The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

International Journal for Professional Educators

Models of Leadership

The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

The *Bulletin*, the official journal of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, promotes professional and personal growth of members through publication of their writings.

The *Bulletin* invites materials appropriate to the Society's Purposes: position papers, applied and/or data-based research, and other articles on announced themes or other topics of interest to educators; letters to the editor; viewpoints; book reviews; annotated bibliographies; poetry; and graphic arts.

Prose manuscripts for the *Bulletin*, a refereed journal, are reviewed by the Editorial Board and the Society editorial staff. Selection is based on relevance of the topics addressed, accuracy and validity, contribution to the professional literature, originality, quality of writing, and adherence to Submission Guidelines (see page 55). Editorial Board members evaluate each submission's focus, organization, development, readability, and accessibility to the general audience of *Bulletin* readers. Due to the diversity of the *Bulletin* audience, material of a religious, political, or patriotic nature is not suitable for publication.

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The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

*The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International
promotes professional and personal growth of women
educators and excellence in education.*

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Members are encouraged to submit manuscripts for consideration by the *Bulletin* Editorial Board. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin* accepts Action Research, Qualitative Research, Quantitative Research, Annotated Bibliographies, Program Descriptions, Position Papers, Book Reviews, Viewpoints, Graphic Arts, Letters to the Editor, and Poetry for **print** issues (spring, fall) and **online** issues (summer, winter). Manuscripts should be focused, well organized, effectively developed, concise, and appropriate for *Bulletin* readers. The style should be direct, clear, readable, and free from gender, political, patriotic, or religious bias. For more detailed information, please refer to the Submission Guidelines on page 55 and the Submission Grid on page 56. Listed below are the suggested themes of upcoming issues.

Fall 2011 (78-1) Lifelong Learning (Print)
(Postmark deadline is June 1, 2011)

Professional Development ✦ Elder Hostel ✦ Self-directed Learning ✦ Leadership ✦ Networking ✦ Online Opportunities ✦ Returning to School ✦ Personal Balance ✦ Brain-based Research ✦ Career Changes ✦ Alternative Certifications ✦ Mentoring ✦ Writing for Publication ✦ Conference Attendance ✦ International Networking

Winter 2012 (78-2) Diverse Learners (Online)
(Postmark deadline is September 1, 2011)

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From the Editor

Leadership has been a topic of human discussion for centuries. In the *Allegory of the Cave*, Plato explored the challenges a leader faces when trying to change an organization—a concept that is explored by current authors such as John Kotter, Ken Blanchard, and Michael Fullan. In *The Analects*, Confucius argued for ethical leadership, a theme found in the modern works of Steven Covey, Robert Greenleaf, and Peter Senge. In *The Prince*, Machiavelli focused—perhaps controversially—on the practicalities and strategies of leadership, a topic explored by countless modern business gurus such as Jack Welch or Donald Trump.

Leadership theories through the ages have ranged from the *Great Man/Woman* theory that some are *born leaders* to *behavior* theories that argue that leaders can be trained and developed. *Transactional* theorists have suggested that leadership is accomplished through development of an appropriate system of rewards and punishments for followers, while *transformative* theorists have argued that leaders must motivate followers through visionary and inspirational methods. In recent years, the theory of *emotional intelligence* has been woven into leadership discussions, suggesting that self-awareness, empathy, self-confidence, and self-control are critical to a leader's success. These theories have found varied application to all areas of life—politics, sports, the military, business and industry, religion, and, of course, education.

Clearly, one might argue that educators by their very profession are leaders. The word "educate" is derived from the Latin *educere*, meaning *to draw out* or *lead out*. Whether one interprets modern education as leading others out of regular thinking or drawing out a person's innate intelligence, educators surely lead in both the practical and theoretical sense—planning and implementing lessons and activities that help others learn and contributing to the future by assisting the current generation. Thus, the theme of *models of leadership* is particularly appropriate for the journal of DKG, an organization of women educators that promotes leadership in so many ways.

The articles in this issue explore models of leadership through varied lenses. Learn about a licensing program for teacher leaders, how school librarians can function as teacher leaders, and how educators in one school worked to develop student leaders. Ponder researchers' findings about the impact of mentoring for female leaders and about the effects of leadership on innovative program implementation. Consider practical advice for leading change or finding balance. In selections focused on DKG leadership, be inspired by founder Annie Webb Blanton's leadership journey and learn about the many leadership resources in *H3*, the latest volume of DKG history. Finally, enjoy informative, general-interest articles that suggest the challenges of teaching science to blind students (which can inform instruction of all students!) and that detail how principals must change to accommodate new visions of teacher evaluation.

Whether you believe that leadership is who you are…or what you do….or a combination of nature and nurture, this issue provides great food for thought about models of leadership in education—and hopefully, about who you want to be as an educator and a leader.

Judith R. Merz, Ed.D.
Editor

Licensing Teacher Leaders: The Kansas Model

By Kathy Martin and Pamela Coleman

Career teachers in Kansas who have for many years taken on leadership roles without recognition now have the legal opportunity to achieve licensure endorsement as teacher leaders. The authors describe the 2-year period used to develop standards and regulations for such an endorsement, which is also being considered by other states both from the preparation lens and licensure portability. The article shares the standards, assessments, and research resources.

Schools are transforming into collaborative, decision-making environments where teachers are leaders, collaborating with administrators, parents, and others and thus complementing the existing leadership within the school community. A task force report from the School Leadership for the 21st Century Initiative (2001) indicated that "teachers are essential to reform and that they possess a body of knowledge yet to be exploited" (Gabriel, 2005, p. 2). Teacher leaders can make significant contributions to the climate and culture of the school community. This article describes how educators in Kansas have defined and institutionalized the role of teacher leader—formal or informal—through certification innovation.

For many years, schools across the country have functioned in a linear model with the administrator managing, thus making teachers voiceless as employees and powerless in decisions focused on student achievement and the organizational health of the school. In Kansas, data suggested that teachers leave the profession due largely to challenging working conditions and a lack of desired leadership advancement opportunities other than that of the principalship (New Teacher Center, 2008). Such data spurred the state's efforts to provide recognition for teacher leaders.

"The term teacher leader refers to that set of skills demonstrated by teachers who continue to teach students but also have an influence that extends beyond their own classrooms to others within their own school and elsewhere" (Danielson, 2006, p. 12). In Kansas, data from a statewide survey of educators suggested that teachers were constantly seeking career path opportunities that would allow for leadership recognition and related work experience without leaving the classroom or becoming a building principal. The new Kansas endorsement will allow those individuals who achieve it to lead the way in building the framework of a community of learners internally in the school and externally in the larger school community.

The Kansas Journey to Certifying Teacher Leaders

During the winter of 2008, Kansas embarked on an extraordinary journey for the sole purpose of defining and writing a legally effective regulation for a licensure endorsement honoring career teacher leaders. This action was a result of two commissions, the Teaching

in Kansas Commission and the Kansas Education Leadership Commission, working concurrently with a number of professional stakeholder groups such as teachers, curriculum leaders, administrators, higher-education faculty, community business leaders, legislators, research experts, and students.

The members of each commission embraced the philosophy that teachers are the single most important factor in students' success in classrooms; thus, they sought to strengthen, support, and grow the profession of teaching in Kansas. The commissions assigned a design subcommittee to develop teacher-leader standards, regulatory language, and a teacher-leader performance-based assessment during the course of a year, including periodic benchmark checks on progress. All Kansas professional organizations were kept abreast of progress through a web-based environment with public access, as well as by reports from representatives of the professional organizations participating in each design group.

The Roles of Teacher Leaders

Currently, there are many teacher leaders serving in a variety of roles. A number of researchers have studied and discussed current and future roles as the teacher-leader notion continues to be formalized legally. For example, Gabriel (2005) argued that "teacher leaders act as coaches and mentors observing classrooms so that instruction can be refined and best practices implemented in an attempt to realize a vision or to 'reculture' the environment" (p. 3). Lieberman and Miller (2004) conducted a comprehensive review of teacher-leader literature over the past two decades to come to the following conclusion for teacher-leader roles in three promising new areas: "teacher as researcher, teacher as scholar, and teacher as mentor" (p. 29). The teacher leader as researcher studies direct-teaching practice and participates in reflection that leads to improvement of classroom practices. The teacher leader as scholar guides reflective conversations and offers critiques of practice that are grounded in research, thus leaving colleagues feeling far more efficacious in their practice. The teacher leader in the role of mentor or coach allows for making one's work public and assists in the reconstruction of learning and teaching methodology. Clearly, teacher-leader roles will be as varied and unique as are school environments across the state. The Kansas Teacher Leader Standards seek to bring consistency in these roles.

The Kansas' Teacher Leader Standards

The standards reflect a traditional shift from outputs influencing student performance to outputs reflecting the results of adults learning from colleagues. They are as follows:

Standard 1: The teacher leader is able to apply strategies of adult learning across teacher leadership activities.

Standard 2: The teacher leader is able to advance the professional skills of colleagues by demonstrating and applying expertise in observational skills and in providing quality feedback in order to support reflective practice focused on improving curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Standard 3: The teacher leader is able to improve the quality of colleagues' collaboration and interaction with families and other stakeholders.

Standard 4: The teacher leader is able to initiate and facilitate colleagues' design and implementation of action research and analysis of data for individual and group decision making.

Standard 5: The teacher leader is able to develop and support collaborative teams and promote collegial interactions that improve the effectiveness of practice.

Standard 6: The teacher leader is able to identify and assess opportunities for educational improvement, and advocate effectively for them within and beyond the school community. (Kansas State Department of Education, pp. 200-202).

The Kansas Teacher Leadership, Education, and Development Assessment (K-TLEAD)

Kansas regulations require attainment of a satisfactory score on an assessment of content knowledge to add any new endorsement, and the endorsement for teacher leader is no exception. Because such an assessment did not exist, Kansas State Department of Education personnel contracted with the Educational Testing Service (ETS) to facilitate, with Kansas stakeholders, the design of a performance-based licensure assessment. In most cases, passing a content assessment would grant the candidate an initial 2-year license, with passage of a performance assessment required to gain the 5-year professional license. However, the assessment designed is a first-of-its-kind, evidence-centered assessment that measures both content and performance knowledge. As a result, candidates who pass the assessment will earn a professional-level school specialist license referred to as a *Teacher Leader endorsement.*

The assessment consists of six tasks that measure the eight standards. Completed over a period of time, the tasks contain both writing prompts and requirements for the collection of a variety of artifacts that become evidence to meet each standard(s). For example, to address Standard 1, *ability to apply strategies of adult learning across teacher leadership activities*, the candidate must identify a group of at least three teachers in different stages of career development with whom he or she worked on a specific project. The assessment task involves analysis of how the candidate applied strategies of adult learning in leadership of this group. Evidence includes a 6-page written analysis of the group, strategies used, and the impact of these strategies; written feedback from at least two of the colleagues detailing how they grew professionally as a result of the strategies used by the candidate; and a representative page from documentation of an adult strategy or of the plan for the project (ETS, 2010). Specific descriptions of all six tasks may be found in a link listed in the appendix.

What also sets this assessment apart from the traditional ETS Praxis product is the fact that the assessment is fully transparent. Candidates know what the tasks are ahead of time and can be working toward completing them while finishing a master's level program. For a limited period of time, currently functioning teacher leaders who meet the regulatory requirements for the license can take the assessment without completing an approved college program. Establishing a dual pathway to the new endorsement was essential, because there were teachers who believed they met the competencies by virtue of their prior experiences. The dual pathway opportunity is

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Pamela Coleman, Ed.S., has worked in education for 34 years as a teacher, administrator, and university instructor. Pamela served as the president of the Alpha Eta Chapter (KS) of DKG from 1994-96. She is currently the Director of Teacher Education and Licensure at the Kansas State Department of Education. pcoleman@ksde.org

scheduled to sunset in 2014, thus allowing sufficient time for all those teachers currently functioning in a leadership capacity to obtain the endorsement.

To date, 95 practicing teacher leaders from a group of 300 applicants have met the regulatory requirements and have successfully completed the performance assessment to obtain the teacher-leader licensure endorsement. The Teachers College at Emporia State University, a regent institution, and Baker University, a private institution, have submitted teacher-leadership licensure programs, which have been approved for implementation in the fall of 2011.

Conclusion

The appendix provides links to a number of resources, such as the unabridged standards, the legal regulatory language, and the evidence-centered assessment. The assessment is proprietary (ETS, 2010), but the standards and regulations are available for use. Educators desiring to establish a teacher-leader license in their state will find that a comprehensive process engaging all stakeholders is essential and that honoring teacher leaders through licensure is a positive and empowering step.

