University of Massachusetts Amherst
ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst

Doctoral Dissertations | Dissertations and Theses

Fall November 2014

Perceptions of Leadership through the Lens of Special Education Administrators and Principals

Adam C. Garand
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2

 Part of the Educational Leadership Commons

Recommended Citation

Garand, Adam C., "Perceptions of Leadership through the Lens of Special Education Administrators and Principals" (2014). *Doctoral Dissertations*. 191.
https://doi.org/10.7275/5854647.0 https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2/191

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Dissertations and Theses at ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP THROUGH THE LENS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS AND PRINCIPALS

A Dissertation Presented

By

ADAM C. GARAND

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
Of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 2014

Student Development, College of Education

© Copyright by Adam C Garand 2014
All Rights Reserved

PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP THROUGH THE LENS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS AND PRINCIPAL

A Dissertation Presented

By

ADAM C. GARAND

Approved as to style and content by:

_____
Mary Lynn Boscardin, Chair

_____
Robert Marx, Member

_____
Craig Wells, Member

_____
Christine B. McCormick, Dean
College of Education

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. On this journey of 1,000 steps they have been there for every one. They have given their patience while I worked, their support and encouragement to keep me motivated and moving forward, their joy upon this journeys completion, and their love throughout. To my wife Tricia, you have been there for every step and I share this with you. To my children Brittany, James, Matthew, Jonathan, and Michael, thank you for giving me the time and space and love to accomplish this goal. To my brother Jason and sister (in-law) Peg, without your support I could not have completed this journey. To my brother Matt, your support and encouragement was always been there to keep me going. To my mother Christina, you taught me to love learning and you are the example I followed. To my late father Robert, you taught me about the value of hard work and dedication. My love and thanks to all of you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank and acknowledge my advisor and teacher Dr. Mary Lynn Boscardin. Without her patience, guidance, and support this dissertation would not be possible. I would also like to thank and acknowledge Dr. Craig Wells and Dr. Robert Marx for their assistance, involvement and patience throughout this journey. Further, I would like to thank and acknowledge each member of the *Crossroads* cohort, particularly Patrick Turdyn, for their support. Lastly, I would like to acknowledge and thank each participant in this dissertation study. Cheers!

ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP THROUGH THE LENS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS AND PRINCIPAL

SEPTEMBER 2014

ADAM C. GARAND, B.A., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

M.Ed., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Ed.D. UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor Mary Lynn Boscardin

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate leadership perceptions of 30 leaders of special education: 10 administrators of special education, 10 principals, and 10 assistant principals. A Q-sort methodology is used to obtain and analyze participant rankings of 50 leadership statements representing instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership.

Research questions that guide this study include: 1) How are the leadership style statements ranked in relationship to participant roles?; 2) To what extent did the highest ranked leadership style component statements differ from the lowest ranked leadership items?; 3) How did the participants describe the rankings of the overall most and least important leadership statements regarding the work of a leader of special education?; 4) Are there any similarities or differences among leadership statement rankings in relationship to the participant clusters?; and 5) Are there any similarities or differences among leadership statement rankings in relationship to the participant clusters? Results revealed two factor

groups, each described by a leadership profile reflecting demographic information and ratings of leadership style items.

This study demonstrates the importance of leader development of multi-actor leadership styles in order to meet contemporary education demands. Further, this study proposes a revision of leadership domains currently considered to be most important for leaders of special education. This research will contribute to expanding current understanding of instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership styles within the field of special education. Future research should be devoted to understanding factors that influence the use of multi-actor leadership styles by leaders of special education, and factors that enable development and implementation of multi-actor leadership.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT……v

ABSTRACT……..vi

LIST OF TABLES…….xi

LIST OF FIGURES…….xiv

CHAPTER

1. **UNDERSTANDING CONTEMPORARY SCHOOL LEADERSHIP** 1

Introduction..... 1

What is leadership?..... 1

Conceptualizing School Leadership 4

A Contemporary Perspective of School Leadership..... 8

How can School Leaders meet the Leadership Demands of Education Reform? 11

Synthesis of School Leadership Findings..... 21

The Influence of Education Reform on the General Education Leader's Role as a Leader of Special Education..... 23

The Influence of Education Reform on the Special Education Leader's Role as a Leader of Special Education..... 28

2. LEADERSHIP FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION 39

Contemporary Understanding of Leadership for Special Education..... 39

Leadership Styles..... 44

Instructional Leadership 50

Distributed leadership 68

Collaborative Leadership/Communities of Practice/PLC's 91

Summary 113

3. METHODOLOGY 119

Introduction 119

Rationale for Research 120

Research Design 124

Participants 125

Q Sample Development 129

Procedure 139

Data Analysis 141

Quantitative Data 141

Qualitative Data 143

Chapter Summary 143

4. FINDINGS 145

Initial Analysis 145

Determination of Factor Membership 149

Participants Demographics 152

Similarities and Differences in Factor Member Demographics 155

Participants District Level Demographics 157

Similarities and Differences in Factor Member District Demographics 158
Summary of Demographics Findings 160
Analysis of Ranking of Sort Items by Factor Groups 161
Summary of Item Rankings 168
Rationale for Sorting Items 170
Factor A Members' Rationale for Sorting Items 171
Factors contributing to sorting of items for Factor A Members 179
Factor B Members' Rationale for Sorting Items 183
Factors contributing to sorting of items for Factor B Members 190
Summary of Factor Group Responses to the Post-Sort Questionnaire 193
Synthesis of Results – Factor A and B Leadership Profiles 195
5. DISCUSSION 203
Interpretations and Explanations 203
Revision of Leadership Domains 210
Limitations 223
Conclusions 224
APPENDIX: INSTRUMENTATION 227
REFERENCES 235

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.1	Leadership Concepts……..	7
1.2	Summary of Research……..…….....	18
1.3	Areas of emphasis for school leaders in order to improve special education services……..…….....	25
1.4	Summary of Leadership Articles……..….....	27
1.5	Areas identified as important to the work of special education leaders……	32
1.6	Summary of Special Education Leadership Articles…….	35
2.1	Summary of Leadership Style Articles……..	48
2.2	Findings Literature Review……..…….	53
2.3	Instructional Leadership Modes……	55
2.4	Comparison of Leadership Modes……..…….....	56
2.5	Survey Tool Scales…….....	58
2.6	Qualitative Indicators……	59
2.7	Research Questions and Evidence…….	60
2.8	Instructional Leadership Studies……..…….	63
2.9	Summary of Themes and Key Findings……	67
2.10	Leadership and Management Statements……..	72
2.11	Culture and Relationships Statements……....	73
2.12	Factors Indicative of the Presence of Culturally Embedded Distributed Leadership……...	78
2.13	Rating Scales…….….	79
2.14	Study Variables……..	81

2.15 Sources of Influence on Teachers via Teacher Survey Ratings……83

2.16 Summary of Distributed Leadership Research Studies…….85

2.17 Study Variables and Descriptions…….99

2.18 Grid for Identifying Principal Decision-Making Style……102

2.19 Decision Making Styles……...103

2.20 Summary of Study Results……..103

2.21 Summary of Study Initiatives, Initial Conditions, and Actions……...105

2.22 Summary of Collaborative/Communities of Practice/PLC's Research Studies……..109

2.23 Characteristic Leader Actions, Depending on Leadership Style, Associated with Leadership Domains Identified as Important to the Work of Leaders of Special Education in Serving Students with Disabilities…….117

3.1 Participant Background Information…….126

3.2 District Background Information……..128

3.3 Instructional Leadership Action Statements……..131

3.4 Distributed Leadership Actions…….132

3.5 Collaborative Leadership Actions…….134

3.6 Q Sort Statements……..137

4.1 Factor Variance…….148

4.2 Participant Assignment to a Factor Group……149

4.3 Participant Demographics…….153

4.4 Participant District Level Demographics…….158

4.5 Q-sort Items and Factor Sorts……...162

4.6 Factor A Highest and Lowest Ranked Items……166

4.7 Factor B Highest and Lowest Ranked Items……167

4.8 Comparison of Factor A and B Item Rankings……169

4.9 Factor A Members Rationale for Sorting +5 Items……..172

4.10 Factor A Member Rationale for Sorting -5 Items…….175

4.11 Factor A Member's Rationale for Item Rankings……177

4.12 Categorization of Factor A Questionnaire Responses……..181

4.13 Factor B Member Rationale for Sorting +5 Items……184

4.14 Factor B Member Rationale for Sorting -5 Items…….186

4.15 Factor B Member's Rationale for Item Rankings…….189

4.16 Factors Contributing to the Sorting of Items…….192

4.17 Leadership Profile for Factor A Group…….197

4.18 Leadership Profile for Factor B Group…….200

5.1 Alignment of Leadership Items to Table 2.23……..213

5.2 Distributed Statements Not Part of Table 5.1……...215

5.3 Collaborative Statements Not Part of Table 5.1…….216

5.4 Synthesis of Tables 5.2 & 5.3……217

5.5 Revised Table 2.23……221

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	Synthesis of School Leadership Findings	22
1.2	Comparison of Findings	38
2.1	Synthesis of Leadership Frames, and School Leader and Leader of Special Education Domain	43
2.2	Instructional Management Framework	52
2.3	Six Stages, or Approaches to Distributed Leadership	75
2.4	Model for Developing Distributed Leadership in Schools	76
2.5	Relationships between Sources of Collective Leadership Influence and Student Achievement	82
2.6	Model of Distributed Leadership Using Collective Findings	88
3.1	Q-sort Grid	140
4.1	Correlation Matrix	146
4.2	Scree Plot	147
4.3	Component Plot	148
4.4	Q-sort for Factor A Group	164
4.5	Q Sort for Factor B Group	165

CHAPTER 1

UNDERSTANDING CONTEMPORARY SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Introduction

Contemporary education reform initiatives continue to influence the roles, responsibilities, and perspectives of school leaders in regard to the provision of educational services for all students. Students of all ability levels and backgrounds are expected to meet a single set of achievement standards within a standardized curriculum. As such, school leaders must now provide educational programs that result in students achieving required levels of proficiency despite socio-economic status, gender, ethnicity, English language proficiency, or disability. For school leaders, the development and implementation of such programs implies utilization of expertise in a variety of areas in order to provide professional development, tools, and resources necessary for enabling teachers to provide effective instruction to a diverse group of learners. To that end, general and special education administrators must broaden their roles, responsibilities, and perspectives on teaching and learning so that the development and implementation of effective instructional programs serving the needs of all learners is a common focus and goal. To achieve that goal leaders of special education need to possess skill sets and operate in ways traditionally conceived of as belonging separately to general and special education leaders, and be able to access and make use of the expertise of various stakeholders in order to best influence classroom instruction and thereby instructional outcomes.

What is leadership?

The American Heritage Dictionary defines leadership as: the capacity to lead, or the act of leading, and defines the verb lead as: to guide in direction, course, action, and opinion, or, to show the way. Sigford, in *The Effective School Leader's Guide to Management* (2006, p.4-5)

draws from DuFour (1998), Deal and Peterson (1999), and MacGregor Burns (1978) in conveying leadership as a special form of power used to create a shared mission and values; to empower collaborative teams; and to change and shape organizational culture. Spillane (2004) views leadership as something more complex than leadership knowledge and action, and describes it as "the activities engaged in by leaders, in interaction with others in particular contexts around specific tasks" (p. 5). "The central task for leadership" according to Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2008) "is to help improve employee performance; and such performance is a function of employees' beliefs, values, motivations, skills and knowledge, and the conditions in which they work" (p.6).

In the field of education, leadership plays a vital role in the effectiveness of schools. According to Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) "leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school related factors that contribute toward what students learn at school" (p.5). Leaders are able to have such an impact on schools by setting directions and expectations, by developing people, and by making their organizations work (Leithwood, et al.). However, the components of leadership and ways to maximize benefits of leadership are still not well understood (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Leithwood, et al.).

Sigford (2006) contends that the literature describing leadership includes two foci: that describing traits of leaders, and that describing leadership as an entity. Trait studies have provided a wealth of information used to identify potentially effective leaders, and to improve understanding of effective leaders in general (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Efforts to understand leadership as an entity have resulted in the development of leadership models and concepts, of varied complexity, that include consideration for the interplay of: leader personal traits; situational conditions; leader behaviors and leader behavior outcomes; as well as the influence of

factors such as emotional appeal, sharing of vision and power, and the ability to inspire (Hoy & Miskel). Sigford cites Jim Collins in *Good to Great* (2001), Cynthia McCauley's 1990 report for the Center for Creative Leadership, Elaine McEwan in *10 Traits of highly Effective Principals: From Good to Great Performance* (2003), and Todd Whitaker in *What Great Principals Do Differently* (2003), while Hoy & Miskel cite Stogdill in *Traits of Leadership: A Follow-Up to 1970* (1981) and Yukl in *Leadership in Organizations* (1998) in demonstrating that attempts to understand leadership though study of effective leader traits has resulted in a multitude of descriptions of, and categories for, describing effective leaders; some generalized and some specific to position.

A review of effective leader traits discussed in Hoy and Miskel (2001), Bolman and Deal (2003), and Sigford (2006) indicates that traits associated with effective leaders include: modesty, integrity, honesty, self-confidence, emotional maturity, possession of a strong work ethic, intelligence, possession of high standards and expectations, and good communication, technical, interpersonal, conceptual, and administrative skills. However, trait studies do not conclusively find individual, or combinations of traits, within all effective leaders (Hall & Hord, 1987; Yukl, 1998; Bolman & Deal), resulting in the conclusion that there are no born leaders and that traits alone are not sufficient for understanding leadership (Bass, 1990).

Investigations of leadership as an entity also reveal that there is no clear definition of leadership, and that there exist conceptual differences with respect to understanding leadership as: a specialized role or as a social influence; distinct from management practice, position, or authority; or as inclusive of factors of leader intent, leader behaviors, or outcomes of leadership attempts (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Leithwood, 1993; Sigford, 2006). Despite these differences and disagreements, and the resulting plethora of concepts and models, leadership, as described

by Bennis (1989) in Hoy & Miskel (2001), “is like beauty – it is hard to define, but you know it when you see it (p.392).”

Conceptualizing School Leadership

School leadership, like leadership in general, is also difficult to define and is described by various concepts, theories, and models. Broadly, Leithwood and Riehl (2005) conceptualize school leadership as a set of functions, not defined by position or role, that result in a process where individuals and conditions are purposefully and directly influenced to accomplish group goals. That influence is contextual, mediated by social relationships, and contingent upon factors such as: group participants, resources, organizational culture, and leader characteristics (Leithwood& Riehl).

Elmore, in *Building a New Structure For School Leadership* (2000), broadly denotes four kinds of leadership theories: institutional, political, managerial, and cultural. Leithwood and Riehl (2005) contend that leadership, as a whole, can be considered through analysis of four major components of effective leadership practices: creation of effective organizations, development and empowerment of people, collaboration and distribution of power, and the creation of shared goals. Leithwood et al. (2008) contend that leadership, among effective school leaders, consists of practices across four major categories: building vision and setting directions; understanding and developing people; redesigning the organization; and managing the teaching and learning program. Bolman and Deal, in *Reframing Organizations* (2003), state that a comprehensive model of leadership must acknowledge the importance of relationships and contexts within which leadership practices occur, and must recognize that leadership is distinct from authority, position, and management. As such they identify four frames from which to view leadership: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic.

The structural frame of leadership analysis focuses on organizational development. This type of leadership is useful when the design, efficiency and outcomes of the organizational structure need to be assessed or modified. As such, effective structural leaders are more architects and designers than managers. To be effective, structural leaders must consider the environment in which they are situated, and create organizational structure and strategy necessary for organizational success. This often means frequent evaluation of the internal and external environment, and modification to the organization.

The human resource leadership frame centers on the development and empowerment of personnel. This type of leadership aims to create organizational cultures in which ideas and contributions of personnel are valued and encouraged. In turn, personnel, who feel that their ideas and contributions are meaningful and respected, will contribute to organizational success through their ideas and actions. Leaders of this type are visible, approachable, and good communicators. They seek the trust and respect of personnel through personal interaction, and focus on serving the needs of personnel so that personnel feel empowered to serve the needs of the organization.

Political leadership focuses on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships in order to achieve organizational goals. Leadership of this type can result in opportunities for organizational growth and acquisition of resources. Leaders of this type must be adept at identifying key stakeholders and those with influence. Further, they must be skilled at orchestrating and the directing the use of personal and stakeholder influence. Collaboration, negotiation, and use and distribution of power are skills central to effective political leadership.

Lastly, the symbolic leadership frame focuses on the development of community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs. Leadership of this type originates in the

leaders ability to interpret history and experience in creating and imparting a vision for the organization. Symbolic leaders, through words and actions, contextualize the work of personnel within the organization as aspiration to a higher calling. Leaders of this type must be adept at communicating through words, actions, and symbols.

