” and “highly likely” were common. This skew can be attributed to several causes, including the bias often present in self-reported measures. It is also conceivable that responses were negatively skewed because it is difficult to fully grasp the challenge of educational leadership until one has actually worked as a school leader. During administrative fieldwork, participants are asked to complete tasks that simulate the responsibilities of a school leader, but this happens in a controlled environment with low stakes and limited competing responsibilities; therefore, these experiences cannot truly replicate the job participants seek.

Fieldwork tasks do prepare administrative credential candidates by developing an understanding of the types of responsibilities that they will take on, but they do not replicate the “overloaded circuits” that cause very capable individuals to underperform and consequently question their own abilities (Hallowell, 2005, p. 54). In fact, there is evidence in these data to support this proposition. Although only six of the participants in this study reported that they had already assumed leadership positions, these individuals reported a marginally lower mean leadership readiness than their peers who had not yet assumed the role of a school leader. One would expect that these six respondents would demonstrate more readiness, considering that they already serve in this capacity. However, it is conceivable that current administrators reported less readiness because they have a better understanding of the high-stress environment in which these responsibilities must be carried out.

Responses to questions pertaining to efficacy-building experiences also yielded meaningful information about administrative credential programs. Distributions for individual questions in this scale yielded significant skew, but skewness for the overall scale ($-.145$) and subscales was not as pronounced as it was for items in the leadership readiness scale.

Respondents had the opportunity to develop efficacy through a large number of performance accomplishments by executing administrative tasks. Typical fieldwork activities for credential candidates include tasks such as creating a recess duty schedule, planning a

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presentation for staff development, or mentoring a new teacher in a specific area of need. Although it did not focus specifically on such activities, this study found that participants had many opportunities to perform procedural duties but markedly fewer opportunities to develop their skills by taking on more complex responsibilities. The types of performance accomplishments that were reported in this study tended toward managerial functions (carrying out policies and procedures) and were deficient in the kinds of activities that can promote the development of instructional leadership. This finding was foreseeable, considering that instructional leadership is a relatively recent transformation to the role of the educational leader.

As expected, the greatest number of efficacy-building experiences was found in the area of verbal persuasion (subscale $M = 2.59$). Participants had many opportunities to hear advice from their course instructors and mentors. These results are consistent with Bandura's (1977) research, which found verbal persuasion to be the preferred method by which those who train organizational leaders attempt to build efficacy. Bandura also reported, however, that this was

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correlated to leadership readiness, but none of the subscales demonstrated a correlation as strong as that which was found overall. Therefore, it appears that it is the sum of these experiences that matters more than any specific domain of activities. This is consistent with Bandura's (1977) research, which alluded to the effects of combining verbal persuasion with performance experiences. Further, Bandura stated that an individual's affective state mattered to the extent that it either aided or hindered involvement in other types of experiences.

This finding also calls into question the manner in which fieldwork often focuses on individual tasks in isolation. If the sum of experiences is more important than individual tasks, and the job of a school leader is characterized by an environment in which multiple duties must be accomplished simultaneously, then fieldwork should require a similar experience.

This research demonstrates that the areas of responsibility for education leaders are interrelated and should not be considered in isolation. Theoretical constructs often present frameworks for leaders as a collection of discrete actions. However, these data reinforce the practical reality that the responsibilities of a school leader are not so linear or discrete. The work of a school leader is not performed as a series of isolated actions, detached from each other. Educational leadership involves multiple tasks that depend upon one another, happen simultaneously, and affect each other's outcome. The data in this study support the proposition that leadership readiness is developed in sum, rather than in specific domains.

The results of this study form the basis for several recommendations for the preparation of educational leaders. The main finding of this study is that the inclusion of a greater number of efficacy-building experiences into administrative credential programs will increase the leadership readiness of our future leaders. A systematic program that explicitly includes efficacy-building experiences (performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and affective state) into field experiences and coursework will provide future school leaders with better training for their positions.

The impetus for this research was a criticism of educational leadership programs that has permeated both the literature and the public dialogue. This study posited that programs that thaliterat u3 of[(hel32.9(p2.8tloped iJ 9(p2.8taJ 9(p2

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Manuscript Submission Information



Volume 30: July 30th, 2018 deadline

Call for Papers of the Journal of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development*

The Journal of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development* is a refereed journal published since 1988 by the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration (CAPEA). This 30th volume, published in partnership with CAPEA's national affiliate, ICPEL Publications, and the International Council of Professors of Educational Leadership [formerly the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA)], is produced in a digital format as an Open Education Resource (OER) intended for worldwide readership, and it also includes a print-on-demand option. The Journal is listed in the *Current Index to Journals in Education* (CIJE). The editors welcome contributions that focus on promising practices and on ways to improve educational leadership preparation programs.

The Journal pays close attention to current issues, such as schools' local control and the surrender of public education to market business interests. Reversing policy trends that have been on the rise since 1983 with the release of the seminal US Department of Education report *A Nation at Risk*, a political consensus appears to be developing that calls for the devolution of public education policy decision making from the federal level to the state and local level. At the same time, a parallel and seemingly contradictory effort for the privatization and marketization of elementary, secondary, and higher public institutions is also on the rise. The Journal invites articles on public policies that have an impact on leadership preparation as well as articles addressing national policies and trends such as anti-immigration and anti-union efforts that affect schools and communities. The Journal seeks articles that provide creatively surprising perspectives and solutions to said trends.

The Journal also pursues the publication of articles documenting new and creative alternatives to traditional pedagogies and leadership approaches, as well as bold organizational models that counter dominant discourses and threats such as the destruction of public education and the end of secular public education in the country. We follow five organizing focus areas:

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**Protocols for Submission to the *Journal of Educational Leadership and Administration:*
*Teaching and Program Development***

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