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Appendix: Links for Additional Information
http://www.ksde.org/Default.aspx?tabid=3652

> This link provides an overview of the process for developing the teacher-leader assessment.

http://www.ksde.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=3wX%2fAJRzxIk%3d&tabid=1648

> This link provides the regulations and standards for Kansas Educators. Teacher-leader regulations are cited on page 14. Teacher-leader standards begin on page 200.

http://www.ksde.org/Default.aspx?tabid=4098

> The teacher-leader assessment and scoring rubrics are contained in this link.

http://www.ksde.org/teacherleader

> This is a quick link to all related materials.

School Librarians as Teacher Leaders

By Audrey P. Church

School librarians of the 21st century have much to offer as they fulfill the roles defined for them by the 2009 Empowering Learners: Guidelines for School Library Programs. *The 21st-century school librarian serves as teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, program administrator, and leader within the school. The author suggests that today's school librarian, as an active member of the school's instructional staff, is a leader for teaching and learning and provides concrete examples of library leadership in action.*

In 2009, the American Association of School Librarians published updated guidelines for school library programs that work to shatter stereotypes of school librarians sitting behind circulation desks, stamping date-due slips, and maintaining perfect quiet in the library. Today's school librarian is a master teacher, collaborating with classroom teachers across content areas to ensure that students become effective users of ideas and information. In fact, today's school librarian "empowers students to be critical thinkers, enthusiastic readers, skillful researchers, and ethical users of information" (*Empowering Learners*, 2009, p. 8). According to the newest national guidelines for the field, the 2009 *Empowering Learners: Guidelines for School Library Programs*, today's school librarian is a teacher, an instructional partner, an information specialist, a program administrator, and a leader (pp. 16-18). In each of these roles, the 21st-century school librarian displays leadership within the school.

Teacher

As a teacher, the school librarian leads by teaching students to become information literate—to be able to access, evaluate, and use information. As classroom teachers necessarily focus on subject-area content to ensure that students master key concepts in the curriculum, the school librarian focuses on process, realizing that students who also master the process of learning are better prepared for future study, college, and careers. The school librarian is a leader in teaching 21st-century skills of inquiry, problem solving, and critical thinking. The school librarian leads as a teacher.

Assignment: Students will research various health topics for a report for health class.

Library leadership in action: If students are to be successful 21st-century learners, they must be able to access information effectively and evaluate it critically. The librarian takes the lead role in helping students to brainstorm terms that they will search on the Web, develop criteria by which they will judge the Web sites that they find, and extract information from these sites to use in the successful completion of their reports.

Instructional Partner

As an instructional partner, the school librarian takes the initiative to collaborate with classroom teachers to provide authentic learning experiences for students. The librarian partners with the classroom teacher to integrate instruction in 21st-century skills with content curriculum. The librarian models teamwork, is proactive, and coplans, coteaches, and coevaluates student work with classroom teacher colleagues. The librarian leads as an instructional partner.

Assignment: Students will prepare a report on a country for their social studies class.

Library leadership in action: Partnering with the classroom teacher, the librarian suggests that, rather than doing the traditional *country report*, students create a more authentic product: a travel brochure that would convince classmates to travel to the student's country of choice. The librarian coplans the unit with the classroom teacher, coteaches the research portions and the technology required to create the actual brochure, and coevaluates both the product and the process.

Information Specialist

As an information specialist, the school librarian leads in the effective integration and use of information technology. She provides access to free, quality resources from the Web and encourages the use of subscription databases. As an information leader in the school, the librarian provides staff development for teachers in the use of the online catalog, subscription databases, Web 2.0 communication tools, and various presentation tools. She connects students and teachers to appropriate resources at the time of need and investigates new technologies to determine if they can be utilized to improve instruction. The librarian leads as an information specialist.

Assignment: Students must write book reports for their language arts class.

Library leadership in action: The librarian suggests that the book reports be done in blog format. Students have the opportunity to use writing skills and keyboarding skills. They utilize Web 2.0 communication skills as they post their summaries and ratings of their books to the blog portion of the library Web site. A follow-up language arts assignment is to log in to the blog and post a comment to a classmate's book report.

Program Administrator

As a program administrator, the school librarian leads by providing a stimulating learning environment both in the physical library space and virtually. She works to develop a collection of fiction, nonfiction, print, and electronic resources that support both free reading and the curriculum of the school. She works to implement policies that ensure equitable access to the library, its resources, and its services, and she uses data to be sure that she is effectively administering a library program that supports the overall mission and goals of the school. The librarian leads as a program administrator.

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Assignment: Standardized test data show that students in the school consistently score low in vocabulary and word analysis.

Library leadership in action: The librarian participates in the disaggregation of test data and takes a leadership role in the focus to improve student learning in the area of identified weakness. She purchases additional library resources to increase students' vocabulary and word analysis skills and targets library instruction in these areas, focusing on dictionary and thesaurus usage as well as additional discussion of words from stories read aloud. The library Web site features a "word of the day."

Leader

As a leader, the school librarian is an instructional leader of the school community, serving on various committees—the school improvement committee, the technology integration committee, and the literacy committee. The school librarian offers a very unique perspective because he or she works with every student and every teacher in the school, gaining a cross-grade, cross-discipline, and cross-content perspective.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that when the librarian participates fully in the instructional program of the school, taking an active leadership role, student learning is stronger (Lance, Hamilton-Pennell, Rodney, Petersen, & Sitter, 1999; Lance, Rodney, & Hamilton-Pennell, 2000, 2005; Lance, Rodney, & Russell, 2007; Smith, 2001, 2006; Todd, Kuhlthau, & OELMA, 2004). The librarian should be viewed as a teacher leader and, indeed, as a leader within the school. Not to take advantage of this highly qualified instructional staff member is to fail to utilize human resources to the fullest. Librarians contribute to their schools and to student learning as teachers, instructional partners, information specialists, program administrators, and, most importantly, as leaders.

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Leadership Development for Adolescents: A Case Study

By Amie Cox

How can educators aid high school students in developing the leadership skills they need to contribute successfully in both academic and societal arenas? How can educators help them navigate more aptly through life's pitfalls to become accomplished citizens? This article chronicles one high school staff's approach to helping students explore models of leadership through direct experience in a Leadership Academy program.

An *a cappella* version of rock band Aerosmith's *Dream On* inspired by a recent episode of the TV program *Glee* jockeyed for audible space with a discussion on current sandal trends and what movie should be shown first on a travel bus filled with high school students bound for Gettysburg last June. I sat among other educators in the front of the bus, while in the back were 12 students, 8 girls and 4 boys, representing the Leadership Academy program at North Montgomery High School, a school located in rural Montgomery County, 40 miles northwest of Indianapolis, Indiana, serving a student body of about 650 students. North Montgomery received a four-star rating, the highest given by the Indiana Department of Education, for the 2009-2010 school year. The 12 students were not quite half of the membership of the Leadership Academy, its number first blossoming to 50 students before settling down to a core group of about 25. Although I am not an educator in their school, I was asked to be a last-minute-emergency female chaperone and was excited to observe the premiere implementation of this educational reward aspect of the program.

School was already officially out for the school year, but these students were excited to travel to Gettysburg to experience how events there manifested as results of great men like President Abraham Lincoln with his Gettysburg Address and other various military leaders belonging to both the Union and Confederate troops. Such an experience for the Leadership Academy members was the pay-off for completing several mandatory requirements: participation in school leadership projects, attendance at 85% of meetings, and completion of a self-evaluation, a book report, or an interview of someone whom the students perceived as a leader. Students had also been asked to attend several leadership seminars after school throughout the year.

The Leadership Academy evolved into its current state from an annual 1-day event offered under a previous administrator. Current North Montgomery High School Assistant Principal Michael Cox hoped the Academy would target students who were not already in leadership roles but who could benefit their school and community, but the program was open to all students. "I hoped to attract students with leadership potential but with no other way to showcase it," said Cox (personal communication, October 2010).

Once the program was underway, students began learning about leadership through guest speakers who discussed leadership in business, school, and community settings. In

meetings or seminars, students discussed the merits of single characteristics of leadership such as focus, vision, determination, and servitude. Additionally, the Leadership Academy participants implemented a fundraiser to assist local clothing and food pantries. In their research for the project, they discovered that there was a bigger need for promotion between the pantries and the people in the community who needed aid.

In a vision summit, members decided they wanted the Academy to have more focus on two issues. First, they established a school-directed goal of promoting unity and school pride in a common school culture with which all groups of students within the school could identify. Second, they established a community-directed goal for the creation of a marketing agency for service providers. This goal was a product of Academy members' previous work for a food and clothing pantry.

Because Cox believes that ultimately students learn most effectively by being placed in leadership positions and by hands-on experience, students operate within selected vision committees for working toward their identified goals for the school year. At the end of the year, members evaluate the efficiency of their committees and also analyze their own leadership skills throughout the experience. This focus on internal leadership was well stated by Cox: "It's their Leadership Academy. It is what they want it to be" (personal communication, October 2010).

Models of Leadership

In the field of education, all educators have had various bosses or leaders with different styles—benevolent, autocratically-scary, or somewhere in between. Whitehead (2009), however, linked positive influence and facilitation with the *authentic* leadership model and leadership styles. He warned that no matter what leadership style an individual uses, he or she can still exhibit qualities that range from power-hungry, negative, transactional, and narcissistic to transformational, personalized, and charismatic. Ultimately, there are hundreds of definitions of leadership and thousands of leadership positions that require many leadership styles. Ciulla (2004), professor at the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond, offered this most striking definition: "Leadership is not a person or a position. It is a complex moral relationship between people based on trust, obligation, commitment, emotion, and a shared vision of the good" (p. xv). An effective leader successfully uses skills to motivate others towards a common goal in a process that is similar to a positive dance of giving and taking toward an identified intention.

With so many leadership styles and models, how can educators guide high school students toward the more positive styles? Within a leadership program such as North Montgomery's Leadership Academy, students can explore which styles work most comfortably for them. Through their experiences in a vision committee, they may see that their leadership does not motivate the other students and can then practice another approach (or approaches) during the course of the school year.

Amie Cox is a certified Media Specialist at Crawfordsville High School in Indiana. She is currently pursuing a postgraduate Specialist degree at Indiana University in Bloomington. Amie just completed a term as president (2008-2010) of Iota Chapter (IN) and is currently an advisor and webmaster. In April 2010, she presented at the Alpha Epsilon state conference regarding her implementation of a Lilly Endowment Teacher Creativity grant. She is also a member of the Indiana Library Federation and the Association of Indiana Media Educators. acox@cville.k12.in.us

Ownership Equals Affiliation

Another key to leadership is to shepherd others into having a sense of ownership toward a common vision. Such ownership helps produce motivation and engagement with achieving an identified goal. For high school students, this ownership translates to affiliation. In general, if students belong to something at school, they develop a more positive attitude toward school-related activities and academics. Whitehead (2009) identified the product of student affiliation as contribution: "Student involvement in matters of high importance substantially improves affiliation and engenders a sense of authentic contribution. Additionally, the process of working on improvement activities is in itself an important leadership development method" (p. 862).

> *Another key to leadership is to shepherd others into having a sense of ownership toward a common vision....For high school students, this ownership translates to affiliation.*

In addition to focusing on students developing a common agenda, organizers of the Leadership Academy believed an increase in affiliation by North Montgomery High School students might help close the social gulf between the highest-achieving leaders and the lowest-achieving students, resulting in a higher rate of success among the student body overall. The Leadership Academy offers another, more subtle vehicle by which students can develop skills besides the obvious forms of student government or athletics. Some other clubs may offer opportunities as well but may be of limited interest due to content or because they are already led by established student leaders; clubs may even be unintentionally biased toward a certain gender or ethnicity. The Academy offers an avenue for leadership development for those high school students who might not be *ultrachic*, *ultrasocial*, and *ultrasmart*.

Adolescents Need Power, Too

Freeman (1994) examined student leaders, at-risk students, and troubled students to determine what motivates students beyond conforming to current social trends or the ability to obtain things with money. She asserted that students are motivated by power, which they ultimately use to make career choices as they transition out of high school. While they are still in school, the power motivation emerges in student behavior. Freeman stated "…student leaders have found acceptable methods of expressing their power needs" (p. 664). Other students not so positively inclined express their need for power in delinquency behavior such as vandalism, petty theft, and use of drugs and alcohol.