First proposed in the early 1980's as an attempt to "capture the subtlety and complexity of life in organizations" (p.13) with powerful, simple, and useful ideas, Bolman and Deal (2003) drew from research in the social sciences and practice of scores of managers within many organizations to develop their four leadership frames. In regard to education, the frames developed by Bolman and Deal encompass the major areas of focus for school leaders described by Elmore (2000), Leithwood and Riehl (2005), and Leithwood et al. (2008). As can be seen in Table 1.1, the work of Elmore, Leithwood and Riehl, and Leithwood et al. generally align with Bolman and Deal's choice of leadership frames. The major discrepancy between Bolman and Deal and Leithwood et al., and Elmore, however, is noted in Bolman and Deal's exclusion of management-by-exception as a leadership practice. Bolman and Deal, and Sigford (2006) explicitly describe management as distinct from leadership in that management necessarily includes planning, organizing, controlling, scheduling, and multitasking; essentially running the organization, while leadership does not. Bolman and Deal cite Bennis and Nanus in *Leaders: Strategies for Taking Charge* (1985, p.21) as describing the difference between leaders and managers as "managers do things right, and leaders do the right thing".

The construction of Bolman and Deal's (2003) multi-frame leadership model is further supported by claims made by both Elmore (2000), and Leithwood et al. (2008) that, within their respective conceptions of leader theories and components, those individual theories and components fail to address improvement of instructional practices and educational outcomes, and

fail to address the role of leadership in the creation of organizational conditions in which learning is valued. Elmore further asserts that the broad individual theories he identifies are insufficient in their ability to connect leadership activity with the fundamental role of educational organizations. This claim is also echoed by Leithwood et al. in that they acknowledge that the four leadership practices they identify are not used in isolation. As such, the theories and categories noted by Elmore, and Leithwood et al., respectively, can be considered as limited to descriptions of facets of school leadership practice in general, or can be considered as too broad to capture leadership explicitly when all of their respective facets are considered as a whole. As such, with the exclusion of management of the educational program, although crucial to the mission of educating students, Bolman and Deal's choice of leadership frames is reflective of the major practices used by organizational leaders in general, and school leaders specifically.

Table 1.1
Leadership Concepts
(continued onto next page)

Elmore (2000) Theories of Leadership	**Four major components of effective leadership practices by Leithwood and Riehl (2005)**	**Leithwood et al. (2008) major leadership practices of effective school leaders**	**Bolman and Deal (2003) four frame model of leadership**
Institutional - focus entirely on the management of structures surrounding instruction	creation of effective organizations	redesigning the organization	structural frame - focuses on organizational development
Political - address only the networking and power brokering aspects of school leadership	collaboration and distribution of power		Political frame - focuses on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships in order to achieve organizational goals
	development and empowerment of people	understanding and developing people	Human resource frame - centers on the development and empowerment of personnel.

Cultural - focus only on the motivational and visionary components of school leadership	creation of shared goals	building vision and setting directions	Symbolic leadership frame - focuses on the development of community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs
Managerial - stress only the custodial role of school leaders		managing the teaching and learning program	

A Contemporary Perspective of School Leadership

A contemporary perspective of school leadership is developed through the influence of the current educational reform initiatives of NCLB, IDEA, and Race to The Top. Together, these initiatives provide the impetus for schools, districts, and states to promote and provide high quality programs, opportunities, and services for students' with and without disabilities (IDEA, 2004; NCLB, 2001; Thurlow & Thompson, 1999). NCLB, primarily considered a general education reform initiative, addresses and attempts to reduce disparities in the provision of educational services, and in the educational achievement of students. IDEA 2004 (IDEA), a special education statute, governs the quality, and provision of special education services to children with disabilities. The recent introduction of Race to the Top provides financial incentive for states to voluntarily advance education reform initiatives aligned with current federal law (Race to the Top, 2010).

The major components of NCLB (2001), referred to as the four 'pillars', address avenues for transforming priorities and practices in educational settings. The first pillar describes accountability provisions for schools, districts, and states failing to reach state determined levels of academic proficiency for all students. State determined levels of academic proficiency are defined as measures of "adequate yearly progress" (AYP) and apply to student populations as a whole, as well as ethnic, gender, socio-economic, and special education demographic subgroups. The second pillar contains provisions for states and districts to allot federal education funds to

support identified areas of need such as professional development, and improved teacher training. The third promotes the identification, development, and support of educational programs and practices proven to be effective through scientific research. The fourth, and last, pillar provides options for school choice, and mandates supplemental educational services when schools fail to meet state achievement standards.

IDEA (2004), as described in *Alignment of IDEA and NCLB* (2007), is aligned with the four pillars of NCLB (2001) through several requirements and provisions. IDEA provisions align with accountability measures described within the first pillar of NCLB through the requirement that states establish performance goals and indicators for students with disabilities. Performance goals are required to meet the state definition for adequate yearly progress as described in NCLB. States must also report progress towards the attainment of performance goals to the U.S. Department of Education and to the public. Alignment with the second, third and fourth pillars: (a) providing funding to support professional development, and improved teacher training, (b) the development and promotion of effective scientific and research based educational programs and practices, (c) and in the provision of supplemental educational services, can be found in IDEA's allowances for flexibility to use funds to: (a) develop school-wide programs, (b) develop accommodations or alternate assessments for students with disabilities, and 9c) to provide direct or supplemental educational services for students with disabilities. Further alignment with pillar two is the requirement that states align qualification standards for special education teachers with the highly qualified teacher definition in NCLB.

Race to the Top (2010), a federal grant competition begun in 2010 , was "designed to spur systemic reform and embrace for innovative approaches to teaching and learning in America's schools" (Fact Sheet: The Race to the Top | The White House). This grant program

promotes state development and implementation of reform initiatives aligned with the goals of NCLB (2001) and IDEA (2004) in the areas of: (a) standards and assessments, (b) teacher and administrator preparation and retention, (c) collection and use of data to improve instruction, improvement of low-performing schools, and (d) in the promotion of innovation and collaboration to improve student achievement (Fact Sheet: The Race to the Top | The White House). More specifically, Race to the Top provides a competitive grant process in which states must demonstrate that LEA's are decreasing achievement gaps among student subgroups described in NCLB and that states will adopt national academic standards and assessments aligned with those standards. Further, states must develop and implement a statewide longitudinal data-system that links individual student performance to individual teachers, principals, and educator preparation programs in order to help assess and evaluate student, teacher, school, district and state progress in meeting achievement standards. States must also develop and support alternative routes to teacher and principal certification, and increase the number of teachers in shortage areas such as special education. Effective teachers and administrators must also be assigned to schools in a way that ensures that the neediest schools are staffed with high performing personnel. Lastly, Race to the Top promotes increased collaboration and quality of professional development for staff so that all students are able to access high quality instruction that address diverse learning needs and styles (Race to the Top Program Executive Summary, 2009).

These reform initiatives provide a basis for contemporary expectations of school leaders that center on their improving teaching practice, and achievement of all students (Billingsley, 2004; Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2009). For school leaders, improving teaching practice means improving the interaction between teacher and student as this is where instructional strategies

succeed or fail (Copeland, 2003). Instructional improvement, according to Barber and Mourshed (2007), is the major factor responsible for variations in student achievement, while leadership effects are second to instructional effects on student learning outcomes (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2008). Therefore, through education reforms, school leaders have the responsibility to address the core function of school personnel by influencing instruction directly, and student learning outcomes indirectly (Leithwood and Riehl).

How can School Leaders meet the Leadership Demands of Education Reform?

School leaders according to Elmore's (2000) conceptual article *Building a New Structure for School Leadership*, have not been able to respond to the demands of standards based reform initiatives, particularly the successful implementation of large scale improvement of instruction. They have they not been able to do so historically, and are not equipped to do so currently (Elmore). Elmore attributes this inability of school leadership to make meaningful and substantial changes to instructional practices to a tradition of management of school structures and processes that do not affect the "technical core" (p.6) of teaching. Instead, he contends that school leaders operate in a manner described as 'loose-coupling' in which leadership: "(1) protects teachers from outside intrusions in their highly uncertain and murky work, and (2) creates the appearance of rational management of the technical core, so as to allay the uncertainties of the public about the actual quality or legitimacy of what is happening in the technical core" (p.6). Addressing the 'technical core' of teaching he contends, will require leadership that influences instruction explicitly. As a means to that end, Elmore advocates for a distribution of leadership within schools. Distribution of leadership, he contends, will allow for the "concerted action" (p.36), among personnel with various areas of expertise, to achieve the "large scale improvement (p.36)" required in contemporary schools. For school leaders, this

means a transformation of the leadership role to one in which the primary responsibilities are the development of personnel, creation of a common culture, collaboration among organizational components, and individual accountability for results. The construction or design of distributed practice remains to be worked out.

Stein and Nelson (2003), in their conceptual article *Leadership Content Knowledge*, promote the idea that school leader subject area expertise is critical to school leader ability to improve instruction. The article is based on their cross-case analysis of two published case studies involving a principal of a small elementary school, an assistant superintendent in a small district, and three high level administrators in New York City. Analysis of cases aimed at identifying evidence of use of leaders' content knowledge within their leadership roles. Stein and Nelson find that "content knowledge becomes less fine-grained as administrative levels increase and functions become broader" (p.446), and promote the idea that "all administrators need to possess a mastery of at least one subject (and the learning and teaching of it) and need to develop expertise in other subjects" (p.446) in order to provide a basis for distributed leadership in schools. Simply put, they claim that school leaders, in order to affect and improve instruction and student learning outcomes, "must be able to know strong instruction when they see it, to encourage it when they don't, and to set the conditions for continuous academic learning among their professional staffs" (p,424). To that end, Stein and Nelson see administrator ability to understand the connections and dynamics between subject matter knowledge, teaching, and learning as crucial to their ability to act as effective leaders capable of improving instruction and student outcomes. The basis of their argument, however, is supported only by findings from three case studies conducted by others. Furthermore, within the case studies, no objective measures of administrator content knowledge are utilized, making it impossible to ascertain any

meaningful descriptor of actual leader content knowledge. As such Stein and Nelson's findings are primarily based on participants' utilization of generalized knowledge within the performance of their roles.

Barber and Mourshed (2007), in their report *How the World's Best Performing Systems Came Out on Top*, discuss findings from: (1) an analysis of the top performing schools internationally according to Programme for International Student Achievement, (2) a literature survey, and (3) interviews with over one hundred experts, and denote three guiding principles for school leaders that will enable them to improve educational outcomes for all students. Those principles are: 1) school leaders must understand that the quality of the educational program is dependent on the quality of the teachers, 2) improvement of educational outcomes is dependent on improvement of instruction and, 3) to ensure high quality instruction, mechanisms for providing high quality instruction are required. These mechanisms are identified as: 1) setting high expectations for student achievement, 2) monitoring outcomes at the school and student levels, and 3) intervening at the school and student levels. Barber and Mourshed also identify the following four policies and practices characteristic of top performing school systems in countries that consistently rank in the top five or six internationally in the areas of literacy, numeracy, and science: 1) the recruitment of high quality teachers; 2) the development and sustainment of quality instructional practices; 3) the development of instructionally oriented leaders; 4) and the use of data-based practices for monitoring achievement of students, schools, and sets of schools.

Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2008), in *Seven Strong Claims About Successful School Leadership*, highlight the importance and impact of school leadership on teaching and learning, and identify practices for the development of successful contemporary

school leaders. The bases for their claims derive from their literature review conducted as part of an empirical study investigating 'strong claims' about successful school leadership. They draw from both qualitative and quantitative studies investigating school leadership effects, and effects on student achievement to make seven claims.

First, they claim that "School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning" (p.3). This finding is based on research conducted by Gezi (1990), Reitzug and Patterson (1998), Scheurich (1998), Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005), Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003), and literature reviews Hallinger and Heck (1996a, 1996b, 1998). Research indicates that student achievement and school conditions within 'exceptional' school settings are significantly affected by school leaders influence (Gezi; Reitzug and Patterson; Scheurich). Hallinger and Heck's work indicates that school leaders have small yet significant direct and indirect effects on student learning, and an ability to 'turn around' student achievement trends. Lastly, work by Marzano,Waters and McNulty, Waters, Marzano and McNulty indicates that if leaders were to facilitate the improvement of instruction in the twenty-one areas identified as school leader responsibilities, then student test scores would improve significantly.

Second, "almost all successful leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices" (p.3). Leithwood et al. (2008) find that the work of school leaders can be captured by four categories: "building vision and setting directions; understanding and developing people; redesigning the organisation; and managing the teaching and learning programme" (p.7). Identified category labels are aligned with those noted by Leithwood & Riehl (2005) and with managerial behaviors developed by Yukl (1998).

Third, “the ways in which leaders apply these basic leadership practices, not the practices themselves, demonstrate responsiveness to, rather than dictation by, the contexts in which they work” (Leithwood et al., 2008, p.3). Furthermore, research evidence supports the usefulness of these practices in reforming ‘turn around’ schools. More simply, Leithwood et al. find that successful school leaders do not allow context to dictate practices, but utilize context to inform choice of implementation of basic practices. For example, at the early stages of the ‘turn around’ process school leadership may need to set directions explicitly, while at later stages, high staff involvement may be needed in order to create a new school vision.

Fourth, “school leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions (p.3).” This claim is based primarily on evidence from research conducted by Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) indicating that school leaders can improve staff performance in regard to the above mentioned areas. However, little evidence was found indicating school leader ability to positively affect staff content knowledge.

Fifth, “school leadership has a greater influence on schools and students when it is widely distributed (p.3).” That is, leadership “provided by many possible sources, such as: individual teachers, staff teams, parents, central office staff, students, vice-principals, principals or the headteacher (p.12).” This claim is based on research findings by Leithwood and Mascall (2008), indicating that the combined leadership effects from a variety of sources have significant relationships to staff performance in the areas of: capacity, motivation and commitment, and working conditions.

Sixth, “some patterns of distribution are more effective than others” (p.3). Leithwood et al. base this claim on research findings claiming that schools with the highest student

achievement levels claim to have high levels of influence from all leadership sources. Low achieving schools claimed to have low levels of influence from all leadership sources. Differences in sources of influence between high achieving and low achieving schools included school teams, parents, and students. Headteachers were found to have the highest rated influence within schools.

Last, "a small handful of personal traits explain a high proportion of the variation in leadership effectiveness (p.3). Based on research by Leithwood and Jantzi, *Linking Leadership to Student Learning: The Contribution of Leader Efficacy* (2006), this claim is supported by the identification of: open mindedness, a readiness to learn from others, flexibility in thinking, persistence, resilience, and optimism as traits of successful school leaders.

Spillane, Parise, and Sherer (2011) in their qualitative study entitled *Organizational Routines as Coupling Mechanisms: Policy, Administration, and the Technical Core*, explore how school administrators respond to and embed government regulation into organizational procedures. Spillane, et al. conducted case studies of four elementary schools in Chicago, IL over the years 1999-2003, to understand how classroom instruction was coupled with the Chicago School Reform Amendatory Act of 1999. Formal leaders in each school, principals, assistant principals, etc.., a sample of teachers, and those staff identified as informal leaders were interviewed. Semi-structured interviews and observations, shadowing, document review, and surveys were used to collect data, and data analysis was conducted in three phases to support researcher creation of case studies.

Spillane, et al. (2011) make two assertions as a result of their analysis of case study data. First, they argue that "school leaders transformed the school structure by designing new organizational routines in an effort at coupling administrative practice with government

regulation and with dimensions of the technical core" (p. 595). Second, they argue that "government regulation and the technical core figured predominantly and often together in the performance of organizational routines" (p. 596). Spillane, et al. also find that the redesigning of organizational routines emerged as the predominant means for responding to regulations, and that the creation and implementation of those routines was not merely symbolic. Instead, school leaders appeared to legitimately comply with regulatory requirements for teaching and student achievement standards.

This finding contradicts Elmore's (2000) perspective on school leadership as operating in a 'loose-coupling' manner in which leadership insulates, or buffers teachers and instruction from outside influences. Two main reasons for legitimate compliance appear to be evident: (1) the Chicago regulations contain punitive measures resulting from failure to implement changes, and (2) required changes are clearly articulated, and primarily addressable by school leadership through a redesign of organizational structures.

Accountability measures linked to student performance criteria, within the Chicago regulations, foreshadow those in NCLB 2001, and included school restructuring, and replacement of faculty and administration provisions. As such failure to attend to regulations was not an acceptable option for leaders.

In regard to school leaders' actions in redesigning organizational routines, that response appears to be an obvious and necessary response to the regulatory requirements for implementing provided curriculum standards, and for ensuring student attainment of associated achievement standards. Because school leaders were required to ensure that provided curriculum standards were incorporated into the school's current curricula; integration and alignment of curricula was a naturally occurring part of that process. Improved and more frequent assessment

of student achievement within curriculum standards was also a naturally occurring redesign step. School leaders were provide clear achievement standards, the tool by which those standards were to be measured, the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, and clear accountability measures for failure to achieve standards. As such, curricula standardization, transparency of classroom practice, and monitoring of student and teacher performance became primary foci of leadership (Spillane, et al.). At three of the four schools, monitoring of student performance became the primary focus (Spillane, et al). Further, curricula within tested subject areas became narrowed, and focused on tested skills (Spillane, et al.).