Cox recognizes this power motivation and concurs, noting "vandalism is almost always a result of a frustrated or angry student showing power in the only way it is available to them. I think this is also the case with chronic attendance and defiance" (personal communication, October 2010). As assistant principal, he handles disciplinary issues. In this role, he knows which students might be too deeply embedded in embracing negative behaviors and which ones can potentially be recruited to find power in positive expression. Such a need to engage students who may be wavering between positive and negative expression of power is a strong motivation for high school personnel to implement an effective student leadership program.

Implications for the Future

Evaluating the success of the Leadership Academy at North Montgomery High School in engaging such borderline students with potential leadership qualities is at this time premature due to its infancy. Cox plans to evaluate the program with qualitative data after the 3-year mark in summer 2012. In the meantime, he does evaluate the program informally at the end of each school year to determine if seminar subjects, scheduled events, and meeting agendas have been effective.

Philadelphia is the hoped-for destination for the culminating event of the Leadership Academy in summer 2011. Even if a repeat performance *a cappella* style does not take place as the bus rolls down the road, maybe students will have the Glee-inspired electronic hit *The Power!* by rock group Snap! stuck in their heads as they know, with effective leadership development through their Academy experience, they definitely have the power.

> " *The Leadership Academy offers another, more subtle vehicle by which students can develop skills besides the obvious forms of student government or athletics.* "

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Mentoring Female Administrators Toward Leadership Success

By Denise P. Dunbar and Ruth T. Kinnersley

This research investigated the mentoring experiences of female administrators. Specifically, the researchers surveyed female higher-education administrators in Tennessee to determine if there were differences in their perceptions of the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship based on different mentoring approaches. In general, the findings of this study supported earlier research and confirmed the importance of mentoring relationships for women who aspire to administrative positions. These findings suggested that institutions of higher education, professional associations, and graduate programs that prepare women to become administrators should develop methods to promote a culture of mentoring.

Introduction

Mentoring, the process whereby a more experienced individual provides counsel, guidance, and assistance to another person, serves an essential function in helping younger or newer employees to develop leadership skills and advance within the organization (Lanna-Lipton, 2007). The relationship benefits both the mentee, who learns needed skills and gains experience to be successful, and the mentor, who has the satisfaction of passing on his or her wisdom and experience and of developing new talent (Jonson, 2002).

Women still lag behind men in gaining leadership positions in both K-12 and higher education. In the United States, the majority of teachers are female, but just under 22% of school superintendents are female, with more than half of them serving in small or rural districts (Glass & Franceschini, 2007). In higher education, women occupy approximately 40% of the faculty and senior staff positions. However, only 21% of college and university presidencies are held by women (Hamilton, 2004). Those women who aspire to administrative positions would do well to have a mentor to help them succeed; in fact, female administrators have indicated that having a mentor was important to their success (Giddis, 2003).

A variety of factors influence the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship. Mentoring works best when the mentor and mentee share many similarities, such as values, background, experiences, and outlook (Allen, Day, & Lentz, 2005; Sullivan, 2004). For women, this may mean finding other women to serve as mentors, and for minorities, it may mean finding someone of the same ethnicity. Traditional mentoring typically involves a hierarchical relationship: it is comprised of a senior person who advises and guides a junior or less-experienced colleague. It can be difficult for a woman new to administration to find a suitable mentor of a higher rank, especially if she seeks a female mentor. Research

suggests, however, that a peer (a more experienced colleague who is not of higher rank than the mentee, such as an administrator in a nearby school or district) can also be an effective mentor (Gerdes, 2003). Finally, mentoring relationships that develop informally, out of natural interactions between the mentor and the mentee, are generally more beneficial than formal relationships, where the mentor and mentee are matched through a mentoring program (Allen et al., 2005; Scandura & Williams, 2001).

The more that is known about effective mentoring relationships for female administrators, the more likely it is that women aspiring to administrative positions can develop productive mentoring experiences. Additionally, educational institutions, professional associations, graduate programs, and current administrators can encourage and support the development of mentoring relationships so that women have greater opportunities to succeed as administrators.

Research Questions

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the mentoring experiences of female administrators in higher education. Specifically, the researchers sought to determine the differences in perception of the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship that existed among female higher-education administrators in Tennessee who experienced different mentoring approaches. The following research questions guided the study:

1. What percentage of female administrators in higher education in Tennessee report one or more mentoring relationships during their careers in higher-education administration?
2. To what extent do significant differences exist in the perceptions of female-administrator mentees who experienced formal mentoring versus those who experienced informal mentoring regarding the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship?
3. Did factors such as race, gender, or respective rank of the mentor and mentee affect the mentee's perception of the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship?
4. What are the perceptions of female administrators in higher education regarding how mentoring helped to prepare them for leadership?

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Related Research

Researchers continue to help discover and define what contributes to a successful mentoring experience for women in administration. Several factors of mentoring may influence the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship, especially the type of mentoring provided and how well the mentoring prepares the mentee for leadership. Additional factors that can impact the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship for women include an informally developed mentoring relationship, having a same-gender mentor (and for minorities, a same-ethnicity mentor), and having a mentor of a higher rank than the mentee. This section briefly reviews the research on these different aspects of the

mentoring relationship.

How do mentors assist their mentees in becoming successful? Kram (1988) identified two basic areas: career development and psychosocial development. Many subsequent researchers acknowledged these areas as basic to the mentoring experience (Cox, 2004; Hytrek, 2000). Additionally, Schott (2004) noted that female administrators who had mentors had higher levels of confidence in their leadership abilities.

According to Kram (1988), the career-related functions that mentors provide include sponsorship, exposure and visibility within the institution, coaching, protection from criticism and from the consequences of mistakes, and challenging work assignments in order to help mentees prepare for advancement. Psychosocial functions include helping in developing the mentee's self-confidence and sense of competence and providing acceptance and confirmation, counseling, role modeling, and friendship (Kram, 1988).

Informal mentoring relationships, which develop through mutual selection of mentor and mentee, often have at the base of the relationship fundamental similarities between the mentor and mentee. The mentor may see in the mentee a reminder of herself as she was at the beginning of her own career and recognize the opportunity to help someone else become successful. A similarity of personality or leadership style may exist that leads to open communication and a supportive atmosphere. Ragins and Cotton (1999) found that mentees in informal mentoring relationships found their mentors to be more effective than mentees in formal mentoring programs. Informal mentoring relationships have longer lasting and greater effects upon mentee development than do formal mentoring relationships (McGregor & Tweed, 2002), both in the psychosocial areas of emotional bonding and support and in career development (Blake-Beard, 2001).

Several researchers have suggested that having a female mentor is important to women and that the female mentor can make the mentoring relationship more effective (Lowe, 2003; Wolverton, 2002). A female mentor is perceived to be a role model and guide who can better relate to the experiences of the female mentee. However, some studies indicated that there is no significant difference between male and female mentors in the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship (Cook, 1999; Smith, Smith, & Markham, 2000). Studies that examined minority women and their mentoring experiences reported that (a) a very small number of minority women administrators are available for study, and (b) these women generally have a mentor who is not female or is not of their same ethnicity. However, Lowe (2003) noted that the small number of minority women studied preferred a mentor of the same ethnicity and perceived the mentoring relationship to be more effective when the mentor and mentee were of the same ethnicity.

Mentors with a higher rank in the organization (or another organization) are in an ideal position for providing their mentees with career development. In the absence of (or in addition to) a higher-ranking individual to serve as mentor, women have been flexible and inventive in finding other relationships that provide mentoring functions. In particular, women who had male mentors tended to rely also on female peers, role models, and support networks (Gerdes, 2003; Giddis, 2003).

Those who have attained leadership positions have attested to the benefits of having mentors. In Bynum's (2000) study, female leaders advised aspiring leaders to find a mentor. Having a mentor was rated the most important success factor in developing leadership characteristics; in fact, some women recommended having "several mentors" (Bynum, 2000, p. 87). Giddis (2003) found that female administrators believed mentoring was a critical factor in their career success. Female chief academic officers interviewed by

Moreton (2001) advised women who aspired to administrative positions to seek mentors and networking relationships.

In sum, the research literature suggests that mentoring clearly helps women to achieve success in administrative positions, but it appears that the mentoring relationship is more successful when the mentor and mentee are of the same gender and ethnicity and share similar values. Mentoring relationships that provide both career development and psychosocial functions and that are developed informally also seem to be more beneficial to the mentees. The current study contributed to the body of research on mentoring by examining the perceptions of female administrators in Tennessee institutions of higher education about their mentoring experiences.

Participants in the Study

Female administrators in Tennessee institutions of higher education were contacted via email and asked to complete a survey online via SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). The administrators were identified through the *2008 Higher Education Directory*, which "contains listings of accredited, degree-granting institutions of postsecondary education in the United States" (Burke, 2008, p. vii). The sample included approximately 706 female administrators listed for the 97 institutions in Tennessee.

The participants in this study were 239 women from Tennessee higher-education institutions who responded to the survey. Of these respondents, 153 (64%) had had a mentor. The vast majority of them (132, or 86%) were Caucasian; 17 (11%) were African-American; two were Hispanic-American, and one was classified as *Other*. Although 28% of the respondents indicated that they had had one mentor, 72% of the mentees indicated that they had had more than one mentor. All the respondents were asked to consider their most significant mentoring relationship as they responded to the survey questions.

The participants were fairly balanced between those who had a female mentor (54%) and those who had a male mentor (46%). However, on the other factors, the groups were very unbalanced. Eighty-nine percent of the mentoring pairs were of the same race. Of that group, 7% were minority mentees who had a mentor who was of the same ethnicity. Eleven percent of the mentees had a mentor of a different ethnicity. Ninety percent of the mentoring relationships in this study were developed through informal means. Most mentors were of a higher rank than the mentees (91%), and most of the mentoring pairs were employed at the same institution (82%).

Procedures

The first section of the survey collected demographic information concerning the mentees and their mentors. The survey then asked the participant to respond to a series of statements about the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship and about the functions the mentor performed or opportunities the mentor provided to the mentee. Seven items assessed the degree to which the mentor and mentee shared similar values, goals, and expectations for the mentoring relationship and to what extent the mentor and mentee were a *fit* in terms of personality and the relevance of the mentor's experience and job position. Two items asked about whether the mentee believed the mentor's gender was important to the mentoring relationship, and two items asked whether the mentor's ethnicity was important. Five items addressed the career development functions identified by Kram (1988): serving as sponsor, coaching, providing protection, providing opportunities to demonstrate competence, and assigning challenging tasks. Four items addressed the psychosocial development functions

(Kram, 1988): role model, counselor, friend, and one who provided acceptance and support. The responses to these items were on a Likert scale of 1 through 5, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*.

The Kinnersley Mentoring Survey (see Appendix) was developed by the researcher after consulting a number of similar surveys addressing the mentoring experiences of women administrators (Cook, 1999; Hytrek, 2000; Lowe, 2003; Schott, 2004). It was reviewed for content validity and clarity by a panel of experts that included female faculty and researchers who held doctoral degrees and had experience with such surveys. This panel indicated that the items on the survey addressed the research questions and would provide appropriate, measurable data.

Subsequent to the review by a panel of experts, the survey was piloted with female administrators in Kentucky public universities. Thirty-four female administrators completed the survey, providing a response rate of 26%. The results of the pilot study were evaluated for reliability, and adjustments were made to the survey based on the respondents' suggestions and on the data. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the pilot study was .896. All items proved valid and reliable.

Responses to the Likert-scale items in the survey were the basis for the descriptive and quantitative data analysis for the study. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software application, version 16. One open-ended question asked the respondent to share additional observations about the mentoring experience. This question allowed participants to contribute additional information they considered important to clarify their responses or to elaborate on their mentoring experiences. This anecdotal information was not included in the data analysis but provided insight into the participants' perceptions about their mentoring experiences.

Findings

Almost two-thirds of the respondents (64%) had had a mentor. This group was overwhelmingly Caucasian (88%) and had been involved in an informal mentoring relationship (90%) with a mentor who was also Caucasian (89%). Generally, the mentor worked at the same institution (82%) and was of a higher rank than the mentee (91%). The mentees in an informal relationship perceived that their mentors provided more career-mentoring functions than did those mentees in a formal relationship. This finding supported the work of previous researchers (Blake-Beard, 2001; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

This study revealed no difference in the provision of career- or psychosocial-mentoring functions between mentees with female mentors and mentees with male mentors, which supported previous research (Hytrek, 2000; Jeruchim & Shapiro, 1992; Smith et al., 2000;). However, mentees who had female mentors perceived that their mentor's gender was important and had an impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship, which also was supported in previous research (Lowe, 2003; Wolverton, 2002). There appears to be a contradiction between these two findings. On the one hand, women believed that a female mentor is important and had an impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship, but on the items that addressed specific functions provided by mentors, there was no significant difference between male and female mentors. One possible explanation is that the survey only asked if the mentor provided specific functions; it did not provide the opportunity for the mentee to discuss the quality of the mentoring experience. Clearly, more research needs to be done in this area.

The findings in regard to same-race and cross-race mentoring pairings revealed some interesting results. Mentees whose mentor was of a different race perceived their mentoring relationships to be more effective than those with a mentor of the same race. Both this group and minority mentees who had mentors of the same race perceived that their mentors provided more career-development mentoring functions, which contradicted previous research (Smith et al., 2000). Further, this study revealed that minority mentees whose mentor was also a minority were more likely to perceive that their mentor's ethnicity had an impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship, which supported previous research (Lowe, 2003). As in previous studies, the number of minority women who participated was relatively small. More research is needed so that a clearer picture of successful mentoring relationships for minority women can be achieved.

This study revealed that mentees whose mentors were of higher rank perceived that their mentors provided more career-development functions than did mentees whose mentor was of the same or lower rank, which did not support the findings of earlier research (Jeruchim & Shapiro, 1992; Lee & Nolan, 1998). It is possible the results may be attributable to the characteristics of the sample. That is, 90% of the mentors in this study were of a higher rank than the mentee, and 82% worked at the same institution. It is thus highly likely that the mentor was the mentee's supervisor, who was uniquely positioned to provide career-mentoring functions.

Female administrators indicated that their mentoring relationships had prepared them for leadership, which supported previous research (Giddis, 2003; Schott, 2004). These findings also supported authors such as Bynum (2000) and Moreton (2001), who reported that female leaders recommended finding a mentor as a tool for advancement.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In general, the findings of this study supported earlier research and confirmed the importance of mentoring relationships for women who aspire to administrative positions. The comments of one participant expressed this: "Without the guidelines, assistance, and support of my mentor, I would not have had an easy transition to being a leader." Leaders of educational institutions at all levels need to become proactive in encouraging mentoring relationships for new administrators. Because this study indicated that the majority of female administrators found their most significant mentoring relationship through informal means, leaders of institutions should focus on developing a culture that supports and encourages the mentoring of new administrators. Such a culture would include time for developing mentoring relationships, evaluation that rewards mentors, and an expectation that mentoring is desirable.

Professional association personnel should consider mentoring programs to assist female administrators in honing their leadership skills. Additionally, professional associations could provide the means for women to find peer mentors and establish professional networks in addition to traditional, hierarchical mentoring relationships.

Leaders of institutions of higher education with programs that prepare women for careers in administration should investigate how they can provide opportunities for graduate students to find mentors in educational administration. Both formal and informal programs could be developed to maximize the potential that future female administrators will find a mentor.

Women have much to contribute to the leadership of our educational institutions; their talents and abilities should be utilized to the fullest. Women need mentors to show them the way and to help them succeed as leaders.

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Appendix: Kinnersley Mentoring Survey

The mentoring experience

Please rate your mentoring experience using the following:
"Strongly Disagree"   "Disagree"   "Neutral"   "Agree"   "Strongly Agree"
          1   2   3   4   5

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Overall the mentoring relationship was effective.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My mentor and I shared similar goals for the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My mentor and I had personalities that worked well together.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My mentor's gender was important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My mentor's ethnicity was important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My mentor and I had similar expectations (e.g., availability to meet, type of support provided) for the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My mentor's job position and experiences were highly relevant to my mentoring needs.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My mentor helped introduce me to people I wouldn't otherwise have met or worked with.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mentor provided relevant feedback to improve my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My mentor protected/supported me at times – served as a buffer.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My mentor provided opportunities for me to demonstrate my competence.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My mentor assigned challenging tasks to stimulate my professional growth.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My mentor was a role model I admired and sought to emulate.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My mentor counseled me – was someone I could trust, could talk to, and who would listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My mentor provided ongoing support, respect, and admiration for my efforts/abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My mentor was a friend as well as someone I worked with.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My mentor's gender had an impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My mentor's ethnicity had an impact on the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The mentoring relationship prepared me for leadership in administration.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Overall, I am satisfied with the mentoring relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I consider mentoring to be important to women who aspire to careers in higher education administration.	1	2	3	4	5

22. Additional comments (optional). Please elaborate about your mentoring experiences, their effectiveness, and how they prepared you for leadership.

The Effects of Leadership on Innovative Program Implementation

By Maria G. Dove and Mary Ellen Freeley

The implementation of innovative educational practices is a complex process that requires a number of variables to work concertedly to bring about desired change. School district administrators play a vital role in fostering change that leads to school success inasmuch as their leadership often affects how teachers institute new programs and execute them successfully in their classes. The researchers investigated the impact of leadership on the process of program implementation, and their findings revealed that leadership style is one of the key factors to innovative program success.

More than a decade of school improvement research has supported a wide range of characteristics that identify successful schools (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2007). However, the manner in which schools become successful often varies significantly from one school to another. Many districts have attempted to institute instructional program innovations to foster school success. Some schools are more successful than others in their implementation of novel educational practices. One of the key variables involved in program implementation is the role of leadership. As a part of this research study, the authors examined school leadership and how it fostered or hindered the success of an innovative instructional program.

School Reform and Educational Change
School administrators traditionally attempt to initiate new programs in a linear fashion, with each step systematically charted and organized (Glickman et al., 2007). However, despite careful planning and directly blueprinted courses of action, "schools are not linear systems" (Glickman et al., 2007, p. 435), and change cannot be so precisely controlled. The sheer complexity of the number of factors involved in change makes the process a most complicated endeavor. Stacey (1996) identified the comprehensive nature of organizational growth and described organizations being enhanced strongly by the integration and adaptation of internal forces and yet equally disassembled by division and isolation. In light of the complexity of efforts to effect school change, educational leaders must overcome various obstacles in order to implement effective school programs.

Leadership Approaches
In examining leadership styles in relation to effecting school change, Darling-Hammond (2009) identified competing views to advance school reform initiatives. Among the major

competing approaches are the following:

- A *bureaucratic approach* to school management and change seeks solutions that can be centralized and hierarchically administered.
- A *professional approach* seeks to invest in knowledgeable practitioners who can make sound decisions about how to shape education for the specific clients they serve.
- A *market approach* looks to school choice and competition as drivers of educational reform.
- A *democratic approach* seeks to involve students, parents, community members, and teachers in developing schools that are responsive to students' needs and interests, as well as to distinct visions of education. (Darling-Hammond, 2009, p. 46)

Darling-Hammond speculated that although there may be some benefit to both the bureaucratic and market concepts as strategies for implementing change, the elements contained in the professional and democratic approaches are vital for the challenges that school organizations now must overcome.

School administrators in varying roles, from those in central office to those in individual school buildings, play their own unique parts in the educational change process. In proposing a common framework for school reform, Goodlad (2004) recommended that authority and responsibility be decentralized to the local school; the principal, as the school leader, should develop plans following broad guidelines set by the central district office. Goodlad suggested that schools become self-directing and that practitioners involved must learn the necessary skills connected with effective reform. Unfortunately, "this capacity is lacking in most schools, largely because the principal lacks the requisite skills of group leadership" (Goodlad, 2004, pp. 276-277). This absence of capacity is largely due to the emphasis placed on training principals in instructional improvement instead of in collaborative leadership that empowers school members to engage in the decision-making process.

Leadership can significantly impact change and innovation (Fullan, 2007). In identifying the qualities of principals who successfully facilitated change, Fullan described principals as "initiators or facilitators of continuous improvements . . . in the middle of the relationship between teachers and external ideas and people" (p.155). Principals as facilitators foster innovation by working collaboratively with other school leaders, faculty, and staff to develop learning communities, which confer, oversee, and support the change process. In a study that examined the effectiveness of principals in promoting change, Cruz (2009) noted that when a principal collaborates and shares authority, school members have an increased interest in and responsibility for obtaining mutually agreed-upon objectives. The evidence suggested that distributive leadership approaches were effective in gaining school-community support.

Some administrators foster teacher leadership to promote educational reform. Moore (2008) examined how

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key administrators and teacher leaders managed change initiatives either prescribed by an outside source or initiated by their own schools. Various data sources in this 8-year study supported findings that have ramifications for educational policies and programs regarding change. In every school appraised, changes initiated from an inside source were more significant to respective school members than changes imposed from a source outside the school. Furthermore, collaborative efforts between administrators and teachers were instrumental in establishing best practices. Certain change processes were novel to each school, including the range, timeframe, and order of change implementation.

In order to combat the complexities of the change process, Fullan (2010) suggested leaders find "the smallest number of high-leverage, easy-to-understand actions that unleash stunningly powerful consequences" (p. 16). He asserted that reducing complexity eliminates program excesses that may overburden practitioners and can bolster practitioners' resolve and commitment to proposed change. Fullan purported that leaders should provide low-anxiety experiences and build upon positive outcomes instead of promoting intangible visions of school improvement. Fullan further argued that top-down leadership is ineffective and conducive to resistance to change. He identified the key elements of a leader's role, which are to "enable, facilitate, and cause peers to interact in a focused manner" (p. 36). Fullan asserted that building collective capacity among school leaders and teachers sets the condition for sustained innovation and risk taking that can improve the quality of student learning.

Method

This investigation focused on the implementation of the Dunn and Dunn Learning-Style Model (Dunn & Dunn, 1978, 1992, 1993, 1998, 1999), an innovative framework for teaching and learning, at a suburban middle school that serves students in Grades 6-8 in a public school district located in lower New York State, north of New York City. The middle-school leadership consisted of one principal and three assistant principals who shared the responsibility of supervising 139 faculty members. Each assistant principal was assigned to one grade level. The school-based reform effort to implement the Dunn and Dunn Model began during the 2006-2007 school year. This research examined the factors that initiated and fostered the process of program implementation through the end of its third year.

The case study centered on the perceptions of members in the middle-school community concerning the initiation, adoption, employment, establishment, and outcomes of the Dunn and Dunn Learning-Styles Model. The primary data for this case study were collected via in-person interviews with administrators, teachers, parents, and students associated with the middle school under study. Additional data were obtained through the analysis of class-observation field notes and checklists, electronic teacher surveys, achievement-test-score evidence, and selected photographs and videotapes.

Due to the complexity of school-wide initiatives, the researchers included interview participants at different levels of the school community in this research and employed purposive sampling (Flick, 2009). Some of the sampling was opportunistic; some interview subjects were selected by following new leads during field work. Participants were chosen with the purpose of achieving heterogeneity in subject gender, grade-level affiliation, academic discipline, leadership position, and reluctance or willingness to implement learning-style concepts. All in all, the researchers conducted a total of 19 interviews.

In devising the interview protocols, the researchers considered relevant literature and

guiding questions for this study:

1. What was the process utilized to implement the Dunn and Dunn Learning-Style Model at a suburban middle school?
   * To what extent were the principal and faculty involved in the decision to implement this model?
   * What factors facilitated the implementation process? What factors impeded the implementation process?
2. How and to what extent were the stakeholders at a suburban middle school prepared for the change process?
   * How did building administrators support teachers, parents, and students in the change process?
   * What types of professional development opportunities were available to teachers?
3. What mechanisms were found in the middle school's classrooms that addressed learning-style implementation?
   * What evidence was there of learning-style accommodations, strategies, and resources in the middle school's classrooms?

The interviews were semistructured, which capitalized on a standard set of questions but also provided flexibility to clarify information as needed (Warren, 2008).

Researchers observed a stratified random sampling of classrooms. During a 6-week period, they visited a total of 35 middle-school classes: 12 in Grade 6, 13 in Grade 7, and 10 in Grade 8. A checklist that detailed learning-style accommodations, assessments, strategies, and resources was utilized as a guide to collect field-note data. In addition, information about the classroom use of learning-style innovations was obtained through informal conversations with classroom teachers during these class visits and was documented in field notes.

In order to gather information from a wide variety of faculty, the researchers asked all teachers to complete an electronic survey. Through both closed and open-ended responses, these surveys captured information that identified and described the processes, strategies, staff-development activities, and evaluation criteria related to the implementation of learning-styles concepts in the middle school.

Photographs and videotapes allowed for the detailed recording and documentation of artifacts such as learning-style accommodations, resources, and strategies within the middle-school environment. The researchers captured these photographs and videotapes of instructional and noninstructional areas during the course of each classroom visit.

In order to improve the consistency of approach and thus the reliability of study data, one of the researchers conducted the personal interviews, observed classrooms activities, and gathered information in the field. Both of the researchers examined and analyzed the collected data, including the results of the electronic surveys.