Collectively, the findings of Elmore (2000), Stein and Nelson (2003), Barber and Mourshed (2007), Leithwood et al. (2008), and Spillane, et al. (2011) see Table 1.2, indicate that the instructional, and student achievement improvements demanded by education reforms are able to be met by school leaders. Research shows that school leaders can, and do, have the ability of affect instruction directly, and student achievement indirectly (Leithwood et al.).

Table 1.2
Summary of Research
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant (s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
Elmore	2000	Conceptual	The improvement of teaching and learning within educational systems requires a change in the conception and practice of leadership			Schools operate on a loose-coupling administrative structure that does not allow leaders to effectively address standards based reform. Large scale reform requires a distribution of leadership and a system for	Article is based on the authors work and little research evidence.

						implementing reform.	
Stein and Nelson	2003	Qualitative	"Leadership content knowledge is a missing paradigm in the analysis of school and district leadership"(Stein & Nelson, 2003, p.423).	Cross-case analysis of three cases	Principal of an elementary school within a small city, an associate superintendent of a small school district, and an urban superintendent, his deputy, and the director of mathematics of a school District in New York City.	All administrators need to possess a mastery of the teaching and learning of at least one subject. This mastery supports the development of expertise in the teaching and learning of other subjects. Expertise in multiple subjects provides a basis for distributed leadership in schools.	The study attempts to compare the leadership content knowledge identified within three distinct cases. However, no objective measure of content knowledge is used, i.e. mathematics content assessments, to establish baselines. Therefore, the study appears to be more of an assessment of the generalized knowledge about the content that various administrators utilize to perform their roles instead of an assessment
Barber and Mourshed	2007	Conceptual	At the school system level, what do high performing and rapidly improving school systems have in common?	Analysis of 25 school systems including ten of the top performing schools internationally using rankings by the Programme for International Student Achievement, a survey of the literature, and interviews with over one hundred experts, policy makers and practitioners.	25 national and large urban school districts within the United States that participate in the PISA..	Top performing school systems: recruit from selective teacher training programs that select from the top third of high school graduates, pay teachers well, set high expectations, monitor performance, intervene at the school level, focus	No clear description of interviewees or participants and no clear methodology described.

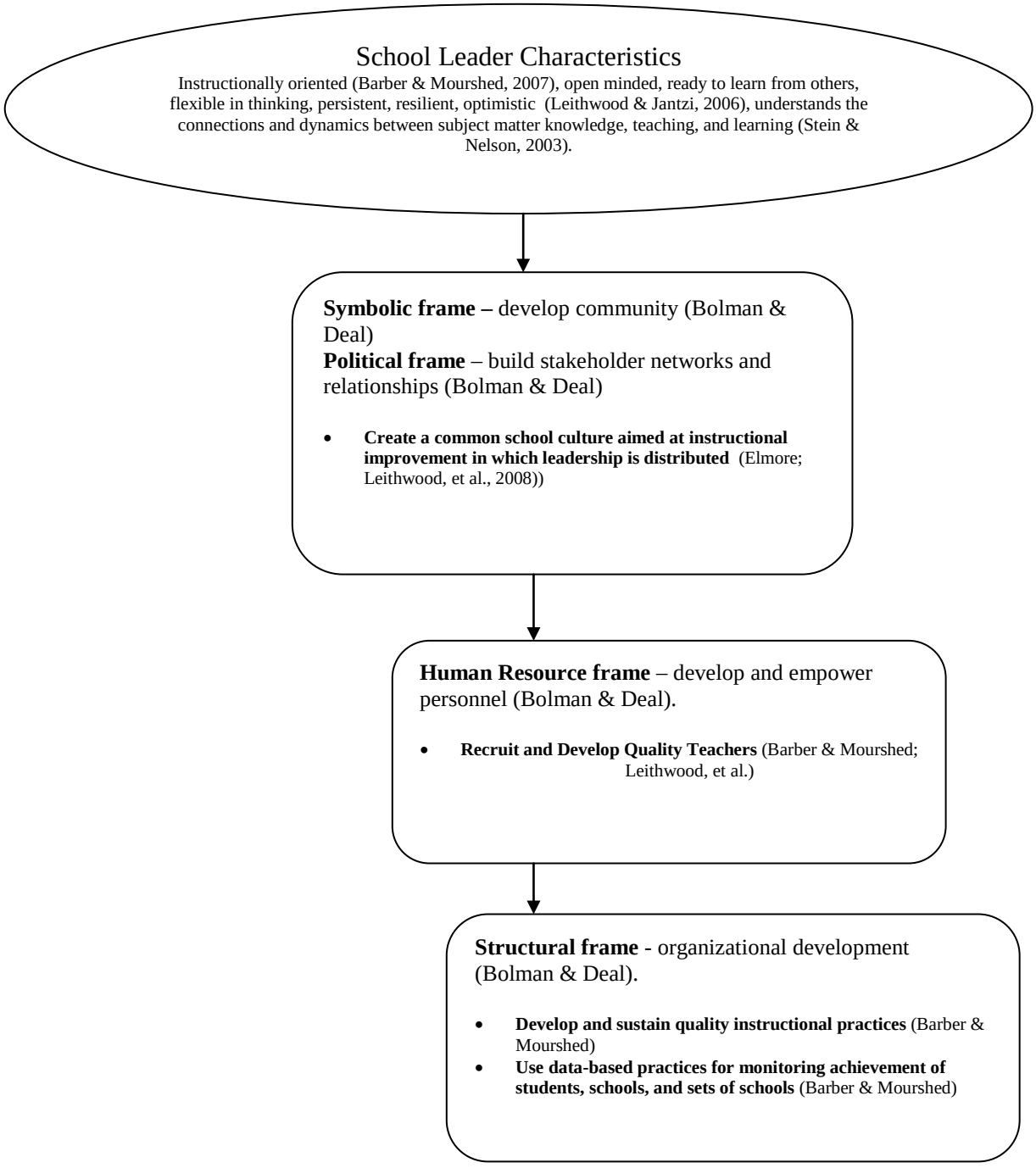
						on improving teachers' practice, and utilize instructional interventions are aimed at individual students.	
Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins	2008	Conceptual	"There are some quite important things that we do know about school leadership, and claims that we can now make with some confidence" (Leithwood et al, 2008, p.15).	literature review	case study evidence, large-scale quantitative studies of overall leader effects, large scale quantitative about the effects of specific leadership practices, studies of leadership effects on pupil engagement, studies of leadership succession	Seven claims about school leadership	The findings can be considered as reflective of Leithwood's work as he was involved in research, or authored or edited work on which five of the findings are based. Further, Leithwood is an author or editor for 17 of the research articles or books cited.
Spillane, Parise, Sherer	2011	Qualitative	How do "school leaders respond to a shifting policy environment" (p.587).	Case Study	Four public elementary schools in Chicago, IL.	School leaders transformed formal structures to align with standards and assessment regulations.	Data collection occurred between 1999 and 2003. Study provides evidence of school leader response to Chicago School Reform Amendatory Act of 1995.

Synthesis of School Leadership Findings

A synthesis of the findings, see Figure 1.1 below, indicates that school leaders need to possess experiential understandings of the dynamics and connections between subject area content and effective instruction, and function in ways that enable multi-source influence of instructional practices. From those understandings the recruitment into, and development of, effective teachers within a collaborative school culture focused on instructional improvement may occur (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood, et al., 2008). Instructional practices and organizational routines, based on high expectations for student achievement, are then designed and implemented through multi-source input (Spillane, et al. 2011). The sustainment of those practices is carried out via feedback from procedures monitoring the efficacy of those practices at the school, classroom, and individual student levels (Barber & Mourshed).

Figure 1.1 also illustrates the alignment of school leader functioning aimed at attaining education reform demands with the leadership frames identified by Bolman and Deal (2003). Inspection of Figure 1.1 reveals that each of the frames is represented within the diagram. Actions within the symbolic and political frames are basis for the development of a school culture focused on instruction in which there exist multiple sources of influence. Focus is then on the human resource frame in which teacher development occurs within that culture. The structural frame then becomes the focus of the next two steps in which instructional practices and organizational routines for improving practice are developed. Performance monitoring, and intervention structures are then developed and implemented.

Figure 1.1
Synthesis of School Leadership Findings



The Influence of Education Reform on the General Education Leader's Role as a Leader of Special Education

For contemporary school leaders, a focus on instructional improvement includes an explicit responsibility to consider the needs of students with disabilities. According to Bays and Crockett (2007), reform initiatives have created an educational climate in which special education has become a major concern and a major resource. "School principals", according to Katsiyannis (1994), "are responsible for ensuring the appropriate education of all students, including those with disabilities" (p.6). Principals, according to Gersten and colleagues (2001), as cited in DiPaola and Walther-Thomas (2003), have the ability to affect "virtually all critical aspects of (special education) teachers working conditions (p.557)". Principals, therefore, must have the competence to ensure the provision of appropriate special education programs and services (Katsiyannis, 1994). This requires school leaders to have a working understanding of the requirements of NCLB (2001) and IDEA (2004) along with: (a) an ability to understand and recognize good instructional practice, (b) an ability to provide classroom and personnel resources necessary for meeting students' needs, and (c) an ability to recognize the importance of, and use, data and progress monitoring in order to evaluate program effectiveness (DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran & Walther-Thomas, 2004; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas,). Few school leaders, however, are well prepared to provide this type of leadership in the area of special education (Crockett, 2002; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas).

DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran & Walther-Thomas (2004), in their conceptual article *School Principals and Special Education: Creating the Context for Academic Success*, discuss the impact of education reform on principal leadership in regard to special education. As a starting point, they find that principals, particularly those with little experience within the role, are

generally unprepared and unskilled in regard to their ability to oversee special education programs and services. Given contemporary demands on school leaders, they find that "if school reform goals are to be realized, effective leaders must be prepared to address diverse learning needs" (DiPaola et al., p.8). To that end they find that principals need to give particular attention to two key areas: developing the knowledge and skills of staff, and involving their communities in the implementation of that knowledge and of those skills. In regard to special education specifically, attention to those areas requires a "focus on fundamental instructional issues, demonstration of strong support for special education, and provision of ongoing professional development " (DiPaola, et al., p.3). Effective leaders, they state, need to develop and work with teams to identify and address areas in which student performance may be improved (Crockett, 2002; Gersten et al., 2001; Gonzalez, 1996; Keefe & Jenkins, 2002; Wald, 1998 as cited by DiPaola et al.). Further, they need facilitate the use of effective research based practices (Bateman & Bateman, 2001; CEC, 2001 in DiPaola & Walther-Thomas, 2003). In meeting reform goals DiPaola, et al. describe five areas in which school leadership practices may improve special education services: (a) promoting an inclusive school culture; (b) providing instructional leadership; (c) modeling collaborative leadership; (d) administering organizational processes; and, (e) building and maintaining positive relations with teachers, families, and the community" (see Table 3).

Crockett (2002), in her conceptual article *Special Education's Role in Preparing Responsive Leaders for Inclusive Schools*, proposes a framework for school leadership development that describes knowledge and skills necessary for school leaders working within an inclusive school environment. The framework contains five interacting core principles: (a) ethical practice (b) individual consideration, (c) equity under the law, (d) effective programming

and (f) establishing productive partnerships. Core principles are considered as interacting as addressing one, according to Crockett, leads to consideration of each of the others. As such the core principles can be viewed as interacting components, or facets, of an overarching perspective on school leadership that combines both general and special education leadership roles. Inspection of principle specifics reveals that the core principles can be considered as centered on the school leaders role in developing, implementing, and evaluating instructional programs for students of all abilities (see Table 1.3).

The findings of DiPaola et al. (2004), and Crockett (2002), see Table 1.3, significantly overlap in their findings for the need for contemporary school leaders to create school cultures in which academic achievement for all students is valued, supported, and realized. The realization of such a vision, according to DiPaola et al., and Crockett, will require school leaders to have both the knowledge and skills to understand and recognize the diverse learning needs of student groups and individual students, and to identify, implement, and monitor instructional strategies that meet those learning needs. Such a task, both claim, will require the collaborative efforts of school leaders, teachers, students, families, and community leaders to inform decision-making that will improve the educational experiences of all students. Embedded within these efforts is the need for school leaders to understand and utilize research, to utilize analytical skills, and to understand and comply with legal requirements.

Table 1.3
Areas of emphasis for school leaders in order to improve special education services
(continued onto next page)

Five core principles for the development of responsive leaders in inclusive schools (Crockett, 2002).	**The Principal's Role in Providing Effective Special Education Services** (DiPaola et al., 2004)
Ethical practice - providing for, and advocating for educational opportunities for all students.	Promoting an inclusive school culture – development of a school context that supports achievement for all students

Effective Programming – ability to supervise and evaluate both generalized and individualized instructional program that include high expectations and research based practices. Individual Consideration – understanding the relationship between individual needs and specialized instructional practices. Equity under the law – ability to understand and comply with educational laws, and to advocate for policies supporting individualized instruction. Establishing Productive Partnerships – ability to collaborate with other on behalf of students with disabilities.	Providing instructional leadership – have knowledge and skills that permit a deep understanding of what is happening in every classroom. Administering organizational processes - set clear expectations for faculty and staff, treat staff with professional respect, be able to analyze data effectively. Modeling collaborative leadership – encourage and involve multiple stakeholders in developing, implementing, and evaluating comprehensive instructional programs and finding creative solutions to problems. Building and maintaining positive relations with teachers, families, and the community - seek diverse input on important school matters, listen thoughtfully to the opinions of their students, families, school personnel, and community leaders, and make well-informed decisions.

Table 1.4
Summary of Leadership Articles

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
Crockett	2002	Conceptual	Examination of " special education's role in preparing knowledgeable and skillful leaders for inclusive schools that strive to serve a wide range of students" (Crockett, 2002, p.147)..	Model and core principals are developed. Correspondence with administrator practice is assessed through use of focus groups.	40 school principals and assistant principals	A model for school leadership development is proposed as a means of preparing school leaders to effectively serve the needs of students with disabilities. Five core principles are also identified.	The proposed model is not tested and is proposed as a guide to help prepare school leaders.
DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran & Walther-Thomas	2004	Conceptual	Contemporary reforms require school leaders to be able to effectively address diverse learning needs. Most school leaders are not prepared to do so.			five areas are identified in which school leadership practices may affect special education services:	There are no specific research based indicators to support the effectiveness of any of the proposed practices in general, and there is no indication of how these practices may vary according to the school level.

The Influence of Education Reform on the Special Education Leader's Role as a Leader of Special Education

Education reform initiatives have also influenced, and continue to influence, the role of the special education administrator (Bays & Crockett, 2007; Boscardin, 2004; DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran, & Walther-Thomas, 2004). Research in the fields of special and general education, in relation to educational reform efforts, provides insight into the current demands on educational leadership practices that are redefining the role of special education leadership.

O'Brien's (2006) qualitative study *"They Know Who I Am" – Leadership Capabilities in Special Education*, sought to identify leadership capabilities specific to special education leaders. O'Brien utilized the School Leadership Capability Framework developed by the New South Wales Department of Education and Training as a means to categorize comments collected during semi-structured interviews of 64 participants across five countries. Fifty four of the sixty-four interviewees were categorized as Special Education Administration at the District or Higher Level, or Special Education School Leaders, while the remaining ten were involved with general education leadership. The study addressed two research questions: 1) "Are there capabilities for school leaders which are particularly or even exclusively critical to successful leadership in special education, and 2) Are there special education components in leadership professional development programs currently being implemented?" (p. 1). Participant comments were categorized into the five Leadership Capability Framework domains considered to be essential for school leaders in general: educational, personal, strategic, organizational and interpersonal.

Study results indicated that all five domains were considered by participants to be important to the field of special education administration. Results showed that participants

overwhelmingly considered capabilities within the interpersonal and personal themes, 72% of the overall comments, to be especially important to effective special education leadership (O'Brien, 2006). Within the interpersonal domain, 74% of comments fell within the component of productive relationships, in which "School leaders develop and sustain productive relationships within and beyond the school community" (p.4). Analysis of the personal domain showed that 58% of comments fell within the component describing "school leaders use (of) their knowledge of self to maximize overall performance of themselves and others" (p.5). Most often found in the Educational domain were comments describing school leaders' ability to develop and sustain professional learning communities. Building learning communities, and management of resources to achieve goals accounted for 97% of comments within the Organizational domain. Strategic planning through the systematic gathering and evaluation of information was the dominant component within the Strategic domain.