Results

Leadership style. Goleman (2000) identified six leadership styles that can impact innovation and that became evident in review of the study data:

1. Coercive—the leader demands compliance. ("Do what I tell you.")
2. Authoritative—the leader mobilizes people toward a vision. ("Come with me.")
3. Affiliation—the leader creates harmony and builds emotional bonds. ("People come first.")

4. Democratic—the leader forges consensus through participation. ("What do you think?")
5. Pacesetting—the leader sets high standards for performance. ("Do as I do, now.")
6. Coaching—the leader develops people for the future. ("Try this.") (pp. 82-83)

Based on the research data on the Model's implementation in the middle school, the researchers discovered two leadership approaches were most utilized in the process in a joint effort by the involved district and building administrators. The first demonstrated style was *democratic*, evidenced by the way in which the Model was first introduced in the building. Before teachers were asked to implement the Model, the assistant superintendent, in her former role as Pupil Personnel Director, had conversations with special education team members and conducted workshops with teachers and students. The building principal and assistant principals used learning-style methods to conduct teacher faculty meetings. Teachers were asked informally during each introductory step, "What do you think?"

The second administrative style employed was *coaching*, aptly illustrated by the spoken words of administrators and confirmed by teachers who were asked to just "Try this." In order to deal with resistance, the middle school's administrators afforded their faculty the time to find their own personal meaning for the Model and the autonomy to make decisions in relation to the parts of the Model they implemented. According to Goleman (2000), the democratic and coaching styles can have a powerfully beneficial effect on both workplace climate and performance. Through the use of these leadership strategies, school administrators enabled teachers to implement the Model and share their vision for learning-styles instruction.

Collaborative administrative leadership. The ongoing support of the administration was a strong facilitating factor in developing successful implementation of the Model. According to Fullan (2007), both central office and building administrators are critical to the change process. Interview data clearly indicated that district and building administrators were not only involved in the change process, but they worked collaboratively with each other to effect change in the middle school. In addition, central office administrators engaged principals on specific topics and collaboratively worked to identify program strengths and challenges and to monitor progress. Similarly, middle-school administrators worked collaboratively with the assistant superintendent to review student achievement data, to determine the ongoing steps in the implementation of learning-styles instruction, to devise opportunities for effective staff development, and to evaluate the progress of the Model's employment.

Teacher leadership. Developing teacher leadership was another approach both district and building leaders advocated to showcase the Model's successes and advance the use of learning-style strategies among middle-school teachers. According to Dove and Honigsfeld (2010), teacher leadership is a fundamental practice that

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sustains and promotes new program initiatives to support student success. Moore (2008) investigated how initiatives from both external and internal sources affected school change. Data revealed that teacher leadership and collaboration surpassed the ability of outside experts to transform school practices. The promotion of teacher leadership in the middle school resulted in onsite learning-style workshops conducted by classroom teachers and other collaborative practices that furthered the implementation of learning-style strategies.

Leadership stability. Both administrators and faculty members affirmed that administrative stability was a key factor in the promotion of learning-styles approaches. Most often, program initiatives do not endure over long periods of time due to administrative turnover (Greenfield, 1995). The researchers documented through the analysis of interview data that the middle school had experienced much transition in its administrative staff over a number of years. With the multiple changes that occurred in department chairpersons and assistant principals, teachers became resistant to new programs that were instituted one year and rejected the next by a new administrator. With the reduction in administrative turnover and the onset of a more consistent building leadership, both teachers and administrators became more confident that long-term plans such as the implementation of learning-styles methods would endure.

District and building administrators collectively advanced the change process by supporting the professional growth and learning of the faculty. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) suggested that administrators "build upon teacher capacity to make informed discretionary judgments in the classroom with the students they know best" (p. 19). Because building capacity is a key element for decision-making, these leaders set long-term goals for learning-style implementation and established comprehensive professional development opportunities to assist teachers in transforming their classrooms to accommodate the learning styles of their students.

Support for professional development. The research data, particularly from the interviews, revealed that the district and building administrators were strongly committed to the Model's implementation and fostered conditions for numerous opportunities for professional development. As recommended by Dunn (1996), numerous staff development workshops, superintendent conferences, professional development days, and extended work days were earmarked specifically for acquiring skills related to the Model. In addition, teachers and parents were presented the opportunity each year to attend the annual Learning-Style Institute, a weeklong conference offering presentations by experts in the field of learning styles. Both teachers and administrators cited that faculty who attended the Institute returned to the middle school highly motivated to redesign classrooms, create resources, and alter teaching practices in alignment with learning-style ideals.

School climate and teacher collaboration. Middle-school administrators and some teachers reported an improvement in staff morale that was due to teachers having a stronger voice in school decision-making. Administrators, in particular, alluded to the school becoming more collaborative in its overall practice. From their review of a number of studies, McLaughlin and Talbert (2001) drew these conclusions concerning collaborative school cultures: "They build and manage knowledge; they create shared language and standards for practice and student outcomes; and they sustain aspects of their school culture vital to continued, consistent norms and instructional practice" (p. 150). Although growing pockets of collaborative practices among middle-school teachers existed, data revealed that administrators had yet to leverage teacher commitment and collaborative practice within and across all grade levels.

Conclusions

This research study on the effects of leadership on program implementation led to a number of conclusions. First, it should again be noted that the innovation was introduced, refined, and constantly supported over a 3-year period, affirming that change is not an event but rather a continuous process. More to the point, however, the study supported the necessity of training principals and those in leadership positions in the area of collaborative or distributive leadership so that they can, in fact, become facilitators of learning communities. Additionally, the study reinforced the concepts that internal change efforts lead to best practices and that sustained innovation is critical to improve student achievement.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the research centered on the concept of leadership style. From the data collected, the researchers concluded that the democratic and coaching styles had the greatest impact on teacher implementation of the Model. Furthermore, evidence existed to support the following factors as important to the successful implementation of the program: collaborative administrative leadership; promotion and support of teacher leadership; leadership stability; commitment to diverse, ongoing professional development; and relevant opportunities for teacher decision-making.

This study makes a positive contribution to the field in two specific areas. It serves as a resource to practitioners who are faced with the implementation of a new model of instruction at the building or district level by taking the theoretical foundations of the change process and infusing them into a real school setting. It serves also to inform those courses aimed at the preparation of future school and district leaders by offering a solidly researched case study on the change process. Prospective leadership candidates would be well served by reading the entire study to ascertain the *nuts and bolts* of effective leadership to facilitate the change process and, in particular, innovative program implementation.

Recommendations for Innovative Program Implementation

Based on the findings, analysis, and conclusions of this study, the researchers offer the following recommendations for innovative program implementation:

1. Establish a program implementation committee with a majority of teacher members to increase teacher participation and decision-making in the process.
2. Build clarity for practitioners by identifying implementation goals in ways that make proposed changes clear in terms of expectations and classroom practices.
3. Invest in ongoing professional development opportunities to build the capacity of all stakeholders.
4. Listen to resisters to understand their concerns and reasons for their opposition.
5. Promote teacher leadership and collaborative practices to enhance the success of program innovations.
6. Encourage the use of action research among teachers to gather local data on the effects of the implementation.

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Facing the Challenge of Change: Steps to Becoming an Effective Leader

By Margaret A. Trybus

*T*his position paper makes the case that all leaders need to become agents of change. The steps to becoming a change agent are analyzed, including knowing one's organization, assessing one's leadership skills, gauging people's reaction to change, learning the process of change, and making a commitment to change. The author analyzes Fullan's model of the phases of change to provide a guideline to create the change process in a variety of settings. Current and future leaders will become reflective regarding how they can develop the skills necessary to meet the challenges of change from both an organizational and individual point of view.

The ability to lead change has become a valuable skill as organizations, including schools, are required to transform in order to meet higher expectations for success. The pace of change is rapidly increasing, and the conditions to foster change are more demanding. The learning curve to become a change-agent leader, therefore, is steep and may pose challenges for individuals who seek to have organizations benefit from change even as they recognize the barriers that exist for individuals to change. How, then, does a leader prepare to be a change agent, and what steps might he or she take to become one?

Know the Organization

Leaders know the sense of urgency to change and respond to the pressure to change (Reeves, 2009). One of the first steps they must take is to assess why the change is needed and how quickly the leader must produce the change within the organization. Accountability to federal and state mandates and local district requirements to meet adequate yearly progress and improve student learning are key factors to consider. Other forms of organizational change might be localized, such as accepting a new leadership team when a new superintendent or principal takes charge. Whichever form of change is anticipated, the organization as a system has to move from *what it is* to *what it will become*, and the leader needs to anticipate how the current reality must be moved to formulate a new vision.

Senge (1990) introduced the concept of a "mental model" (p. 8), which is an assumption or a picture that influences how a leader might see the change and envision the steps necessary to take action to bring it about. "Organizations shift to a new state as a result of the new interactions and ideas" that are inherent in the change (Fullan, 2004, p. 166). Accordingly, leaders who want organizations to change must create a vision that is shared before it is implemented. "Vision refers to a picture of the future with some implicit or

explicit commentary on why people should strive to create that future" (Kotter, 1996, p. 68). The vision helps to make the change more coherent, understandable, and valuable to the organization. It sets the direction of change. Therefore, an important step to becoming a change-agent leader is to create a vision for change with those within the organization who will be charged to implement it.

Know Oneself and Self-Assess Leadership Skills

Leaping into or sustaining change also requires introspection as to what leadership qualities and skills will be necessary to reach the desired outcome. Today's leaders may not have positional power or the title of *change agent*, but they do possess the courage and passion to lead the change initiative simply because they believe in the need to change and have the skills to bring it about by working with others. They see change as a necessity and also an opportunity to experience both personal and organizational growth (Evans, 2010). Accomplishing such growth means being skilled at developing relationships of trust, communicating the change vision effectively, and empowering others to take action toward change (Fullan, 2001).

Effective change agents, in addition to being visionary, know how to stimulate people by modeling risk taking and by providing intellectual and emotional stimulation and support when followers face the challenges inherent in change. Fullan (2007) called this "leveraging leadership" (p. 44), which means paying attention to developing leadership in others for the good of the organization. Change-agent leaders do not succeed by working alone but rather by building a culture of shared leadership where ownership is distributed—i.e., where "everyone has the right, responsibility, and the ability to be a leader" (Lampert, 2002, p. 38). This belief is critical to bringing about change and works to minimize resistance to change. Leaders develop skills to facilitate change by working with teams where collaboration is essential. Administrators, teachers, parents, and students then play critical roles that determine if the change will be successful (Fullan, 2008; Hall & Hord, 2006).

Know How Others React to Change

Because change is complex, a leader must understand resistance to change. Inherent in the change process is the anticipated *push back* that change provokes. The readiness to change varies within individuals, even when the organization desperately needs to change. This means the change-agent leader may have to make compromises to meet the needs of the organization while still being responsive to the needs of the individual.

When people believe change is imposed upon them and they cannot make meaning of the change, they will resist it (Evans, 2010; Fullan, 2007). This resistance causes change-agent leaders to feel overwhelmed because their leadership may be threatened and their competence challenged. Successful leaders are cognizant of the inherent fear of change and do not minimize the human factor that must be managed.

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Change-agent leaders know how to apply pressure with support, while being sensitive to what appear as *losses* rather than *gains*. Rather than just suggesting what will be changed and how the change will occur, such leaders must take an approach to answer the *why change* question in a way that will help people envision personal gains along with the organizational ones. This will help people maintain their identity and integrity while in the change process.

Evans (1996) captured this idea of helping followers when he suggested creating psychological safety:

> The change agent must make clear his caring and support, his commitment to working with people to take the difficult steps toward new learning. He must reaffirm connection and help make the change meaningful to people by finding the familiar in the new and strength amidst the weakness. (p. 58)

Helping people develop coping skills through change will require the leader to be compassionate even when facing the most resistant colleagues. This means developing patience, humility, and the belief that each individual is of value and worth in order to develop a collaborative approach to change.

Learn the Process of Change

Fullan's (2007) model of the phases of change will help the leader design a process that makes sense of planning, implementing, and monitoring change. These three phases require an understanding of the necessary amount of change, which may be either first or second order. First-order change may work to improve the effectiveness of what is already in existence and may only involve select groups of individuals. Second-order change is more systemic in nature and requires large-scale alterations to organizational structure, norms, and beliefs (Evans, 1996). Change-agent leaders are astute at assessing the capacity for first- or second-order change and may strategize an approach that determines if the change process is at the beginning stage or initiation. During Phase 1 initiation, leaders need to determine whether the change is feasible or desirable and whether it builds on what may already be in existence (Fullan, 2007). This is a critical component that assesses support for the change and the resources needed to implement the change.

> " *The challenges of change encourage the development of a new kind of leader who understands that change is complex and brings about uncertainty—but is the cornerstone of growth and improvement.* "

Phase 2 of Fullan's model is the actual implementation of change, which can last from 2 to 3 years depending on the clarity of the actions that need to be taken. Often implementation starts with piloting an initiative and measuring its outcomes. Such *field testing* of implementation before going to a larger scale allows the change-agent leader time to work with implementation teams of willing volunteers. This strategy helps develop the shared leadership needed for implementation and can produce data (not just beliefs) that are used to build acceptance for the change.

Phase 3, "called continuation, incorporation, routinization, or institutionalization"

(Fullan, 2007, p. 65), is where the change either becomes part of the system or is discarded. To make such a decision, change-agent leaders need to use a combination of closely monitored data and a normative belief that the change will help the organization improve over time. The leader must use judgment to determine whether the individuals in the organization will continue to grow while the change is sustained. At this phase, the leader needs to articulate professional development, resources, and a reasonable timetable that builds a critical mass of implementers who are not totally dependent on the change-agent leader alone.

Making the Commitment

One cannot be a change agent without being a leader. Likewise, a leader without a vision for change will be ineffective and short-lived. Together, leadership and change are needed for the future of schools, classrooms, and systems that strive to improve. Being committed to creating a plan that relies on the strength of an organization and the individuals within that organization will require the leader to have knowledge and skills related to the change process. The challenges of change encourage the development of a new kind of leader who understands that change is complex and brings about uncertainty—but is the cornerstone of growth and improvement. Facing this challenge and reflecting on the necessary steps to becoming a change agent will improve the performance of all current and future leaders.

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Interview

Balancing Life Roles as a Leader: An Interview with Dr. Melissa Byington

By Saundra L. Shillingstad

This interview continues a series initiated by members of the Bulletin's *Editorial Board. The goal of the series is to feature interviews conducted with Delta Kappa Gamma members or other educational leaders on a topic related to the theme of the issue.*

Dr. Melissa Byington has been in educational administration for 8 years. Her doctoral dissertation at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln was about life-role balance for women in secondary school administration. Based on her research and life experience, Dr. Byington offers advice for any woman who must work to balance the many demands of leadership.

Describe your multiple life roles.

My major life roles are wife, mother, administrator, daughter, sister, friend, and—up until recently—graduate student. Within each of those roles are, at times, additional roles. Within my administrative position, for example, there are several duties that require one to enact different roles from advisor, supervisor, evaluator, committee member, disciplinarian, and so forth. If most working mothers would step back at any time to examine the number of roles they play in any given day or week, they would be amazed. If one considers the same concept over the course of the year, the number of roles increases more significantly.

What are the challenges of balancing those roles?

The challenge of balancing predominantly comes down to the idea that these several roles are competing for a limited amount of time and energy from a single person. We like to imagine that we can multitask efficiently and complete much more. What we are really doing is switch-tasking rapidly in

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succession; however, many of us have become quite adept at this and actually thrive on the challenge. Of the 150 administrators I surveyed and the 9 that I interviewed in my doctoral work, most of them welcome the challenge and the pace of the position. They know that they work at a hectic pace every day and that each day is varied and quite unpredictable most of the time. This serves as an attraction for many women. With each role and responsibility added, the challenge increases—until one reaches a point where the quality of work or quality of relationships begins to suffer.

Describe your leadership style, time-management style, and how you found time to manage all of your roles.
In retrospect, as I wrapped up my doctoral study and began to consider what areas needed my time and attention most, I learned that I wasn't managing as well as I thought I was. In most areas I was flying by the seat of my pants, which many administrators do. I was getting enough done to get by. I didn't have the time or focus available to do the long-range and deep planning and administration that needed to be done. At home, many, many smaller tasks were put aside. To accommodate time for the doctoral study and work, many opportunities with my children and family passed by. We focused on completion of the doctoral work because it was getting close to being done. In the 4 years working up to that point, we pared out times and activities. We outsourced things such as house cleaning. Some things we gave up doing, such as community activities. My husband and children pitched in and helped significantly with keeping the house running. For my part, it was a detailed, daily planning ritual. All things had to be scripted out on the calendar so we knew in advance who was doing what and when. Although we worked together as a family to complete a significant project, in the long run one must really learn to prioritize the important pieces and to set boundaries to know when to say *when*.

How and why did you become interested in your area of research?
My research topic originated from a topic of study in one of my doctoral seminar classes. The class was actually on topics surrounding human resources management. One of the units within the course addressed work-life balance. I was fascinated by the readings and found myself identifying with the individuals highlighted in the readings. I had struggled with the same guilt, stress, and challenges that the authors were writing about in the articles. However, I had always attributed those feelings of guilt and stress to my own weaknesses, something on which I needed to work harder or focus more to improve. I didn't know that it was a whole area of study on its own and that it affected millions of people around the world and was a topic of particular interest for women because of the social responsibilities and expectations accorded to their gender role and their choice to join the workforce outside of the home. With the roles that most working wives and mothers have, they are in effect holding down the equivalent of two or more full-time jobs. As I continued to work through research courses, I found this to be an area with limited research and a perfect topic because of my own need to learn about it.

What lessons did you learn or what were the implications for life-role balance for women in secondary school administration?
Within my dissertation I found several significant themes. All of the women interviewed were challenged by the pace and dynamic nature of their positions in administration. They thrived on this dynamic and received payoff in the reward of completing the challenge.

Each of them had lessons to share with others, such as learning to accept and let go. They learned to accept that not all of their work would be perfect. They learned to accept that not all things were their job. They learned to accept that not all decisions or interactions would go their way. If they had a bad or negative interaction with a parent, student, or teacher, they learned to let it go. They learned to accept that their house did not need to be perfectly clean, nor all of the jobs done. They learned to let go of others' judgments of them and that there would be points of concession where they were *OK* with not being superwoman. For example, one woman talked about learning to let go of the idea that she had to make dinner every night and accepting that it was *OK* to pick up fast food with her kids on the way to their practice.

All of the women were very well aware that they did what they did because they had a support network, and they made use of their support regularly, whether at home, in their community of friends and family, or at work. It also became quite clear that these women all shared a strong internal locus of control. They were well aware of their situations, of the aspects with which they could work, and of the aspects to which they needed to make or had made changes. They were quite forward in saying regularly that they "made things work." They made adjustments on a daily basis to accomplish the things that needed to be taken care of and to accommodate for and/or plan for the things coming up.

In all, it was an enlightening research project to work on because it gave me the opportunity to get a glimpse into the worlds of some remarkably strong and talented women and to begin to understand how they conceptualize balance in their lives. They were all quite self-deprecating, owned their shortcomings and what they know they still need to work on, but were eager to share advice for others who may be new in the field. It helped me understand that even women who appear to have everything squared away and organized struggle with many of the same challenges, stress, and guilt that I do. As one woman said in the survey, "There is no instruction on it [balance]. In the end, you have to find it on your own."

Annie Webb Blanton: Poised for Leadership

By Joyce G. Crouch

This article examines the leadership qualities of Annie Webb Blanton in the historical context of her day. Her entrance into leadership was a product of the values she acquired from her childhood, which included an emphasis upon education and patriotism; her expertise and achievements in teaching; and the status of women teachers at that historical moment. Sex discrimination and the loss of her Congressional bid were important reasons for the founding of Delta Kappa Gamma, an organization she considered her crowning achievement.

At the 1916 annual meeting of the Texas State Teachers' Association (TSTA), Annie Webb Blanton, confident that the organization would be strengthened by an increased role for women, rose to speak after the nomination of three men for the office of president by three different men and of one woman by another woman. Convinced that the nomination of a token woman would bring no lasting change, she had come to the meeting prepared to state her views. She began:

> I have come before you not to advocate the election of any one person, though personally my vote goes for Mr. [J.W.] Beatty [Denton School Superintendent]. But the women of the Texas State Teachers' Association (TSTA) feel that there are some facts that should be laid before the Association. We think it makes no difference at this particular time whether a man or a woman is elected at the head of this Association, but we do believe that it makes a difference as to whether our present method of apportioning power in the State Teachers' Association shall continue. . . We do not want the vice-presidency forever. How long are the functions of the women of the State Teachers' Association to be limited to paying a dollar to support its activities and to that of acting as audience and applause? You have asserted this afternoon that you believe in a fair representation of all people; then, in the future, give us a chance. (Cottrell, 1993, pp. 29-30)

Blanton was then nominated by a man, and although she objected by saying that she did not want to run against Mr. Beatty or any other candidate who represented a normal school, she was elected and became the first woman president in the TSTA's 36-year history.

Blanton was uniquely qualified to head the organization, both by experience and by qualifications. She had a resume that showed a year of teaching in a one-teacher school, as well as years of teaching English in high schools and at North Texas State Normal College. At the time of her election as president of TSTA, she had written textbooks in English grammar that were used outside Texas and had completed the requirements for a Bachelor of Literature—all accomplished while she was teaching. Yet leadership roles then were the domain of men, making it worthwhile to examine the fit between Blanton's qualifications

for leadership and the situational factors that opened opportunities for her.

Recent theories and research efforts have emphasized that personality traits, leader behaviors, follower traits, and situational variables are important considerations in leadership success (Avolio, 2007; Vroom & Yago, 2007). Zaccaro (2007) offered a model of leader attributes, distal and proximal, that form the bases for leader processes. His model posited that these factors operate in an environment to enable the leader to emerge, to be effective, and to advance. He defined the attributes as integrated patterns of relatively stable personal characteristics that operate to influence leadership effectiveness. Distal traits, although not strictly inherited, are broader than proximal traits and provide the basis for the development of proximal traits. Distal traits possessed by Blanton included high intelligence in the cognitive abilities area, persistence and social competence in the personality area, and commitment to education in the motives and values area. These attributes together formed the basis for the development of proximal traits of problem-solving, expert knowledge, and social appraisal. As suggested by Blanton's leadership story, proximal and distal traits operate within the environment as leaders emerge and grow.

Other researchers have proposed that women encounter obstacles because of gender bias. These obstacles have been described as a *labyrinth* with many snags along the path (Eagly & Carli, 2007); *barbed wire* (Christman & McClellan, 2008); *walls* (Woods, 2002); and the familiar *glass ceiling*. The aims of this analysis are to examine (a) Dr. Blanton's leadership qualities and actions, using the Zaccaro (2007) model of leadership; and (b) the extent to which she encountered gender discrimination. Her history was obtained from the biography by Cottrell (1993), the memorial presented to the faculty of the University of Texas by the Annie Webb Blanton Memorial Resolution Committee (Parker et al., 1946), and information on the DKG Web site.

Operational Environment

Blanton entered the teaching profession in a climate in which female teachers were treated like second-class workers and not as professionals. Hence, the Zaccaro (2007) model would predict that the time was ripe for advancement of women. In the early 1900s, schools had been neglected, and women teachers were treated like children and maids. According to Schugurensky (2005), the 1915 Rules for Female Teachers confined women teachers to the role of unmarried spinsters whose interactions were only with women or men in their immediate family. In addition, they were expected to be the janitors of the school and to maintain a sober appearance: long, drab skirts were required, and dyed hair was forbidden. Even the influential *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (1918) emphasized that women's education should not neglect instruction in their primary role of *home making* as a lifelong occupation. In the latter part of the 19th century, formal schooling and longer school terms led to more demand for teachers, with women teachers being more desirable because they were viewed as cheaper, better teachers of young children and more conforming to the demands of the school system (Boyle, 2004). The progressive movement at the turn of the century brought with it an atmosphere in which change could flourish. In this climate, Miss Blanton took her courageous stand against discrimination.

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Distal Leader Attributes
Blanton's early achievements provide evidence that she possessed the distal attributes Zaccaro (2007) deemed important to success in leadership roles: cognitive abilities, personality, and motives and values. She graduated from high school before she was 17, indicating high intelligence, self-discipline, and determination. After graduation, she moved away from home and taught in a rural school, suggesting courage. Her family emphasized education and learning, industriousness, patriotism, and a commitment to social concerns. Yet in spite of her commitment to liberal causes and exceptional achievements, she accepted traditional values of feminine proprieties. Family tragedies no doubt contributed to what could be described as toughness, as her mother died when she was 9, and her twin, Fannie, when she was 15.