Crockett, Becker, and Quinn (2009), in *Reviewing the Knowledge Base of Special Education Leadership and Administration From 1970-2009*, conducted a review of 474 articles found within professional journals regarding special education leadership from 1970-2009. The purpose of which was to identify themes and trends within the literature. Classification and categorization of articles revealed eight predominant themes, five of which account for 74% of the sampled literature: (a) law and policy; (b) personnel training and development; (c) leadership preparation and development; (d) leadership roles and responsibilities; and (e) learning environments. The remaining three were: (f) accountability for student learning, (g) collaboration, and (h) technology (Crockett et al.). Since 2000, the majority of articles published within each theme focused on, respectively: (a) the dual impact of IDEA and NCLB, (b) professional development and retention, (c) high quality special education instruction and

improved administrator knowledge, (d) improving instruction for all students, (e) inclusive learning environments, (f) whole school reform aimed at improving learning for all students, and (g) collaboration among parents and professionals about instruction. The technology theme did not contain enough articles to address trends. From the decade of the 1990's to the decade of the 2000's, published articles within the accountability for student learning, and collaboration themes more than doubled and were the first and fourth most type of articles found between 2000 and 2010, respectively. Law and policy, and personnel training and development were second and third, respectively. The increase in articles focusing on accountability and collaboration reflects a change from the decade of the 1990's in which learning environment, law and policy, personnel training and development, and accountability for student learning were the top four in number of sampled articles.

Boscardin, McCarthy, and Delgado (2009) contend that newly developed CEC 2009 Administrator of Special Education Standards address the knowledge and skills considered important for the development of educational leaders responsible for special education services. These standards were developed to reflect the current demands for inclusive practice and accountability and are intended for use as guidelines for districts, states, and institutions of higher education to "create a vision, develop policy, and provide practice parameters" (Boscardin et al., p.78). Described as integrative, the newly developed standards are the product of professional input from educator organizations, federal education agencies, and researchers in addressing leadership knowledge and skills in the areas of: (a) leadership and policy, (b) program development and organization, (c) research and inquiry, (d) evaluation, (e) professional development and ethical practice, and (f) collaboration. Further, the areas of knowledge and skill are identified as "responsive and anticipatory of the needs of the field" (p.77).

Billingsley, Boscardin, and Lashley (unpublished) in *Expanding the Leadership Framework: An Alternate View of Professional Standards* discuss the historical evolution of educational reform, and contributions of professional organizations, and experts in the field on special education leadership professional standards. Contemporary considerations for the further development of special education leadership standards, they claim, include the influence of accountability measures contained within current educational reform initiatives, and the accompanying need for effective, inclusive, instructional practices (Billingsley et al.). Their identification of special education administration leadership domains builds primarily on the six Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards, and the six Professional Standards for Administrators of Special Education developed by the Council for Exceptional Children (Billingsley et al.).

Table 1.5
Areas identified as important to the work of special education leaders.
(continued onto next page)

Themes identified as most important to the capabilities of special education administrators (O'Brien, 2006, p.3)	**Themes identified within professional journals, since 2000, regarding special education leadership (Crockett, et al., 2009, p.57)**	**CEC 2009 Administrator of Special Education knowledge and skills areas (Boscardin, et al., 2009, p.77)**	**Special Education Administration Leadership Domains (Billingsley et al., unpublished)**
	Law and Policy - the dual impact of IDEA and NCLB	Leadership and Policy – knowledge and use of laws and policies to meet needs of children with disabilities.	Leadership, Policy, & School Reform- Inspiring others, applying the laws & policies, managing organizational systems & processes, & engaging in meaningful strategic planning
Personal - school leaders use (of) their knowledge of self to maximize overall performance of themselves and others	Personnel Training and Development - professional development and retention	Professional Development and Ethical Practice – provides training and advocacy for the inclusion and ethical treatment of students with disabilities	Human Resource Development & Supervision - Professional values & ethics, commitment to ongoing personal & professional development, staff hiring, retention, supervision, & evaluation, intellectual stimulation, rewards, affirmation
Educational - leaders' ability to develop and sustain professional learning communities	Leadership Preparation and Development – need for effective leaders with inclusive schools, and for high quality special education instruction	Program Development and Organization – knowledge and skill in developing and implementing effective and inclusive instructional programs.	Instructional Leadership - Pedagogical knowledge & application, building learning communities
Strategic - strategic planning through the systematic gathering and evaluation of information		Research and Inquiry –ability to understand and utilize data and research. Evaluation – ability to evaluate and monitor achievement, practices and programs for students with disabilities.	Evaluation of Educational Programs & Program Outcomes - Assessment of learning outcomes, evaluation of program effectiveness, monitoring, decision-making, judgment Research & Inquiry - Publications, research design, data analysis

	Leadership Roles and Responsibilities - improving instruction for all students Learning Environments – development of inclusive learning environments		Context for Leadership - Building an inclusive vision, culture, order, discipline, & situational awareness, creating an environment that maximizes learning
Interpersonal - school leaders develop and sustain productive relationships within and beyond the school community	Collaboration and Communication With Stakeholders - collaboration among parents and professionals about instruction.	Collaboration – communicates with, and involves all stakeholders in developing and providing services to students with disabilities.	Collaborative Leadership -Interpersonal, relationships, community building, communication
	Accountability for Student Learning - whole school reform aimed at improving learning for all students		
Organizational - building learning communities and management of resources to achieve goals			Economic Resource Management & Leadership - Creating fiscal equity, linking budgets to educational goals, managing systems & processes
			Technology & Information Systems - Data gathering and analysis, data warehousing, data sharing, technology assisted instruction, communication infra-structures

Similarities and differences in the work of Billingsley et al. (unpublished), Boscardin et al. (2009), Crockett et al. (2009), and O'Brien (2006), are shown in Table 1.5. Collectively, the work/findings of all four represent knowledge and skills, themes, and capabilities considered to be important to, or at the forefront of, contemporary special education leadership. Boscardin et al.'s findings derive from their work aimed at the "creation and validation of an integrative set of national standards for special education administration" (p.68). Participants within their study included, primarily, members of the Council of Administrators of Special Education, and the National Association of State Directors of Special Education. The findings of Crockett et al. derive from their review of 474 articles found within professional journals regarding special education leadership from 1970-2009. Themes and trends found within the literature since 2000 regarding special education leadership are utilized within this paper. Leadership capabilities identified by O'Brien result from interviews of 64 participants, primarily special education administrators at the district or higher level, or special education school leaders, across five countries. Capabilities for school leaders are considered to be particularly, or even exclusively, critical to successful leadership in special education. Finally, Billingsley et al.'s expanded standards derive from expert consideration and analysis of the development, and evolution of special education leadership standards with special consideration given to leadership demands resulting from contemporary education influences. Taken together, the work of Billingsley et al., Boscardin et al., Crockett et al., and O'Brien, Table 1.6, represent four different perspectives from which understanding of the needs and demands on special education leadership can be derived.

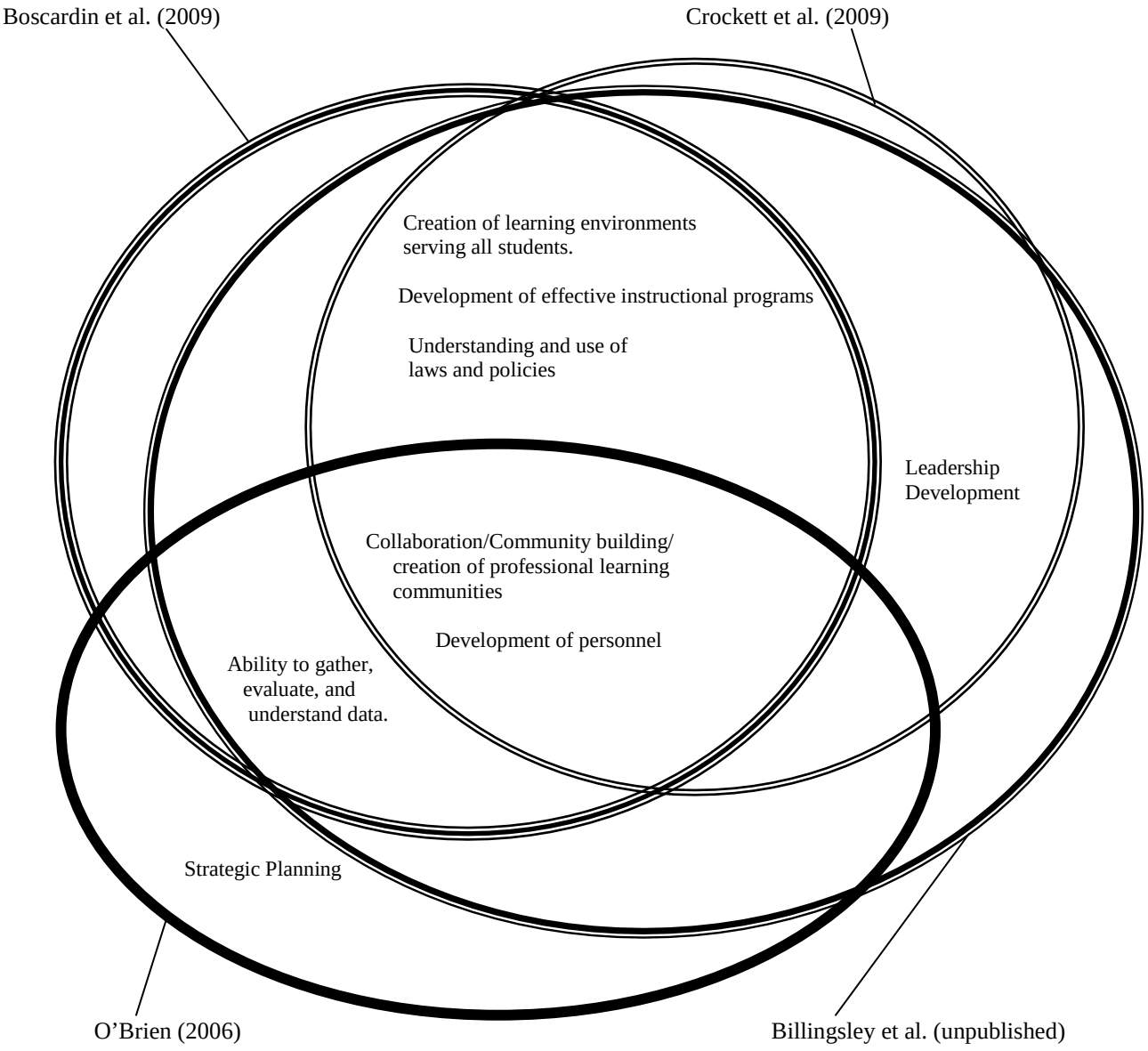
Table 1.6
Summary of Special Education Leadership Articles
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
O'Brien	2006	Qualitative	"This study hypothesizes that there are components of successful school leadership of particular importance to the field of special education, and that school leaders with responsibility for special education programs will benefit from professional development in these areas" (O'Brien, 2006,p.1).	The School Leadership Capability Framework developed by the New South Wales Department of Education and Training was utilized as a means to categorize comments collected during semi-structured interviews of 64 participants across five countries.	64 participants across five countries. Fifty four of the sixty-four interviewees were categorized as Special Education Administration at the District or Higher Level, or Special Education School Leaders, while the remaining ten were involved with general education leadership.	Comments were categorized into the five domains which are considered to be essential for school leaders in general.	The usefulness of the research is limited to consideration of somewhat broad capabilities. Further, there is no data to support the effectiveness of identified capabilities.
Crockett, Becker and Quinn	2009	Conceptual	The intent of the study is to "review how special education administration and leadership has been conceptualized over time and to examine the extent to which current calls for preparing educational leaders to address diversity, teamwork, and technology are manifested in the literature" (p.56).	literature review	474 articles found within professional journals regarding special education leadership from 1970-2009.	Classification and categorization of articles revealed eight predominant themes	A literature based perspective may not be reflective of leadership themes important to the development of actual leader practices.

Boscardin, McCarthy, and Delgado	2009	Conceptual	article "provides a broad overview of the literature and processes and procedures used to create and validate an integrative set of national standards for special education administration" (Boscardin, et al., 2009, p.68).	Review of evidenced based literature, two separate Q-sorts, and surveys using Likert scales	11 experts, CASE Board of Directors, 1100 members of CASE, 20 members of NASDSE, 3 members of NPBEA, 1 other.	Development of standards regarding the knowledge and skills considered important for the development of educational leaders responsible for special education services	The standards are intended to be used as guidelines for school districts, states, and institutions of higher education. Further, there is no link between standards and educational outcomes.
Billingsley, Boscardin, and Lashley	unpub lished	Conceptual	Discusses the historical evolution of educational reform, and contributions of professional organizations, and experts in the field on special education leadership professional standards.			Identify a nine domain framework for special education leadership and administration	no link between standards and educational outcomes

As can be seen within Figure 1.2, findings from each perspective identify the need for collaboration and involvement of stakeholders, and the development of personnel as important to the work of special education leaders. Billingsley et al. (unpublished), Boscardin et al. (2009), and Crockett et al. (2009) identify the creation of inclusive learning environments serving the instructional needs of all students, the development of effective instructional programs, and the special education leaders ability to understand and use laws and policies as important to special education leadership. Billingsley et al., Boscardin et al., and O'Brien (2006) identify the special education leader's ability to gather, evaluate, and understand data as important. Leadership development is identified by both Billingsley et al., and Crockett et al., while Crockett et al. identifies accountability for student learning as an important component to special education leadership.

Figure 1.2
Comparison of Findings
(Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin et al., 2009; Crockett et al., 2009; O'Brien, 2006).



CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION

Contemporary Understanding of Leadership for Special Education

As demonstrated by the reviewed literature, major factors shaping the work and expectations of school leaders are accountability, and the achievement of all students (Billingsley, 2004; Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2009). Reform initiatives have elevated learning expectations for all students to include the acquisition, mastery, and integration of academic knowledge and skills so that all students are able to meet the same learning standards (Boscardin, 2003; Swanson & Deshler, 2003; Fullan). In light of these reforms, reviewed literature shows that the development, implementation, and monitoring of instructional programs and practices that meet the needs of all learners is central to school leader success (Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2006; Spillane, et al., 2011; Stein & Nelson, 2003).

Reviewed literature also indicates that school leaders' focus on instructional improvement needs to be comprehensive if instruction is to be affected in a positive manner (Bolman & Deal, 2003). That comprehensive focus entails consideration for, and actions within, the four leadership frames identified by Bolman and Deal. Those actions include creating inclusive school cultures, allowing for multi-actor sources of leadership, developing teachers, designing school structures aimed at the provision of instructional practices meet diverse learning needs and lead to improved student achievement, and designing school structures for monitoring the efficacy of those instructional practices (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood, et al. 2008; Spillane, et al. 2011).

For general education leaders, the influence of education reforms on their role as leaders of special education requires that their practice now includes the perspectives, knowledge, and

skills traditionally used by special education administrators (Boscardin, 2007). In broadening their knowledge and skill base, general education leaders must develop and utilize a perspective that enables them to envision and create school cultures and organizational structures that take into account the individual learning needs of children with disabilities (Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; Spillane, et al., 2011) . General education leaders must also improve their understanding and utilization of special education law to create policy and practice that ensures the needs of children with disabilities are met (Crockett). Further, general education leaders must develop more refined skills and practices that include: the understanding and use of research and research-based strategies for improving instruction; the cultivation and retention of highly qualified teachers and administrators through improved induction, preparation, and professional development programs, and the monitoring and data-based evaluation of instructional practice (Crockett, 2004; Boscardin, 2004). Finally, and perhaps most importantly, general education school leaders need to utilize multi-actor approaches to leadership. According to Billingsley et al., (unpublished), Boscardin, et al. (2009), Crockett (2002), Crockett, et al. (2009), DiPaola et al., and O'Brien (2006) that suggests the use of collaborative practices, while Elmore (2000), and Leithwood, et al. (2008) suggest the use of distributed practices.

The implications for special education administrators is that traditional responsibilities for providing and supervising special education and related services, and for ensuring compliance with federal, state and local laws and regulations, according to Lashley and Boscardin (2003), now include solving "the problems of practice inherent in a diverse, complex, high-stakes educational environment (p. 18). The role of the special education administrator has evolved, according to Boscardin (2004), from that of child advocate, to compliance monitor and legal counsel, to instructional leader. As such, "special education administrators are now at a

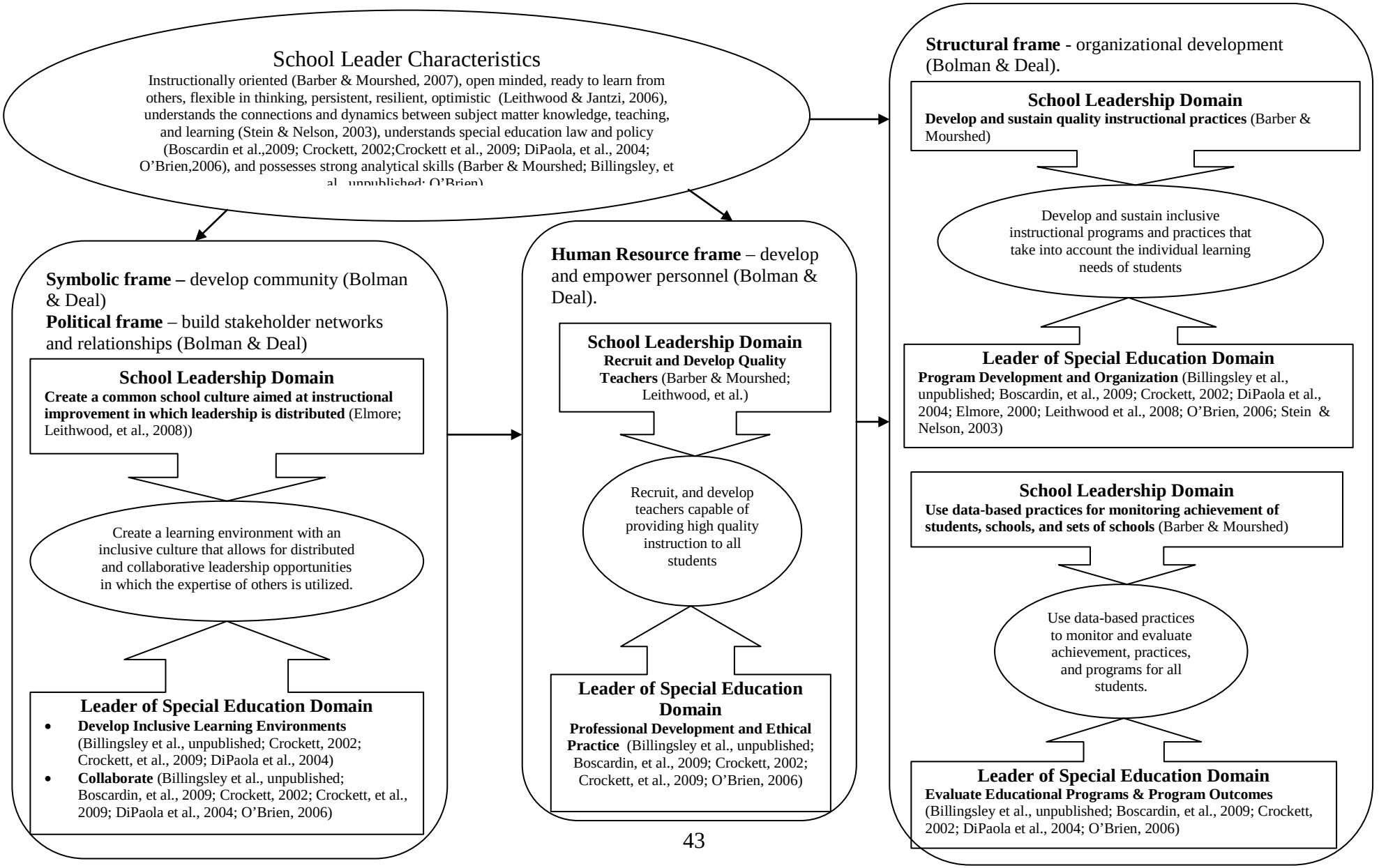
crossroads" (Lashley & Boscardin, p. 18) at which they are challenged to develop and utilize leadership practices to support the development and implementation of effective, inclusive educational programs and services to ensure that students with disabilities receive high quality instruction within the same curricula and meet the same learning standards as their non-disabled peers (Boscardin; Swanson & Deshler, 2003; Fullan, 2009). The work of the special education administrator, according to Lashley and Boscardin, is no longer "an activity separate from the general education program" (p.10). The contemporary challenge then, for special education administrators, will be in utilizing their expertise to collaborate with general education administrators, teachers, and parents to ensure the provision of high quality educational programs and opportunities for all students (Boscardin, 2004).

The influence of education reforms on school leadership in general, and on the roles of general and special education leaders as leaders of special education, provides the basis for the transformation of perceptions of special education leadership, and the motivation to enable a shift from a dual system of education in which the needs and services of disabled and non-disabled students are addressed separately, to one that operates with a broader, more unified perspective on student achievement that requires special and general education leaders to comingle knowledge, skill, and expertise in order effectively serve the learning needs of all students (Boscardin, 2007). The promotion of these multi-actor leadership approaches, and inclusive educational practices serve to diminish the perception of 'separateness' between general and special education as a whole (Boscardin2004; Boscardin, 2007).

That diminishment of separate perspectives is illustrated in Figure 2.1 in which the literature describing the areas in which school leaders need to now focus, and the leadership domain areas important to the work of general and special education leaders as leaders of special

education, are synthesized. Inspection of Figure 2.1 reveals that the leadership frames identify the perspectives that encompass leader actions needed for addressing each school, and leader of special education, leadership domain. Further, inspection of the domains important to the work of school leaders, general education leaders, and special education leaders in meeting education reform demands for the provision of effective instruction for all students within those frames, reveals that the domains are comparable. As such, it appears that education reforms have broadened the roles of general and special education leadership, and converged the focus of each to a school leadership role encompassing leadership of special education. Despite that convergence of focus, however, principals, in general, remain unprepared and unskilled in regard to their ability to oversee special education programs and services (DiPaola et al., 2004), and special education administrators remain focused on "providing and supervising special education and related services, and for ensuring compliance with federal, state and local laws and regulations" (Lashley & Boscardin, 2003, p.30).

Figure 2.1
Synthesis of Leadership Frames, and School Leader and Leader of Special Education Domain



Leadership Styles

The synthesis of school leadership frames and domains indicates that effective leadership stems from individuals who: possess identified characteristics and skill sets, and who can operate in ways traditionally conceived of as belonging separately to general and special education leaders. To that end, leadership must possess, or make use of a range of expertise in order to best influence: school culture, program development, classroom instruction, and instructional outcomes. Therefore, school leaders, as leaders of special education, need to identify and utilize a leadership style that enables them to meet identified leadership demands. Again, those demands, as identified in Diagram 3, are: (1) school leader's possession of identified school leader characteristics, (2) utilization of the expertise of others in a leadership capacity, (3) the creation a common, inclusive learning environment, (4) the ability to develop teachers capable of providing high quality instruction to all students, (5) the development of inclusive instructional programs and practices that take into account the individual learning needs of students, and (6) the development and use data-based practices to monitor and evaluate achievement, practices, and programs for all students.

Identification of leadership styles, and descriptions and models of their use can be obtained with relative ease. Boscardin (2007) in *What is Special about Special Education Administration?* identifies six major leadership styles: "(a) transformational leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Marks & Printy, 2003); (b) instructional leadership (Leithwood, 1994; Reitzug, 1997; Whitaker, 1997); (c) transactional leadership (Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000); (d) distributed leadership (Elmore, 2000; Gronn, 2002; Heller & Firestone, 1995; Lave, 1997; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001); (e) communities of practice (Buysse, Sparkman, & Wesley, 2003; Lave & Wenger, 1991;

Westheimer & Kahne, 1993); and (f) emerging alternative models (Benham, 1997; Cheng, 1998; Daley & Wong, 1994; Dillard, 1995; Heck & Hallinger, 1999)" (Boscardin, p. 190). These leadership styles, however, vary significantly with respect to who leads, and the main focus of the respective style.

Transactional leadership essentially involves the exchange of actions for reward; individual leaders fulfill the needs of followers in exchange for the attainment of desired goals or for the performance of desired behaviors (Bass, 1985; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Webb, 2007). The transformational leadership style, as traditionally conceived, focuses on the individual leader's ability to inspire others to transcend personal interests, and to develop and adopt organizational goals, or goals serving the greater good (Copland, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). Instructional leadership is based on the idea that the principal, as instructional leader, can affect school success through his or her own ability to manifest identified characteristics of effective schools (Lezotte, 2001). Distributed and collaborative leadership styles conceive of leadership as multi-actor practices in which the expertise of others is utilized in order to make decisions and influence school functioning (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004;Spillane, 2004). Distributed leadership allows for individuals within the organization to take on leadership roles and to influence decision-making (Bennett et al, 2003). Collaborative leadership allows for groups to take on leadership roles and to make decisions (Slater, 2004). This major distinction makes distributed and collaborative leadership styles appealing options for allowing school leaders to access the expertise needed to effectively provide for the educational needs of students with disabilities, and to meet reform mandates for increased collaboration, and for improved achievement outcomes for students with disabilities (IDEA, 2004; NCLB, 2001; Race to the Top, 2010).

Whether or not the aforementioned leadership styles, or their components, are valued or utilized by school leaders is less well understood. Such an understanding may be derived through investigation into the subjective perceptions of those leaders in regard to those leadership styles. Investigations of those subjective understandings can be accomplished through employment of a Q methodology (Aitken, 1988; Brown, 1991). Currently, in the field of general education leadership, there is an emerging body of research employing this methodology. In the field of special education leadership there is a dearth of studies that investigate leadership through a Q methodology.

In regard to general education leadership studies Provost, Boscardin, and Wells (2010) conducted a study entitled *Principal Leadership Behaviors in Massachusetts in the Era of Education Reform* in order to investigate school administrators' perspectives of effective school principal leadership behaviors. Thirty public school principals, central office administrators, and assistant principals from the same state, and representing districts of various size and setting were asked to sort 21 statements on a scale from most to least characteristic of an effective principal. Leadership behavior statements were taken from a questionnaire used in a study designed by Heck and Marcoulides (1993) to assure item validity. After sorting, a questionnaire was completed that provided insights to the sorting process used by participants.

Also, and in regard to general education leadership studies, Militello and Janson (2008) utilized Q methodology in their study titled *Socially-focused, situationally-driven practice: A study of distributed leadership among School Principals and Counselors* to study counselor and principal perceptions of their professional relationships. In this study 39 counselors and principals sorted 45 statements derived from 177 opinion statements obtained from participants. Opinion statements were obtained from interviews with eight principals and eight counselors

from three different states. Twenty-two counselors and 17 principals then sorted the statements into nine categories on a scale from most to least characteristic of the relationship. After completing the sort, participants completed a questionnaire aimed at providing researchers with an understanding of why each participant sorted the statements in the manner in which they did.

In regard to special education leadership studies Mosley (2010) conducted a study investigating "Vermont principals' perceptions of leadership attributes linked to the role of the principal" (p.vi) entitled *Perceptions of Principal Attributes in the Era of Accountability*. Thirty-five Vermont principals sorted forty-five statements derived from the Multileadership Questionnaire developed by Bass (1985). Statements were sorted into a ten column grid ranging from -4 to +4, but containing two zero, or neutral, columns. Participants also completed a post-sort questionnaire after sorting statements.

Despite the lack of subjective studies investigating school leader perceptions of leadership styles, there exist many qualitative and quantitative studies aimed at developing and understanding models of school leadership. Three leadership styles are investigated in order to ascertain their efficacy in enabling school leaders to meet contemporary leadership criteria: instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership.

Table 2.1
Summary of Leadership Style Articles
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
Provost, Boscardin & Wells	2010	Mixed methods	"What behaviors do the participants, as a group, find most/least characteristic of effective principals given contemporary demands of the role?" (p.47)	Q methodology	Thirty public school principals, central office administrators, and assistant principals from Massachusetts	Sorts represent two groups, those who are, or are not, in high agreement that the principal's most important leadership behaviors are to develop and communicate school goals, and to hold high expectations.	• Limited to administrators in Massachusetts • findings are not generalizable • statements represent instructional leadership actions
Militello & Janson	2008	Mixed methods	How do "school counselors and principals perceive their professional relationship?" (p.3)	Q methodology	Twenty-two counselors and 17 principals	Four different principal and counselor viewpoints were identified and labeled as: (1) traditional roles in activities and tasks, (2) constricted interactions, (3) helping and delegating leadership, and (4) socially-focused, situationally-driven leadership.	• findings are not generalizable • study is exploratory • limited to distributed leadership perspective

Mosley	2010	Mixed methods	Investigation of "Vermont principals' perceptions of leadership attributes linked to the role of the principal" (p.vi).	Q methodology	Thirty-five Vermont principals	Two factors were identified that represent participant groups who: placed high value on leadership items linked to collective mission, purpose, and goal, and (2) those who highly ranked leadership attributes linked to collegiality and collaboration	• Limited to principals in Vermont • "findings from this study do not mirror the perceptions of all school principals in Vermont" (p.156). • Limited to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles

Instructional Leadership

Investigation of instructional leadership as a viable leadership style for enabling school leaders to meet contemporary leadership demands is warranted for two main reasons: (1) over the past 30 years the instructional leadership model has come to exemplify the effective school principal, and has become the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003), and (2) this conception contains the idea that an individual school leader can act effectively as the "centre of expertise, power and authority" within schools (Hallinger, 2003. p.330).

Grounded in research on elementary schools (Hallinger, 2005), the idea of instructional leadership developed through the research base of the Effective Schools Movement of the 1980's. This movement evolved on the premise that schools control the factors which enable all students to learn (Lezotte, 2001; Hallinger, 2003). Researchers at that time identified important characteristics of schools that were successful in educating students despite student socio-economic status. Those characteristics included: strong instructional leadership, a strong educational mission, use of effective instructional practices, high expectations for student learning, monitoring of student achievement, and provision of safe school environments (Lezotte). From these findings emerged the idea that school effectiveness could be improved by allowing the principal, as instructional leader, to affect school success through his or her own ability to manifest identified characteristics of effective schools.

Described as "the identification, acquisition, allocation, coordination, and use of the social, material, and cultural resources necessary to establish the conditions for the possibility of teaching and learning" (Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond, 2001, p. 24), instructional leadership continues to be utilized in practice; is used for the creation of policy; continues to be a subject of research; and has received increased attention since the advent of educational accountability

measures (Hallinger, 2005; Ylimaki, 2007). As an example, The National Association of Elementary School Principals (2008, p.2) currently promotes six standards for instructional leadership:

- Set high expectations and standards for the academic and social development of all students and the performance of adults
- Demand content and instruction that ensures student achievement of agreed-upon academic standards.
- Create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals.
- Use multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify, and apply instructional improvement.
- Actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success.

Hallinger (2005) conducted an analysis, entitled *Instructional Leadership and the School Principal: A Passing Fancy that Refuses to Fade Away,* that focused on instructional leadership literature reviews conducted by Hallinger (2001), Hallinger (2003), Hallinger and Heck (1996), and Southworth (2002) to provide a comprehensive insight into instructional leadership. Within the review Hallinger (p.1) sought to:

- " identify the defining characteristics of instructional leadership as it has evolved,
- elaborate on the predominant model in use for studying instructional leadership,
- report the empirical evidence about its effects, and
- reflect on the relationship between this model and the evolving educational context in which it is exercised and how this is reshaping our perspective on instructional leadership"

Hallinger's retrospective assessment finds that instructional leaders are conceived of as hands-on principals with effective leadership and managerial skills. They are characterized as strong, charismatic, goal-oriented leaders able to build a school culture of high expectations and standards; able to work with teachers to improve teaching and learning; and able to achieve improved educational outcomes for students.

Although many models for instructional leadership have been developed, the most frequently used and tested model, according to Hallinger (2005), is the one developed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) (Southworth, 2002; Hallinger, 2005). The subject of over 110 empirical studies utilizing the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Sc*ale (Hallinger 2001), this model, shown in Figure 2.2, has contributed to understanding of effects of personal experience and school context on instructional leadership; effects of instructional leadership on the organization; and effects of instructional leadership on student achievement and school outcomes (Hallinger). The model contains three dimensions of instructional leadership: (1) defining the school's mission, (2) managing the instructional program, and (3) promoting a positive school-learning climate. Within the three dimensions are ten functions of the instructional leader which describe their ability to: create and communicate an academic vision; develop the academic program; and align the schools mission, practices, and culture (Hallinger).