Proximal Leader Attributes
Blanton's speech before the TSTA provided evidence of the social appraisal skills, expertise, and problem-solving skills proposed by Zaccaro (2007) as proximal leader attributes. She spoke not for personal advancement but rather for an expanded role of women to be shared with men, thereby avoiding alienation from men to some extent and providing evidence of social awareness. At this time she was uniquely qualified. She had taught 17 years in a college, held a Baccalaureate of Literature from the University of Texas, and had authored two textbooks: Review *Outline and Exercises in English Grammar* and *Supplemental Exercises in Punctuation and Composition*. She directly stated the problem, and although she did not expect immediate results, she defined an expected outcome. In sum, she accurately appraised the situation in TSTA, accurately analyzed the problem, and suggested a solution by using her expertise and knowledge.

These attributes were also employed during her term of office as she established a permanent fund to make financing more secure, proposed constitutional revisions to allow women to serve on the executive committee, and in other ways enhanced the role of women in the association. At the annual conference she also brought as speakers such noted women as Mary C. C. Bradford, state superintendent of Colorado and president of the National Education Association, and Ella Flagg Young, former superintendent of Chicago schools. Although Blanton was opposed by some men, her "credentials as an educator and her leadership strengths" earned her the respect and appreciation of many of her male colleagues (Cottrell, p. 35).

Discrimination
Despite her election as the first female state superintendent of public instruction in Texas at a time when women in Texas could vote only in the primaries, Blanton made a crack in but did not destroy the barriers to gender equality. In her presidential address at the TSTA meeting in 1918, she voiced her sympathy with Eve, who, if she knew that her failings would be a reproach for the rest of womankind, would no doubt be devastated. She continued, "The same feeling, in some degree, weighs upon the mind of any woman who is the first of her sex in any position of authority" (Cottrell, p. 34). Woods (2002) cited Blanton as saying she had spent her life scaling the wall of sex prejudice and stretching out her hands to others who would break the barrier for good.

After 4 years as superintendent of public instruction, Blanton ran unsuccessfully for United States Congress. Then, no doubt judging that higher qualifications would help in her ultimate goal of supporting equality and justice, she made higher education her

goal and earned her master's degree at the University of Texas and her Ph.D. at Cornell University. Turning her energies to teaching and working for the improvement of rural education, she became less a target of overt sex discrimination, but her interest in equality did not waver. She used her prodigious intelligence and problem-solving skills to establish an organization to further the role of women in education—Delta Kappa Gamma.

Conclusion

Annie Webb Blanton, an outstanding role model for women, achieved her goals as a woman unencumbered by the duties of family in a milieu that set rigid boundaries for the behavior and opportunities for females. She scaled the wall, broke the glass ceiling, or found the path through the labyrinth. The failure to be elected to Congress did not break her spirit; she merely changed course and left Delta Kappa Gamma as her crowning achievement. Her commitment to equality and justice ring clearly in the *Delta Kappa Gamma Song* by Annie W. Blanton and Cora Martin:

> Onward! 'Tis our sisters need us,
> Courage, Faith and Honor lead us,
> Wrongs in truth and justice heed us!
> Firmly shall we stand! (Holden, 1960)

Blanton and Martin called women teachers to unite to work toward equality and justice for women in education. May women teachers accept this challenge in this historical moment when women, both married and single, still struggle to advance in leadership roles. The glass ceiling, barbed wire, labyrinth, or walls remain. Blanton's courage and commitment are beacons for unity and action in the cause of women educators.

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H3: The Evidence of Leadership
By Constance L. Hoag and Odelia Schrunk

Our Heritage Volume III (H3) is not only the historical resource for the Delta Kappa Gamma Society International; it is also a document that is all about leadership! H3 *shares the growth of the Society as it progressed from the status of 1970 to the accomplishments of the 2000s and clearly demonstrates the organizational philosophy of providing opportunities for enhancing every member's leadership skills. The authors provide an overview of the significance of this piece of DKG history as documentation of the Society's role in promoting leadership among women educators.*

Introduction
Our Heritage Volume III (*H3*) is the latest installment of the Delta Kappa Gamma story. From one perspective, the document provides *under-one-cover* substance and permanency to 38 years of the history and heritage of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International (DKG). This 847-page electronic publication recounts organizational achievements, documents committee accomplishments, and honors all programs, such as expansion and philanthropy. A multidimensional electronic audio book (should readers choose this feature), *H3* details nearly four decades of Society history, accessible to every member through the convenience of the computer.

H3 contains a multitude of practical enclosures for use during chapter and state meetings. Its 18 chapters and 27 appendices provide access to the *Purposes*, the *Mission Statement*, versions of the *Delta Kappa Gamma Song*, *Virtual Tours*, and many other resources. More specifically, *H3* is a record of how DKG has sustained, perpetuated, expanded, and diversified itself. All this has taken place by recognizing, encouraging, training, creating, and empowering members as leaders.

When considering *H3* as a whole, what is the overriding significance of this compendium? We contend that *Our Heritage Volume III* is a working model of individual, group, and organizational leadership and professional development. The evidence of planned leadership is there, as are the examples and results of empowered individual leadership.

The Credibility of the Authors
This viewpoint is presented from our first-hand perspectives as recipients of Society leadership programs such as Golden Gift Leadership Training. In return for such opportunities, we have had the privilege of putting learned leadership skills into practice within the Society. We both have served as Upsilon State (Iowa) presidents and as members or chairs of international committees or of the Educational Foundation Board of Trustees. Together we have attended 36 regional conferences, 23 Seminars in Purposeful Living, and 31 international conventions and presented a multitude of reports and workshops at

Society functions. From 2007-2010, we devoted 32 months to researching and writing the publication that chronicles DKG programs, progress, and accomplishments. We believe these perspectives allow us to speak to the substance that *H3* presents, and we invite readers to view *H3* as *The Evidence of Leadership*.

A Society of Leaders

No organization can survive, let alone thrive, without leadership from the chief executive officer or president. DKG has been blessed by the quality of and accomplishments of its leaders. One only has to read the biographies of the 19 international presidents who served from 1970-2008 to realize how extraordinary these women were and to appreciate their individual and collective personal and professional contributions to education, to children, and most especially for the good of DKG.

For purposes of this viewpoint, we are defining leadership in the broader perspective. DKG was established on the principle of inviting to membership those who were leaders or who demonstrated the potential to develop leadership skills. This standard for choosing quality members set the stage for success.

We consider leadership as all-inclusive, validating the contributions of every woman who is or ever has been a member of DKG. The *H3 Dedication* captures this validation: "The Authors dedicate *Our Heritage Volume III* to the members who have created a Society like no other."

Thus, by this definition, every member is a leader, whether it is within her classroom or when she shares educational or personal expertise while functioning as a professional. We believe each member has influenced DKG and all those with whom she has come into contact.

The Impact of Leadership

An emphasis on leadership has contributed to the considerable impact of DKG. First, members have certainly been impacted as beneficiaries of the many types of DKG leadership programs. Members and the organization itself have been enriched by the Society's expansion from 3 to 16 member countries (1970-2008), as well as by a committee structure that has broadened in focus, operational responsibility, and influence. Additionally, the

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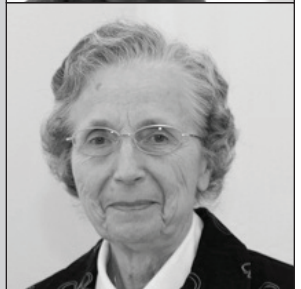
Society's philanthropic endeavors have had far-reaching impact, developing from the 1970 gifts of a few hundred dollars to the millions of dollars provided by DKG in the 2000s to support the individual and educational causes of members and nonmembers worldwide.

H3 Verification of Leadership Opportunities

Examples and opportunities to enhance DKG leadership skills are found everywhere a member looks, from committee participation to taking advantage of leadership training at conferences and conventions, to participating in workshops, registering for online courses, and availing themselves of the wealth of information on the DKG Web sites. Additional opportunities are found in programs such as the Leadership Management Seminars sponsored by Golden Gift, the Cornetet Awards, and Scholarship and World Fellowship programs.

The leadership possibilities offered to members leap from the *H3* computer screen. Many of the 18 chapters of *H3* provide specific examples of leadership. The 27 appendices record recipients and participants who accessed the leadership training. Other entries in the appendices provide specific kinds of information regarding DKG activities and programs, such as the sites and themes of the International Conventions. The following reflect a sampling of the linking between chapters and appendices and provide a brief overview of portions of *H3* that are particularly pertinent to leadership.

Chapter V: International Presidents 1970-2008. This chapter provides a biography chronicling the progression of each international leader from her chapter initiation to her activities as the international president. Clearly, each international president exemplified and individually focused on the issues of leadership. Each of the 19 biographies contains a section entitled *Positions of Leadership* that will help readers recognize the journey the president took to attain the highest leadership position of DKG. In the appendices, the *Biennium Directories of the 1970-2008 International Presidents* serve as companion documents for Chapter V, sharing the names of the members who served on the international level during each president's biennium and illustrating the levels of leadership that contribute to the success of DKG.

Chapter IX: Areas of Activity/Leadership Opportunities. This chapter highlights DKG opportunities available to members, ranging from preconference and preconvention officer training to Golden Gift programs, parliamentary training, online leadership courses, and support from the Eunah Temple Holden Leadership Fund. Appendices affiliated with Chapter IX provide lists of members who have availed themselves of the many leadership opportunities.

Chapter XIV: The Educational Foundation. This chapter presents opportunities for leadership through the funding of Project Grants, the Seminars in Purposeful Living, the Cornetet Awards for Professional Development recipients, and the Cornetet Seminars. It illustrates the important role played by the Foundation in the overall work of DKG. The Appendices affiliated with Chapter XIV provide information regarding The Educational Foundation's financial support and activities, illustrating members' dedication to the Foundation's support of leadership development.

The Implications

If the next 38 years are to be as influential as the past almost-four decades from the perspectives of internal Society growth and external contributions to education, DKG must find new and different ways to meet the needs of future leaders. Leadership is

In Search of the Zone of Optimum Development for Congenitally Blind Science Learners

By Sinikka Makela Smothers

Rooted in the constructivist model of pedagogy, inquiry-based science instruction is associated with student-centered investigations, collaborative problem solving, and reflective discussion with the main goal of developing students' critical thinking. Congenitally blind learners who have lost their sight at or before birth depend on nonvisual sensory avenues to construct their ideas about the physical world. This article offers guidelines for adapting a science classroom environment to scaffold science learning for congenitally blind students to the optimum level of success.

Introduction

According to the constructivist learning theory, a child is continually revising and restructuring his or her ideas of the world while interacting with the physical and social environment. In a classroom setting, the teacher, the instructional language, and the materials present in the classroom become human, verbal, and symbolic mediators of a child's learning (Kozulin, 2003). Consequently, both the instructional strategies and the physical materials selected by the teacher to convey the ideas and concepts to be taught become critical in scaffolding a student's learning. A purposefully-designed, student-centered classroom environment becomes a place of endless exploration and discovery, nurturing students' development to its optimum potential.

Inquiry Learning

Didactic pedagogy prevalent during the 20th century was characterized by students listening, recording, and memorizing information. Constructivist pedagogy, the current model for best educational practice, on the other hand encourages the learners to become actively engaged in the process of learning by posing questions, by collaborating to find solutions to authentic problem situations, and by sharing viewpoints during classroom discussion. The content of science in particular beckons for hands-on investigations and experiments in order for the learner to discover structures, patterns, and systems of living and nonliving things in the physical world.

The term *inquiry learning* is mostly associated with science classrooms and, depending on the amount of teacher involvement, falls into three types: structured, guided, and student-initiated inquiry. Although students in an inquiry-based science program learn

many important skills, gain new knowledge, and develop scientific attitudes, the overriding objective of all types of inquiry learning is critical thinking. Critical thinking manifests itself in an open, safe, equitable, and collaborative classroom climate where students are encouraged to express their questions, debate ideas about scientific phenomena, and solve authentic problems using appropriate materials (Roth, 1995).

Issues Related to Teaching Science to Congenitally Blind Students

There are two classifications for blindness: adventitious and congenital. An individual who lost her vision at some time after birth is adventitiously blind, while a congenitally blind individual lost her vision before or at birth. Congenitally blind children represent the lowest incidence population among those with sensory disabilities. A child who has never experienced vision will not have any visual sensory input or visual memory of the physical world available for cognitive processing. Therefore, congenitally blind students must construct their worldview through auditory, olfactory, tactile, and kinesthetic channels of perception. Tactile and kinesthetic modes of sensory investigation are closely connected and combined in literature into the widely used term *haptic learning*.

The following conceptual guidelines for creating an effective science learning environment for congenitally blind learners are based on the limited literature available in the field of teaching the blind and my personal trials and errors during 14 years of teaching science to blind and visually impaired students in Grades 4 through 8 at a state residential school for the blind. The three material components of a successful science environment for congenitally blind children are real objects, models, and tactile graphics. Together, these three types of representations of the physical realm create mental images and conceptual frameworks that scaffold later learning of verbal abstractions.