Figure 2.2
Instructional Management Framework
(Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p.5)

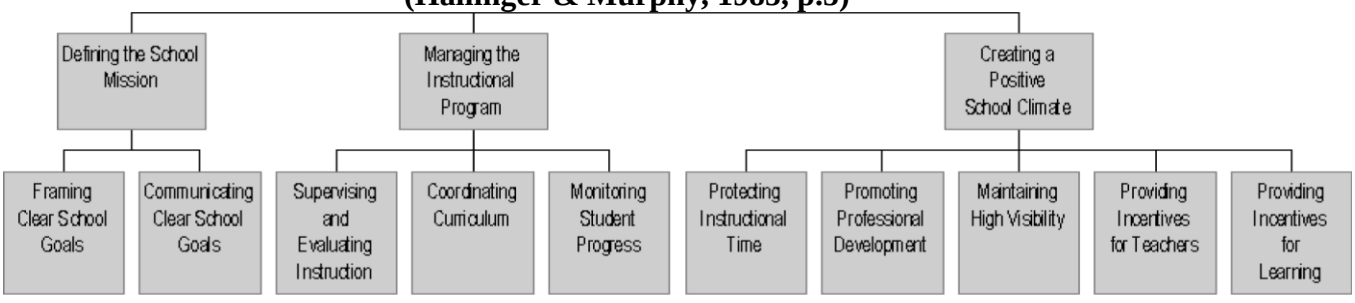


Figure One: Instructional Management Framework
From Hallinger & Murphy, 1985

Results of Hallinger's (2005) review of empirical research on instructional leadership are listed in Table 2.2 alongside a description of his contemporary perspective on instructional leadership. Empirical research indicates that principals can be most effective as instructional leaders when engaged in activities that align school culture, structures, goals, purposes, and resources in a way that supports effective instruction. Further, Hallinger finds that direct involvement by principals within the classroom does not appear to be a focus of, or, typical practice used by principals. These findings contradict traditional conceptions of instructional leadership, and demonstrate, according to Hallinger, a move away from the 'top down', lone leader conception of instructional leadership to one that incorporates the idea that leaders influence, and are influenced by, school personnel and context. Hallinger's review and analysis, however, are generally confined to his prior work in the area of instructional leadership. As such, the review and analysis incorporates and extends his model and conception of the evolving role and efficacy of instructional leadership.

Table 2.2
Findings from Literature Review
(Hallinger, 2005)
(continued onto next page)

Findings from review of empirical research	**Perspective on instructional leadership.**
• Principal's actions that directly affect school and classroom conditions indirectly influence school and student achievement outcomes. • The effect size for principal actions is statistically significant, but also small. • The principal's largest effect is on the school's mission • School context affects the type of instructional leadership used by principals, i.e. more of a top-down	• The role of the instructional leader has evolved to include increased focus on: o Development of goals and shared purpose centered on student learning o continuous improvement through strategic planning and involvement by stakeholders o Improving instruction via high expectations and innovation o coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student learning outcomes o developing staff o Being visible and modeling expected behaviors o Aligning a reward structure and the school

hands-on approach as compared to a more shared approach. • School and student outcomes are influenced by alignment of school structures, such as curriculum and standards, and culture with the school mission. • Principal's effects on instruction occur via modeling and development of school culture rather than direct classroom involvement (classroom supervision and instructional evaluation). • Principals do not appear to be increasing direct classroom involvement. • Instructional leadership dimensions of *Defining a School Mission* and *Creating a Positive School Culture* are becoming larger components of the principal's role.	mission • School leadership must be considered a "mutual influence process" (p.15) between leaders, others, and the school context. • The 'top-down' leadership approach characteristic of principals in 'turn-around' schools is not able to be generalized to all schools. • An individual cannot effectively serve as the lone instructional leader.

Reitzug, West, and Angel's (2008) phenomenological qualitative study, entitled *Conceptualizing Instructional Leadership: The Voices of Principals*, used grounded theory methods focuses on "how principals understand the relationship between their daily work and the improvement of instruction in their schools" (p.694). The study intent was "to understand how each principal viewed her or his practice and how they perceived themselves to be impacting teaching and learning in the school" (Reitzug, West and Angel, p. 696). The study did not tie principal's conceptions of their individual practice to their individual actions, nor to any artifacts. Further, instructional leaders are not promoted as being outstanding, nor are identified modes promoted as best practices.

Interviews with twenty principals were utilized for this study, and all participants were from the same large school district in the southeastern United States. Participants were predominantly female (17 of 20) and from the elementary school setting (2 middle school, 4 high

school, and 1 K–8). Participant experience as a principal ranged from 8 with under 4 years, 7 with 5-8 years, and 5 with more than 8 years.

Data collection was conducted via in-depth, audio taped, principal interviews of 1 to 2 hours in length. Principal comments in relation to instructional leadership were identified for each participant, as were comments representing recurring concepts or practices. Underlying themes and qualities for each principal were then identified and used to create a conceptual map of how the principals saw their practices, values, and goals relate to the improvement of instruction and student learning outcomes.

Reitzug, West and Angel (2008) were able to identify four modes of instructional leadership: relational, linear, organic, and prophetic. Further, they identified activities indicative of each instructional leadership mode. Of the 20 participants, 4 were identified as relational, 5 as linear, 3 as organic, 2 as prophetic, and 2 as hybrid conceptions (linear–relational and the other organic–relational). Four principals were not classified due to insufficient information within the transcript. Table 2.3 condenses the description, characteristic activities, and major goals of each mode for side by side comparison.

Table 2.3
Instructional Leadership Modes
(Reitzug, West, & Angel, 2008)
(continued onto next page)

Instructional leadership mode	Description	Activities	Primary Goal
relational	Improved learning outcomes are due to the principal's ability to empower and inspire students and teachers.	• spending time with students in school and out of school on their own turf; • soliciting, listening to, and knowing their stories; • being an advocate for disenfranchised students; • counseling both students and teachers; and • making sure that teachers are "OK"	Caring school Culture Higher test scores
linear	Views the design and implementation	Use of: • Pacing guides	Higher test scores

	of appropriate structures and processes as a means of achieving desired outcomes.	• Benchmark testing. • Using data to drive instruction. • Monitoring lesson plans and lesson content	
organic	Teaching and learning outcomes improve through school personnel adjusting practices to meet the needs and issues affecting the school as a whole.	• Peer walk-throughs • Team-based issue study • Action research • Researching school issues • Analyzing and discussing data • Grade-level curriculum discussions • Team lesson planning • Posing questions	Greater understanding of students, teaching, learning Increased student learning Higher test scores
prophetic	Develops an overarching set of beliefs, or 'higher calling', by which personnel adhere in the pursuit of academic achievement.	Engage teachers and the broader school community in the following: • re-searching their commitments to humanity, to the planet, and to themselves; • re-minding themselves about their commitments as educators • re-newing their allegiance to their commitments; • re-searching the extent to which commitments are being upheld in their personal practice and the school's practice, and • re-forming current policies and practices that are incongruent with their rediscovered commitments.	Educating students to create a better world – Teaching them how to be an engaged participant in a democratic society

Reitzug et al.'s (2008) study is limited, however, by its inability to connect principal's perception of their influence on teaching and learning to their actual deeds. Further, Reitzug et al.'s identification of instructional leadership modes are not substantively different from those broad leadership frames identified by Bolman and Deal (2003), see Table 2.4. The biggest difference being that Reitzug et al. do not find a mode aligned with Bolman and Deal's political frame.

Table 2.4
Comparison of Leadership Modes
(continued onto next page)

Bolman and Deal (2003) four frame model of leadership	**Instructional leadership modes by Reitzug, West, and Angel (2008)**

structural frame - analysis focuses on organizational development	Linear - Sees the design and implementation of appropriate structure and processes as a means of achieving desired outcomes.
Political frame - focuses on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships in order to achieve organizational goals	
Human resource frame - centers on the development and empowerment of personnel.	Relational - Ascribes improved learning outcomes to the principal's ability to empower and inspire students and teachers.
Symbolic leadership frame - focuses on the development of community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs	Prophetic - Focuses on the development of an overarching set of beliefs, or 'higher calling', by which personnel adhere in the pursuit of academic achievement. Organic - Holds that teaching and learning outcomes improve through school personnel adjusting practices to meet the needs and issues affecting the school as a whole.

Graczewski, Knudson, and Holtzman's (2009) mixed methods study, entitled *Instructional Leadership in Practice: What Does it Look Like and What Influence Does it Have?*, was conducted over a 3 year period within the San Diego school district, and examined "the relationship between the practice of site-based instructional leadership and the professional development that teachers received in the context of a district-wide reform effort" (p.72). Specifically, Graczewski et al. addressed the question of "which instructional leadership practices might influence reform practices likely to lead to improved instruction" (p. 76). Two hypotheses were tested in addressing this question: (1) "Schools in which the principal establishes a coherent school-wide vision are more likely to exhibit coherent and relevant professional development; and (2) At schools in which the principal engages in instructional improvement, there is a greater likelihood that the professional development offered at those schools will focus on content and curriculum" (p.76).

Graczewski, et al. (2009) utilized case studies methodology within 9 elementary schools, and teacher surveys administered to elementary level teachers in 49 out of the 114 San Diego, CA district elementary schools as means to collect data. For the case studies, each elementary school was visited on 6 occasions and data was collected during principal shadowing, observation of professional development sessions and leadership team meetings, and through interviews with principals, vice principals, peer coaches and teachers. The teacher survey tool was developed using preexisting survey questions, and questions "designed to capture important elements of site-based leadership as identified by the district and our review of the literature" (Graczewski, et al., p. 75). The survey included 6 scales: 4 measuring teacher perceptions of instructional leadership and 2 measuring teachers' perceptions of professional development, see Table 2.5.

Table 2.5
Survey Tool Scales
(Graczewski, Knudson, and Holtzman, 2009)

Scales measuring aspects of instructional leadership	**Scales measuring aspects of professional development**
• Coherent school-wide vision for instructional improvement • Focus on student learning and achievement • Follow-up/implementation support, and • Leadership engagement in instructional improvement.	• Coherent and relevant professional development • Content- and curriculum-focused professional development.

Regression analysis was used to evaluate survey data while principal and professional development ratings, using developed indicators, were used to evaluate qualitative data. Qualitative indicators are provided in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6
Qualitative Indicators
(Graczewski, Knudson, and Holtzman, 2009)

Indicators of the principal's ability to foster a coherent vision	**Indicators that professional development was coherent and relevant**	**Indicators of engagement in instructional improvement**	**Indicators of content- and curriculum-focused professional development**
• the principal is able to articulate clear goals and strategies for the improvement of instruction and student achievement are identified • goals are understood and supported by the majority of the school's teachers, and • the various goals and strategies for professional development and instruction are consistent with each other	professional development opportunities are: • consistent with the school's goals to improve teaching and learning • consistent with or complementary to other professional learning opportunities, • consistent with teachers' goals for professional learning	• the extent to which the principal visited classrooms, • the extent to which the principal provided resources and support for professional development • the extent to which the principal understood the learning needs of teachers	main goals of professional development were to: • strengthen teachers' content knowledge, • develop grade-level standards, • articulate curriculum within or across grades • improve monitoring of student progress

Using these indicators Graczewski et al. (2009) find the existence of a "strong relationship between certain aspects of school leadership and professional learning opportunities at a school" (p. 90). Relevancy of professional development was found to be positively related to leader development of a coherent school vision and goals. Further, content and curriculum focused professional development was found to be positively related to leader engagement in instructional improvement. Also of note were survey results indicating that principal activity within teacher classrooms "to model or coach", or to "deeply diagnose areas where instruction could use improvement but not as part of a formal evaluation" (p. 85) rated the lowest mean scores of all survey questions (.70 and .73 respectively on the 0-3 scale). Teachers also scored total hours that (a) the principal and (b) other school administrators have spent visiting my

classroom while I am teaching (0=less than 1 hour;3=more than 10 hours) as the third lowest with a mean rating of 1.04.

Bays and Crockett (2007) conducted a qualitative study, entitled *Investigating Instructional Leadership for Special Education*, which utilized grounded theory methods, "to investigate how instructional leadership for special education occurs in elementary schools" (p.143). They addressed three questions specifically: (a) What were the practices used in supervising specially designed instruction, (b) what needs were addressed by these practices, and (c) what conditions caused instructional leadership and supervision to be conducted as it was? See Table 2.7 for research questions and research evidence.

Table 2.7
Research Questions and Evidence
(Bays and Crockett, 2007)
(continued onto next page)

Research Questions	**Evidence**
What were the practices used in supervising specially designed instruction?	• Responsibility for the supervision of special education instruction was dispersed in varying degrees among three groups of professionals: principals, directors of special education, and teachers. • Principals and directors of special education frequently relied on special education teachers as experts in instructional matters. • The director of special education often coordinated professional development opportunities for special education teachers, participated in planning educational services for students who have disabilities, and provided personnel and resources to support the delivery of special education • Special education teachers described themselves as having two bosses the principal and the director of special education • The principal performed the duties of evaluation and supervision of teachers simultaneously. • The principals in each school utilized three main processes as they provided instructional leadership for special education: o observation and evaluation of teachers, o supervision by wandering, and o open communication.
What needs were addressed by these practices?	• Principals negotiated among competing priorities and contextual factors in attempting to provide instructional leadership for special education.
What conditions caused instructional leadership	• Limited time • School size - direct instructional leadership decreased as school

and supervision to be conducted as it was?	enrollment and the number of teachers increased. • Priorities on legal compliance and procedural matters more than instructional concerns. • Principal confidence in their ability to oversee special education regulations • Competing priorities for principals due to responsibility for the overall management of the school facility, as well as instructional supervision. • School personnel's' varied understanding of the meaning of special education o no different from any other type of instruction o the matching of instructional strategies, group sizes, and materials to the needs of individual learners o best left to special educators who really knew what this type of instruction was all about

Data collection was conducted via observation and interview of 38 participants from nine elementary schools within three small school districts located in the southeastern United States. Small systems were utilized due to their uncomplicated administrative structures. Observations and interviews for each school were completed within three to five visits, and each district office was visited twice. Enrollment size for each school ranged from 123 to 560 students and the number of students with disabilities within the schools ranged from 15 to 103. Participants included 24 teachers, 9 principals, and 3 directors of special education. Interviews within each school included the principal, at least one special education teacher, and one general education teacher who taught children with disabilities whom were primarily served in the general education setting. Participants experience in education ranged from 1 to 33 years.

Overall findings reveal that a dispersed or, "scattered in ways that cause them to vanish" (p. 158) mode, rather than a distributed mode, was used to assign responsibility for the provision of instructional leadership for special education. Principals, although visible within the schools, minimally engaged in interactions aimed at improving special education instruction. Further, principals relied heavily on special education teachers, and directors of special education in matters involving programming, instruction, professional development, and compliance in regard

to special education. Three factors are identified as contributing to the development of this dynamic: (a) principals' are solely responsible for instructional leadership, (b) competing priorities, and (c) contextual factors. Competing priorities include; focusing on legal compliance instead of instructional quality in regard to special education services, managing the organization instead of focusing on instruction, and evaluating teachers instead of supervising them. Contextual factors were identified as both systematic and personal. They included: school size, complexity of administrative structures, time constraints, understanding of special education, and the ability to evaluate special education instruction. Taken together, the identified factors "weakened instructional leadership for special education and risked its potential benefits" (Bays & Crockett, 2007, p.143).

Study findings however, are limited in several ways. First, they are attributable only to elementary school settings. Second, because NCLB initiatives were new at the time of the study, findings may not be reflective of contemporary practice at studied locations. Despite these significant short-comings, the findings do provide insight into factors affecting individual school leader's ability to oversee and affect the provision of special education services.

Collectively, the work of Hallinger (2005), Reitzug et al. (2008), Graczewski et al. (2009), and Bays and Crockett (2007) reflect varied perspectives on instructional leadership, see Table 2.8. Hallinger's derives from a review of empirical research, Reitzug et al.'s from a phenomenological study of principal leadership perspectives, Graczewski et al.'s from mixed-methods research involving instructional leader practice and its relationship to improved instruction, and Bays and Crockett's from a qualitative study of instructional leadership for special education.

Table 2.8
Instructional Leadership Studies.
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
Hallinger	2005	Conceptual	What are the defining characteristics of instructional leadership, what is the predominant model for its study, and how effective is the model?	Literature Review	Literature reviews conducted by (2001), Hallinger (2003), Hallinger and Heck (1996) and Southworth (2002).	Instructional leaders are characterized as strong, charismatic, goal-oriented leaders able to build a school culture of high expectations and standards; able to work with teachers to improve teaching and learning; and able to achieve improved educational outcomes for students. The most frequently studied conceptualization of instructional leadership from 1980-2005 was that developed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985). Instructional leaders have small, but significant effects on student learning. Those effects are primarily a result of the instructional leader's ability to influence the school mission and align school structures (Hallinger & Heck, 1996a, 1996b, 1999).	The study presents no new data or findings. Results are limited to conceptions and study results from Hallinger's individual work, or his work with others prior to 2003.
Reitzug, West and Angel	2008	Qualitative	How do principals understand the	Grounded theory	Twenty principals, 17 female and 3 male, from 13	Four dominant conceptions of instructional leadership were	The study does not investigate the

			relationship between their daily work and the improvement of instruction in their schools?		elementary schools, 2 middle schools, and high schools.	identified: Relational, Linear, Organic, and Prophetic. Four of the principals were classified as being dominantly relational, five as being linear, three as organic, and two as prophetic. Two principals embraced strongly hybrid conceptions (one linear–relational and the other organic–relational).	congruence between principals' perceptions and actions. The relationship between the principal's daily work and the improvement of instruction was measured by the principal's perception, not objective measures.
Graczewski, Knudson, and Holtzman	2009	Mixed-methods using both qualitative & quantitative data	What is the relationship between "site-based instructional leadership and the professional development that teachers received in the context of a district-wide reform effort (Graczewski, et al, 2009, p.72)? "	Case studies of nine elementary schools were conducted over a 2.5 year period to collect data on instructional leadership and professional learning. A survey was developed to investigate teacher perceptions of instructional leadership.	Principals, vice principals, peer coaches, and up to 12 randomly selected teachers across the grade levels of nine elementary schools. A representative sample of elementary teachers from 49 of the 114 district elementary schools were selected to participate in the survey.	When the "principal was able to foster a coherent vision, it was more likely professional development that was coherent and relevant" (Graczewski, et al, 2009, p.80)". When "the principal was engaged in instructional improvement, it was more likely that professional development was focused on content and curriculum (Graczewski, et al, 2009, p.87)". .	Findings are limited to elementary school settings during a local reform initiative, and are limited to teacher and researcher perceptions of principals' efficacy in relation to provision of professional development. Effects of provided professional development are not addressed. The number of survey participants is not specified.

Bays and Crockett	2007	Qualitative	"How does instructional leadership for special education occurs in elementary schools? (Bays & Crockett, 2007, p. 143)"	Grounded theory	Thirty-eight participants, including 24 teachers, 9 principals, and 3 directors of special education were selected from three school districts located in the southeastern United States.	For principals, competing priorities and contextual factors negatively impacted their ability effectively serve as instructional leaders for students with disabilities. As such the responsibility for special education was dispersed, not deliberately distributed, among administrative and teaching personnel.	NCLB mandates for achieving annual progress for students with disabilities, and requirements for hiring highly qualified special educators were not in place at the time of the study. As such, The influence of those requirements on leadership practices may not have been observed. Study focus is limited to elementary school settings.

Taken together, identified themes and key findings from each study, see Table 2.9, show that the instructional leader role is no longer reflective of traditional conceptions (Hallinger, 2005). Principals, in general, do not spend a significant portion of their time within classroom settings in order to monitor and evaluate instruction (Bays & Crockett, 2007; Graczewski et al., 2009; Hallinger), nor do they possess the instructional expertise required to create, monitor, and evaluate programs and instruction for all students, especially students with disabilities (Bays & Crockett; Hallinger). Instead principals rely heavily on the expertise of those special education personnel within and outside the building to lead and manage special education programs (Bays & Crockett). Efficacy in the principal's ability to develop or establish effective practices, policies, or school cultures may be a result of the limiting nature of the position of principal as a

middle manager (Bays & Crockett), and/or by the principals own leadership ability, or broad knowledge and skill limitations, especially at the secondary school level where principals may have less expertise than many teachers (Hallinger). Further, the manner in which principals enact their instructional leadership style, as found by Reitzug et al. (2008), is varied, and often compartmentalized to three of the four leadership frames developed by Bolman and Deal (2003). Missing is a mode, identified as the political frame by Bolman and Deal, focused on the principals' building of stakeholder networks and relationships in order to achieve organizational goals. The omission of this mode indicates that collaborative practice, considered to be important for contemporary school leadership, especially special education leadership, (Elmore, 2000; Walther-Thomas & DiPaola, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2008), is not currently a major component of principal's instructional leadership style.

Principals do, however, appear to be able to influence school and classroom conditions in a way that can positively affect student learning outcomes, albeit indirectly (Graczewski et al., 2009; Hallinger, 2005). This influence manifests most strongly through the principal's ability to affect instruction, the core function of schooling (Elmore, 2000). Instructional influence occurs most strongly though the principals ability to affect the school mission (Hallinger). Principals are also able to directly influence instruction by influencing and aligning school structures, such as curriculum and standards (Hallinger, 2005) and by influencing teacher practice by providing professional development that is focused on instruction and aligned with the school vision and goals (Graczewski et al.).

However, within the current educational climate, instructional leadership as is currently, or traditionally practiced, is significantly limited in its efficacy in serving students with disabilities (Bays & Crockett, 2007). Instructional leaders need to have the ability to understand,

recognize, and promote specialized instruction in support of individual learning needs if they are to meet contemporary demands on school leadership (Bays & Crockett). To that end, instructional leaders need to utilize more collaborative and inclusive practices, become more knowledgeable of the laws surrounding special education, support teacher development of instructional practices that meet diverse learning needs, and create inclusive instructional programs that serve the learning need of students with disabilities (Bays & Crockett, Hallinger, 2003; Ylimaki, 2007).

Table 2.9
Summary of Themes and Key Findings
(Hallinger, 2005; Reitzug et al., 2008; Graczewski et al., 2009; Bays & Crockett, 2007).
(continued onto next page)

Theme	**Evidence**
Principal engagement, and/or involvement within the classroom	Principal activity within teacher classrooms "to model or coach", to "deeply diagnose areas where instruction could use improvement but not as part of a formal evaluation" and total hours the (a) the principal and (b) other school administrators have spent visiting my classroom while I am teaching rated as the three lowest Items on the Leadership Engagement in Instructional Improvement survey (Graczewski et al., 2009). Principals, although visible within the schools, minimally engaged in interactions aimed at improving special education instruction (Bays & Crockett, 2007). Principals do not appear to be increasing direct classroom involvement. Hallinger (2005).
Areas of principal efficacy	Content and curriculum focused professional development was found to be positively related to leader engagement in instructional improvement (Graczewski et al., 2009). Relevancy of professional development was found to be positively related to leader development of a coherent school vision and goals (Graczewski et al., 2009). School and student outcomes are influenced by alignment of school structures, such as curriculum and standards, and culture with the school mission (Hallinger, 2005). Actions that directly affect school and classroom conditions indirectly influence school and student achievement outcomes (Hallinger, 2005). The principal has the largest effect on the school's mission (Hallinger, 2005).
Efficacy of lone instructional leader	An individual cannot effectively serve as the lone instructional leader. Hallinger (2005). Principals relied heavily on special education teachers, and directors of special education in matters involving programming, instruction, professional development, and compliance in regard to special education (Bays & Crockett, 2007). Factors affecting principal efficacy: (a) principal's are solely responsible for instructional leadership,

	(b) Competing priorities such as: focusing on legal compliance instead of instructional quality in regard to special education services, managing the organization instead of focusing on instruction, and evaluating teachers instead of supervising them. (c) Contextual factors include: school size, complexity of administrative structures, time constraints, understanding of special education, and the ability to evaluate special education instruction (Bays & Crockett, 2007)
Instructional leadership style	Four modes of instructional leadership are identified: relational, linear, organic, and prophetic. Study results show that among 20 participants 4 were identified as relational, 5 as linear, 3 as organic, 2 as prophetic, and 2 as hybrid conceptions (linear–relational and the other organic–relational (Reitzug et al. 2008). Results of Reitzug et al.'s (2008) study do not include principal identification of themes and qualities of principals' practice that involve collaboration, or involvement of stakeholders in order to achieve organizational goals . A comprehensive model of leadership includes four frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic (Bolman & Deal, 2003). School context affects the type of instructional leadership used by principals, i.e. more of a top-down hands-on approach as compared to a more shared approach (Hallinger, 2005).

Distributed leadership

Distributed Leadership is "a recent antidote, or more correctly a series of antidotes, to the work in the heroics of leadership" (Spillane, 2005, p. 143) and "to slick top-down management approaches becoming more common in school" (Mayrowetz, 2008, p. 428). This leadership concept, according to Spillane, moves beyond the idea of individual school leaders and what they do, to understanding the how and why of school leadership.

Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001) acknowledge the importance of individual school leaders, but contend that leadership involves actions, interactions, and use of resources to manifest situations which enable teaching and learning (Spillane et al.). As such, expectations for 'heroic' individual school leaders capable of creating successful schools are unrealistic and unfounded for several reasons: (1) school leadership roles, typically ascribed to school principals, are assumed by multiple individuals, with and without formal authority within school settings (Spillane, 2005; Spillane, et al., 2001); (2) leadership practice is not separate from the individuals involved; and (3) it is the interactions of actors within schools, not individual actions,

that are critical for leadership practice (Spillane, 2005; Spillane, et al., 2001). Leadership practice, then, is best understood and analyzed through consideration for the "interactive web of actors, artifacts, and the situation" (Spillane et al., p.23).

Emerging from activity theory and situated cognition, distributed leadership is based on the idea that consideration of a situation is crucial for understanding leadership practices (Spillane et al, 2004). This differs markedly from contingency theory in which a situation is viewed as external to leadership practices, or as a factor that determines actions (Spillane, 2005). Instead, a distributed leadership perspective recognizes actors and situations as constituting leadership practices (Spillane). Leadership is viewed as a product of interactions between school leaders, followers, contexts, and artifacts (Spillane). It is "stretched over various facets of the situation including tools, language, and organizational structure" (Spillane et al, 2004., p.21), or "over social and situational contexts" (Spillane et al., 2001, p.23). Leadership, then, is less about knowledge and skill as it is about people and situations (Spillane, 2005).

Spillane (2005) promotes the use of this perspective as "a conceptual or diagnostic tool for thinking about school leadership"(p.149) instead of a prescription for leadership practice. What is important, according to Spillane, is understanding how leadership is distributed, not specific actions or traits of leaders. According to Spillane et al. (2001) this perspective can be used to frame, consider, and improve instructional leadership functions such as creating a vision, building school culture, and improving instruction.

Distributed leadership, however, has taken on diverse meanings. The term has become interchangeable with 'shared leadership', 'collaborative leadership', 'delegated leadership', 'team leadership', and 'democratic leadership' while also being interpreted as leadership by multiple leaders; and as an organizational quality (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, Oduro, &

Waterhouse, 2004; Spillane et al., 2001; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). Moreover, it has been described as a tool for understanding leadership, building democracy, building organizational efficiency and effectiveness, and building human capacity (Mayrowetz, 2008). Common to each use of the term, however, is the idea that distributed leadership is fundamentally a multi-actor practice in which others are allowed to utilize power to affect change (Bennet et al., 2003; MacBeath et al.; Mayrowetz; Spillane & Harris, 2008).

Generally speaking, distributed leadership can be thought of as a "set of individual actions through which people contribute to a group or organization" (Bennett et al, 2003, p.3). Harris (2004) sees distributed leadership as distribution of responsibility and team effort through feelings of collective responsibility. The National College for School Leadership (2004) recognizes distributed leadership as interplay between agential and structural dimensions of the organization, and as enabling opportunity for individuals to exercise leadership aligned with school goals.

Elmore (2000) explains distributed leadership as an orchestration of personnel and expertise around a common set of values for the purpose of improving instruction. He sees distributed leadership as a way of allowing school leaders to influence what he refers to as the 'technical core' of education: "what should be taught, how it should be taught, what students should be expected to learn, how they should be grouped, how they should be required to demonstrate their knowledge, and how their learning should be evaluated" (Elmore, p.2). This task, he contends, is too complex for individual leaders and necessitates the harnessing and utilization of the varied expertise of personnel, i.e. distributing responsibility for leadership. Gronn (2002) also sees distributed leadership as stretched over social and situational contexts but describes two perspectives for its understanding. First, it can be understood from a numerical or

additive perspective, from which distributed leadership is seen as a multi-actor operation independent of actors' role within the organization. Second, it can be perceived from a holistic perspective in which distributed leadership is seen as an operation which allows for "spontaneous and collaborative forms of leadership engagement" (MacBeath et al., 2004, p.13). This includes use of practices such as: "delegation, sharing, collaboration, dispersion and democratizing leadership in schools" (MacBeath et al., p.13) to allow for such instances.

Through a mixed methods study conducted between September 2003 and May 2004, and sponsored by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL), MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004) "investigate the practical implications of what has come to be known as 'distributed leadership'" (p. 3). Six main questions were addressed within the study:

- "What is understood by the term 'distributed' leadership? What meanings are attributed to the term distributed leadership by headteachers and by other staff?
- Who is involved and where does the initiative for distributed leadership lie?
- What are the processes by which leadership is distributed?
- What issues do headteachers encounter in trying to distribute leadership or to create environments in which it takes place?
- What different forms may such distribution take? (For example, is it conferred, delegated, invited, assumed by election or by subversion?)
- How do people in formal leadership positions deal with the multiplicity of leadership roles within a school" (p. 3)?

Data were obtained from 11 schools (4 secondary, 2 middle, 3 primary, and 2 junior/infant) within three local education authorities in England (Essex, Suffolk and Hertfordshire). Schools represented both rural and urban settings. Participants included headteachers and teachers from

each school. Data were collected via shadowing of headteachers for one day, 45-60 minute interviews with headteachers, 45-50 minute interviews with teachers, and surveys. Survey data were obtained from 302 completed questionnaires of the 451 that were distributed to teachers in the 11 schools. Teachers rated 54 survey items, 24 in regard to leadership and management, and 30 in regard to culture and relationships, on two, four point scales: (1) to reflect their perceptions of the item within current practice and (2) to reflect their perception of the importance of the item. Prior to the study, three meetings were held with participants in order to inform them about the study purpose and potential benefits.

For survey items, mean scores for each item on each scale were calculated, as were difference scores between mean ratings on each scale (gap measure). The top five and bottom five statements for leadership and management, and culture and relationships are provided in Table 2.10, and Table 2.11.

Table 2.10
Leadership and Management Statements
(MacBeath et al., 2004).

Leadership and Management Statements
Top Five
Senior management promotes commitment among staff to the whole school as well as to the department, key stage and/or year group
Staff have commitment to the whole school as well as to their department, key stage and/or year group
There is a shared vision among staff as to where the school is going
Staff take responsibility for intervening when they see something which runs against school policy
Staff are encouraged to take on leadership roles
Bottom Five
There is a sense of shared leadership among staff
Pupils are encouraged to exercise leadership
There are processes for involving pupils in decision-making
Staff see the school development plan as their own creation
Parents are encouraged to take on leadership roles

Table 2.11
Culture and Relationships Statements
(MacBeath et al, 2004).

Culture and Relationship Statements
Top Five
Staff believe that all pupils are capable of learning.
Staff offer one another reassurance and support.
Staff, by their behavior, model for pupils the enjoyment in learning.
If staff have a problem with their teaching they usually turn to colleagues for help.
Staff reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs.
Bottom Five
Staff carry out joint research and evaluation with one or more colleagues as a way of improving their practice.
Support staff play an important role in school planning.
Staff challenge one another and are not afraid of disagreement.
Staff welcome opportunities to learn from parents
Staff engage in team teaching as a way of improving practice.

MacBeath et al. (2004) interpret leadership item ratings to reflect the existence of a collaborative school culture in which leaders and staff have developed a shared vision, and a commitment to supporting school policies. Ratings also indicate that the sharing of leadership and decision-making broadly among staff, parents and students does not appear to be highly perceived in practice but is considered to be of great importance.

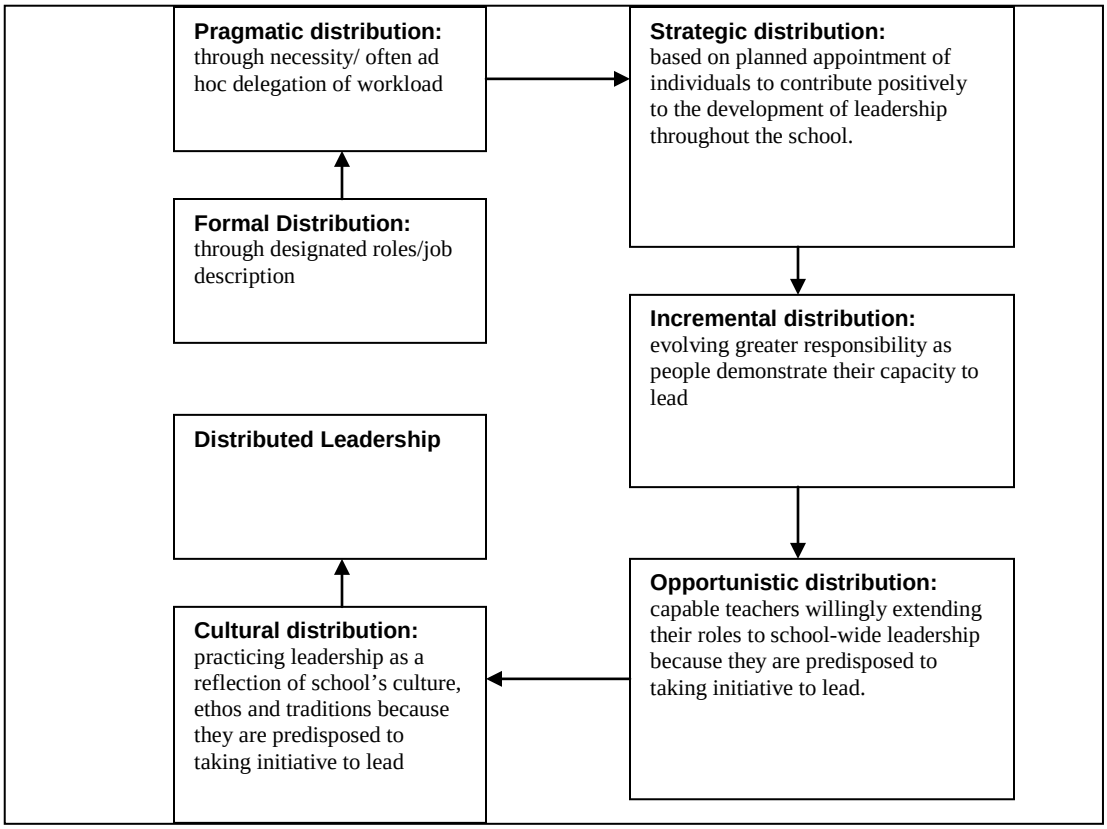
Culture statement rankings are interpreted to suggest the existence of a school culture in which learning is valued, and staff support each other. Staff however, did not place high priorities on working together to improve their own practice, or on involving parents. Further, staff indicated that they needed to be more involved in school planning.