Real Objects

Encounters with real objects, such as a sheep or a trumpet, leave powerful cognitive traces within both sighted and blind children. Sighted children can, however, gain information about the objects in their environment vicariously through visual images. Skillful, highly elaborate verbal descriptions of objects gained through instruction or literature serve to enhance all students' conceptual frameworks, but tactile experiences remain the most critical avenue of beginning science learning to a congenitally blind child.

The social aspects of *touching* can be frustrating to young blind children who are eager to explore their environment but have to adjust to the rules of appropriateness and timeliness set by the adult caretakers. For example, a young blind child gets to know his or her mother's facial features by running hands over the mother's face. In the home, a young blind child may or may not be allowed to touch the items inside the kitchen cupboards or at a family member's computer desk. At school, the teacher sets the guidelines and limits to a blind child's tactile investigations, considering both the individual needs and environmental and

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social constraints. A *touch box* containing a collection of tactilely interesting objects such as a sea star, marble, sponge, rubber band, rock, sugar cube, and a piece of tree bark is helpful for developing any child's observation skills. It is important that blind students are not discouraged from gathering information about their surroundings but given ample opportunities for hands-on investigations.

Models

Objects that do not lend themselves for tactile manipulation due to being too large, too small, too far away, or too dangerous to touch should be presented to blind children through models. Tactile models produced commercially or by hand of a whale, a paramecium (one-celled protist), the sun, or a spider convey the structural information needed for emerging conceptual frameworks. All elementary and middle school science teachers will benefit greatly from a collection of models that represent the intangible science concepts associated with their grade-level content standards.

Braille Literacy

In higher grades, much of the science content becomes difficult to present through tactile means. Concepts such as nuclear fusion and chemical bonding are, therefore, commonly mediated through textbook graphics. As blind students become proficient in Braille literacy skills,

> " *Maintaining global leadership in the STEM [Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics] fields requires the identification and training of all potential STEM talent, including individuals with sensory or physical disabilities whose thinking strategies and problem-solving skills can offer powerful new scientific insights.* "

including the ability to read multiple types of graphics in raised-line format, they attain the prerequisite level for the study of high school chemistry and physics. The cognitive processes of tactile-graphics comprehension and the specific instructional strategies for teaching tactile graphicacy remain critical areas for future research. Studies show, however, that blind students with high expertise in reading graphic materials perform better in high school and college science courses (Dulin & Hatwell, 2006).

Laboratory Accommodations

Basic laboratory procedures such as titration, pipetting, and filtering involve the use of many instruments with which blind students require individualized guided practice. The use of a Bunsen burner, on the other hand, creates special safety concerns that many high school teachers can alleviate by assigning a sighted lab partner to a totally blind student. Additionally, the many electronic instruments used for the quantitative measurement of variables such as temperature, acidity of a liquid, or resistance to electrical current require auditory outputs in order to be accessible for blind students. As indicated by these examples, the inclusion of blind students in a science classroom provides teachers with creative challenges that often require adapting the instructional materials. On the other hand, these adaptations have the potential of enhancing the science learning environment for all students.

Conclusion

Congenitally blind students have been marginalized as viable contributors to scientific innovation in the *STEM* fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics. However, congenitally blind students who have been a part of a constructivist learning community and have been exposed to live objects, models, and tactile graphics in their science classes reflect similar developmental trends and conceptualizations as their sighted peers. Furthermore, congenitally blind students' scientific ideas bear originality stemming from frameworks that are qualitatively different from those of sighted students (Smothers & Goldston, 2009). They have much to contribute in the scientific discussion but far too often assume a passive role in response to society's stereotypes of their reduced academic potential in advanced levels of science. Maintaining global leadership in the STEM fields requires the identification and training of all potential STEM talent, including individuals with sensory or physical disabilities whose thinking strategies and problem-solving skills can offer powerful new scientific insights.

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the scaffolding upon which the future of Society is ensured.

Continuing success as an organization is dependent on choosing leaders and potential leaders as members. Providing opportunities for members to grow in leadership skills is an ongoing challenge. Finally, it is imperative that members take advantage of the leadership opportunities to promote the programs and activities of DKG and enhance their own personal and professional growth.

In Conclusion

Our Heritage Volume III is the primary Society source validating the theory that providing leadership skill opportunities empowers women by providing a chronology of accomplishments and a prototype for organizational leadership. This document reflects the heart and soul of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International and of every woman who has ever been a member and thus creator of a Society like no other.

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Changes in Teacher Evaluation: Implications for the Principal's Work

By Mary Lynne Derrington

Evaluating teacher competency is too often a perfunctory, episodic event rather than a meticulous measure of teaching effectiveness and student achievement. Rather than viewing teachers as passive recipients of a principal's evaluative judgment, educators must see teachers as adult learners who work best when actively engaged in the improvement process. A trend is evolving toward collection and presentation by teachers of multiple sources that give evidence of their effectiveness as part of the evaluation process. However, this teacher-evaluation model requires a change in the principal's role as well. Principals will require greater authority and broader district support to implement a substantial change in the teacher-evaluation process.

Introduction

Evaluation of teacher competency is too often a perfunctory, episodic event rather than a meticulous measure of teaching effectiveness and student achievement. Principals, checklist in hand, head down the hall once or twice a school year to conduct the obligatory classroom observation. Then the principal determines if what is seen in the 60-minute-or-less observation complies with a checklist of items believed to correlate to effective teaching. Months later, when the summative evaluation is due, the busy principal often chooses from a menu of narrative phrases, resulting in strikingly similar comments for each recipient's evaluation, causing teachers to feel that the reports were a product of a *cut and paste* activity.

Teachers and principals, dissatisfied by this traditional process and spurred by the new accountability requirements, are transforming the teacher-evaluation system. They understand that the teacher-evaluation process must change in many—and fundamental—ways. What is little known is how the principal's role must also change to implement a new evaluation model.

Changes in Teacher Evaluation

Principals' observations, walk-throughs, and other direct classroom-data collection and assessment activities appear to be less related to improvements in student performance than accepted in current practice (Horng & Loeb, 2010). The principal's role as supervisor and evaluator of teachers will continue as a fundamental component of the teacher assessment process, but a more comprehensive model of formative and summative evaluation that incorporates a larger body of evidence will produce a better-rounded picture of a teacher's competencies. In a teacher-development-centered evaluation process, classroom

observation is only one component. Many other sources of evidence exist, including the teachers' self-reflection, conversational learning time with peers, student achievement data, and stakeholder feedback.

Educators in Washington State are piloting a new system of evaluation focused on multiple sources of evidence as opposed to the one-opinion, one-evaluator process. Legislation passed in 2010 (E2SSB 6696) mandated the creation of nine pilot school districts that will follow the legislative criteria to develop new teacher- and principal-evaluation systems using multiple sources of data by school year 2012.

Washington is not alone in examining new evaluation systems. Several other states are developing multiple sources of evidence of teacher effectiveness. Moreover, the practice has been embraced internationally as well. In Chile, for example, teachers are asked to document the way they plan and evaluate a teaching unit. Teachers can video-record a lesson and submit the tape along with supporting information about the lesson, such as goals for learning and resources used. An array of other sources of evidence may be employed to demonstrate a Chilean teacher's effectiveness in promoting student learning, such as student achievement data, work samples, and test scores; teacher self-assessment and reflection; and feedback from coworkers, students, and parents.

The evidence gathered in this approach to teacher evaluation is then organized into a portfolio. Brown and Irby (1995) described and defined an administrative portfolio as a collection of thoughtfully selected items or artifacts and accompanying reflections that indicate an individual's experiences and ability. This definition might serve as a useful description of a teacher portfolio of evidence as well.

The concept of a teacher-centered evaluation process using multiple sources of evidence of effectiveness holds promise. However, past experience with changing complex systems has demonstrated that altering one part of a process frequently requires modifications in other components. Still unaddressed is the required change in principal responsibilities and how the changes in teacher summative and formative evaluation might change the principal's role.

A System of Support for Principals Is Required
A teacher-evaluation process defined exclusively by an administrator's observation is a dubious vehicle for engaging teachers in the improvement process. Principals, however, can affect teacher improvement. Horng and Loeb (2010), citing a recent Wallace Foundation study, concluded that principals affect student learning by influencing teacher motivation and working conditions. Specifically, principals develop structures for improved instruction and ensure that teachers have access to the necessary support.

Principals need both support and authority to implement a change this comprehensive in the teacher-evaluation system. Consequently, researchers in the Washington State evaluation pilot asked whether or not principals perceived that they had support and authority from the district to implement this new model of teacher evaluation. To answer this question, in Spring 2010, the author and Gene Sharratt, Associate Clinical Professor at Washington State University, surveyed

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principals from a wide geographic sample engaged in developing changes to the teacher-evaluation system. Principals (n=34) were asked to respond to the seven school leadership standards identified in E2SSB 6696. These responsibilities were first developed in 2009 by the Association of Washington School Principals (AWSP) and address (a) knowledge and skills principals must possess; (b) the necessary support principals will need, such as training and resources; and (c) the authority principals will require to implement the standards, which includes school board policies, legislation, and the ability to assign staff.

Principals were asked to indicate on a scale of *1 = low* to *4 = high* the degree of agreement or disagreement with each item regarding the knowledge and skill level they currently possessed, the support provided by the district to implement the standard, and the degree of authority that has been given to implement the standard. An analysis of survey responses revealed a potential difficulty in trying to implement a new teacher-evaluation system based on multiple measures of teacher effectiveness. Specifically, Standard 5 in the AWSP document addresses improving instruction. A descriptor for Standard 5 acknowledges that the principal has support to *use a variety of monitoring structures to improve instruction and assessment of learning*. Principals assigned this item a rating of 2.6, suggesting they perceived the level of support they are given to implement multiple sources of evidence for teacher evaluation to be weak. Principals commented that implementing the new system would require time, resources, training, and coaching.

Furthermore, negative unintended consequences may result when support is low but expectations for results are high. Principals in the Washington State survey indicated feeling stressed from holding the responsibility to raise student achievement but at the same time not being provided the support to get the job done. In a related study in North Carolina, 50% of principals responding to an evaluation survey indicated that even when training programs and models are available, other resources such as collaborative professional development with peers during the school day or at administrative meetings, mentoring, and onsite work data reviews are needed to implement new models of evaluation (Bradshaw & Jorissen, 2008). The results from these studies indicated districts must provide support, resources, and sufficient authority to building principals to lead effectively an evaluation process that places teachers in an active rather than passive role.

Implications for Principals
A fundamental change in the teacher-evaluation process will require a rethinking of the principal's role in evaluation as well. Specifically, authority dynamics must be renegotiated, and a school- and districtwide system of support is required.

Authority relationships:
- Principals and district leaders will need to reconsider the ineffectiveness of administrative control and the benefit of teacher professionalism achieved by involving other staff and stakeholders in the evaluation process.
- Principals will need to involve teaching and support staff in the process of evaluation. This might include department chairs, peer coaches, or district office specialists (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

Implications for school support:
- Principals will need to advocate aggressively for resources, especially time for teachers to reflect and gather evidence.
- Principals will need to create a professional context in schools where teachers learn from each other and dialogue with instructional leaders.

- Principals will need to collaborate and calibrate with each other so there is consistency in judgment of teacher effectiveness among all principals.

Implications for system support:

- Principals will need the authority to implement the evaluation system, including the ability to assign collaborative time at the school rather than wait for permission from the district.
- Principals will need to be able to judge what sources of evidence accurately measure each evaluation criterion.
- Principals will need greater influence in multiple decision points in the personnel system such as being given hiring authority—to build the school structure for teacher support.

Summary

A substantive change in the practice of teacher evaluation is a complex process. First, rather than viewing teachers as passive recipients of a principal's evaluative judgment, educators must see teachers as adult learners who work best when actively engaged in the improvement process. The current bureaucratic model of accountability must yield to teacher growth through self-examination of instructional practice (Holland & Adams, 2002). Improving classroom teaching, then, becomes a matter of enhancing teacher thinking and reflection to promote meaningful professional development (Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004). Next, educators must consider the expertise, support, and authority principals will need when using multiple sources of effectiveness to evaluate teachers. Perhaps no principal can implement this process single-handedly in a school, particularly a large, comprehensive high school. In the final analysis, finding the right balance of autonomy and accountability will define the principal's role in an improved teacher-evaluation system. Despite the obstacles and challenges, a reconstructed teacher-evaluation system has great potential for impacting student learning.

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