Data collected from headteacher shadowing, one day only, was used to create composite graphs of headteachers' interactions and headteacher tasks. Headteachers were observed to spend most of their time moving about, with little time spend within their respective offices. Most of the headteachers time, one third, was spent with teachers. However, much of

headteachers actions were considered to have an “ad hoc quality, responding to demand and crisis” (p. 28). With respect to headteacher tasks, attending meetings, monitoring learning, and consulting with others comprised the majority of headteacher time, with approximately the same amount of time on each task. As such, “the complexity of the interactions in which headteachers engage and the overwhelming tasks they perform during a day in the school make the issue of distribution crucial” (p.25).

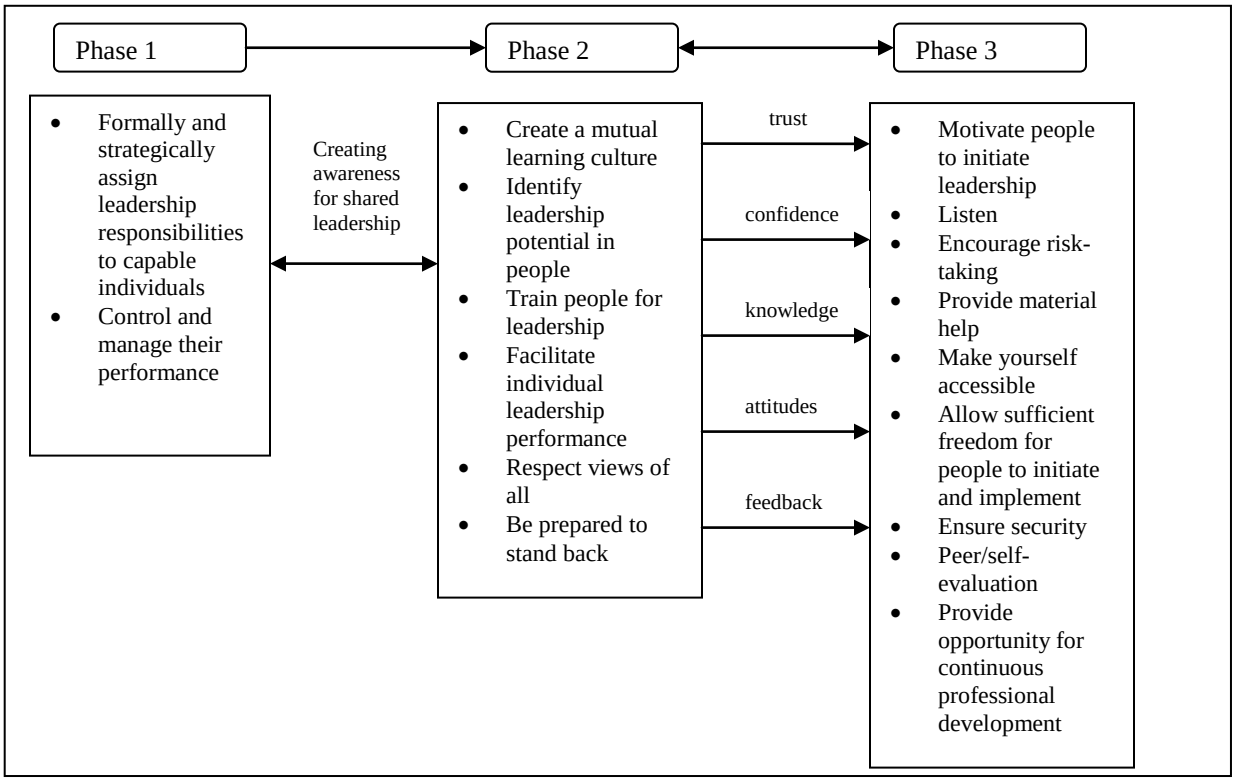
Data collected, in totality, were analyzed and used to “identify the dynamics of leadership and the cultures in which they were set” (MacBeath et al., 2004, p. 34). From this analysis, six stages, or approaches to distributed leadership are described, see Figure 2.3 below. MacBeath et al. portray these approaches as a continuum, but suggest that approaches are not discrete, or mutually exclusive. Instead they conceive of each approach as a component, or expression, of distributed leadership to be utilized as appropriate to the situation at hand.

Figure 2.3
Six Stages, or Approaches to Distributed Leadership
(MacBeath et al, 2004, p.35).



Using the stages of distributed leadership, above in Figure 2.3, MacBeath et al. (2004) developed a model for developing distributed leadership in schools, see Figure 2.4, below. They see distribution of leadership as beginning with formal, pragmatic, and strategic approaches, evolving through incremental and opportunistic phases, and finally becoming culturally embedded.

Figure 2.4
Model for Developing Distributed Leadership in Schools
(MacBeath et al., 2004, p.46).



Factors promoting and inhibiting the development of distributed leadership are also identified from teacher and headteacher interviews. Trust was identified as the most important factor for developing distributed leadership. Mutual acceptance of others leadership, shared goals, availability of resources, stable staffing, and teacher self-esteem were also identified as important. The lack of any promoting factor was identified as inhibiting the development of distributed leadership, as were teacher motivation to take up leadership roles, teacher preparedness to lead, and school structural and accountability factors.

MacBeath et al. (2004) conclude from this study that because of the complexity and frequency of headteacher interactions, distributed leadership is a means for schools to

successfully utilize leadership from all levels in order to address the current demands by policy and from the public. They identify six approaches to distributed leadership and describe approaches as both formal and informal, top-down and bottom-up, and as dependent on contextual factors such as: characteristics of the headteacher, cultural and historical norms, and external pressures. Further, MacBeath et al. propose a model for promoting and developing use of distributed leadership practices within schools.

The study is limited however, by its ability to only roughly describe distributed leadership practice as measured from a varied sample of schools exemplifying or seeking to exemplify distributed leadership. As stated by MacBeath et al., "no schools, or leaders fit neatly into any one of our six models of distribution" (p.24), and across schools, understanding of leadership was found to "mean different things to different people according to their role" (p.25). Further, there exist no quantifiable data to indicate improvements in any facet of teacher or administrator functioning, nor in regard to improvement in student outcomes.

Ritchie and Woods (2004) conducted an analysis of case studies entitled *Leadership Development and Succession Planning: Final Report* in which data collected by Ritchie, Woods, Orr-Ewing, and McKenzie (2004) were utilized. The 2004 study aimed at understanding the degrees to which leadership may be distributed, and was based on a prior research study conducted in order to investigate distributed leadership and its impact on succession planning and retention (Ritchie & Wood). Data were collected from eight primary and two secondary schools through "a series of semi-structured interviews" (Ritchie & Wood, p.368). Participants included: headteachers, deputy headteachers, department heads, and teachers. Schools were asked to provide documentary evidence, and a written description of the school context and its approach to distributed leadership. Participant schools were selected from eight local education

authorities (LEA's) representing urban, suburban, and rural districts in the West of England. Schools were chosen from LEA identified schools where good distributed leadership practices were conducted. A school case study was then created for each school and 'degree of distribution' was identified as a theme that emerged from the original analysis. These themes are comprised of 12 factors identified as indicative of distributed leadership within a school, see Table 18. Validity of factors, claims Ritchie and Woods (2007), is supported by findings of MacBeath et al. (2004).

Schools were also rated on scales developed by Bennett, Harvey, Wise, and Woods (2003) in an article entitled *Desk Study Review of Distributed Leadership*. Based on evidence for existence of the 12 factors, and on placement on Bennet et al.'s (2003) rating scales, schools were then classified into one of three categories indicating its degree of distribution. See Tables 2.12 and 2.13 for factors, and rating scales, respectively.

Table 2.12
Factors Indicative of the Presence of Culturally Embedded Distributed Leadership.

(Ritchie and Woods, 2004, p.370)
• School has explicit values, ethos and aims • The culture is essentially collaborative and structures exist to foster collaboration and team work • Staff are challenged and motivated • Staff regard themselves as learners • Staff feel valued • Staff feel trusted and well supported by the head • Staff involved in creating, sharing and developing a collective vision • Staff were aware of their talents, of the impact of the school on their skill acquisition and of their own leadership potential • Staff seem to relish the responsibilities and opportunities that they are given • Staff feel supported and enabled to take risks • Staff are appreciative of the high degree of autonomy they have

Table 2.13
Rating Scales
(Bennett, Harvey, Wise, & Woods, 2003).

Rating scales measuring the degree to which:
• the organization is Hierarchical vs. Non-hierarchical • staff actions are Controlled vs. Autonomous • the sources of change and development are External/top-down vs. Internal/bottom-up • leadership is Positional vs. Informal • distributed leadership is Institutional vs. Spontaneous

Schools demonstrating strong evidence for the existence of the 12 factors, and that rated as having: non-hierarchical structure, high staff autonomy, internal/bottom-up sources of change, and informal and spontaneous opportunities for staff leadership were categorized as having embedded distributed leadership practices. School categorized as emerging had some factors as being evident, and were considered as: hierarchical with low staff autonomy, externally/top-down driven, and exhibiting formal and institutional leadership. Developing schools were identified as demonstrating some key factors, were attempting to become more distributed in practice, and were typically varied within the rating scales.

Ritchie and Woods (2007) conclude from this study that distributed leadership development within schools depends on the interplay of structural and agential components and that distributed leadership practice may appear differently across settings. They claim that their findings can but utilized as a framework for improving understanding of variations in distributed leadership practice, and as a tool to guide the development of culturally embedded distributed leadership practice within schools.

This study is limited, however, to its ability to only roughly categorize stages of distributed leadership development within schools in which the existence of good distributed practice was accepted as being true. Further, findings are most reflective of practices within primary school settings. Finally, it is not clear that the factors/themes identified are conducive to, or indicative

of distributed leadership. Instead those factors represent themes derived from cumulative evidence, in the work of both Ritchie and Woods (2007) and MacBeath et al. (2004), describing practices and characteristics of sampled schools in which 'good' distributed leadership practice was occurring or desired. With no comparison to schools not utilizing distributed leadership practice it is difficult to know if those factors are essential.

In 2008 Leithwood and Mascal published a quantitative study, *Collective Leadership Effects on Student Achievement,* investigating:

- the impact of collective leadership on key teacher variables and on student learning,
- the relative influence on school decision making of each individual or group included in our measure of collective leadership (administrators, individual teachers, groups of teachers, parents, students), and
- whether differences in the patterns of collective leadership are related to differences in student achievement levels.

This study was conducted from a subset of survey data obtained from a larger study, *Learning From Leadership* (Leithwood et al., 2004). For the larger study, 180 schools from 45 districts and 9 states were chosen. Schools represented elementary, middle and secondary levels with variation in geography, demographics, state governance for education, curriculum standards, leadership policies, accountability systems, school size, student diversity, and trends in student performance on state accountability measures. Data for this study consisted of survey responses by 2,570 teachers from 90 schools in which 4 or more teachers completed the surveys, and for which student achievement data were available. Forty-nine of the original 104 survey items were used for this study: 9 items measured collective leadership; 9 measured teacher

capacity, 17 measured teacher motivation, and 14 measured teacher work settings and conditions. Student achievement data were obtained from state web sites.

For this study shared, collective, and dispersed leadership were conceptualized as forms of distributed leadership. Variables and definitions are found in Table 2.14. Correlation results show that collective leadership was significantly related to each of the teacher variables listed in Table 20. Further, student achievement was found to be significantly related to teacher work setting, and to teacher motivation, but not to teacher capacity.

Table 2.14
Study Variables
(Leithwood and Mascal, 2008).
(continued onto next page)

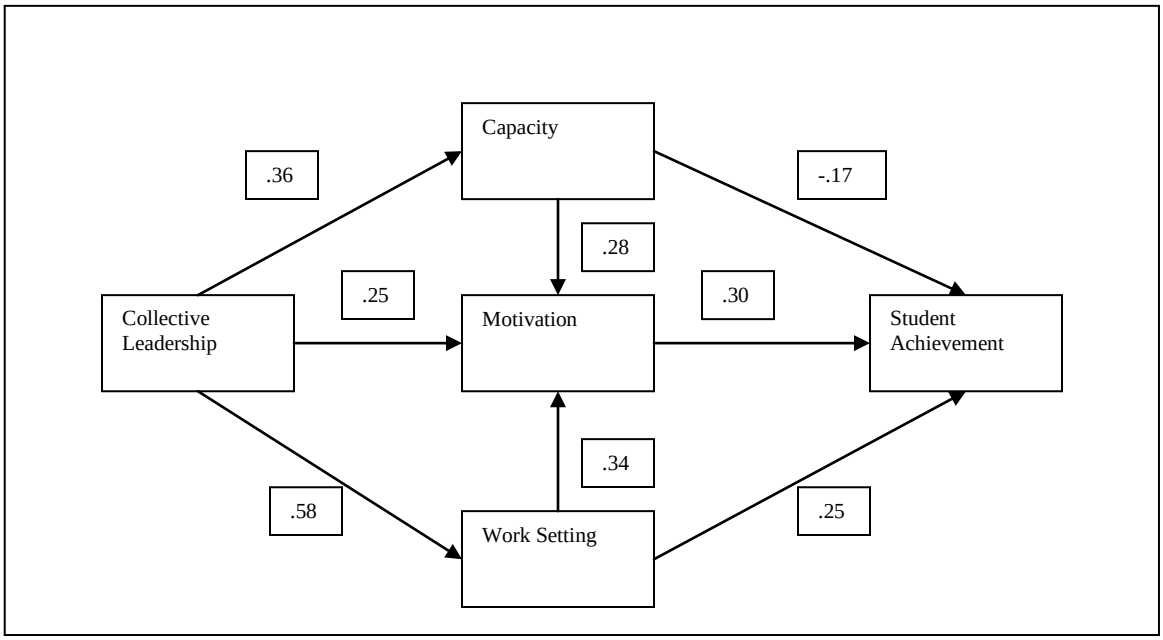
Study Variables

- Collective leadership - "the combined effects of all sources of leadership" (Leithwood and Mascal, 2008, p. 530)
- Student achievement – "school wide results on state-mandated tests of language and mathematics at several grade levels over 3 years (2003–2005)" (p. 540).
- Teacher Variables:
    - Motivation – measured by personal goals, beliefs about one's capacities, and beliefs about one's context or situation.
    - Ability or capacity (knowledge and skills required to accomplish work-related tasks) – measured by amount of multiple opportunities for both sense making and the practice and feedback essential to skill development.
    - Work setting– measured by direct supports for instruction available in the school (e.g., availability of a written curriculum, adequacy of time for professional

development, adequacy of budget) and the extent of teachers' workloads, defined in terms of class sizes, distribution of students with special needs, availability of teaching assistants, and number of subjects taught.

Results of structural equation modeling, see Figure 2.5, show that collective leadership was found to have significant positive linear relationships to all three teacher variables in Table 20, with the strongest relationships to teacher capacity and work setting. Teacher motivation and work setting were found to have significant positive liner relationships with student achievement.

Figure 2.5
Relationships between Sources of Collective Leadership Influence and Student Achievement
(Leithwood & Mascal, 2008).



Based on teacher responses to surveys, and use of paired samples *t* tests to calculate significant differences in ratings of the nine sources of collective leadership listed in Table 2.15, school decisions were found to be "influenced by a broad array of groups and people, reflecting a

distributed conception of leadership" (p.550). Traditional sources of leadership were found to have the highest influence as perceived by teachers, while students and parent influence had the least.

Table 2.15
Sources of Influence on Teachers via Teacher Survey Ratings
(Leithwood and Mascal, 2008)

Sources of Influence (most to least)
1. Principals
2. District-level administrators
3. Other building-level administrators (not principal)
4. Teachers with designated leadership roles
5. Staff teams (e.g., departments, grade levels)
6. Some individual teachers
7. Some individual parents
8. Parent advisory groups
9. Students

Overall, study results show that collective leadership is significantly related to the three teacher variables: motivation, ability or capacity, and work setting, and that modest collective leadership effects on student achievement occur through teacher work setting and teacher motivation. From the teacher perspective, multiple sources are found to influence school decision-making, but traditional hierarchical sources are found to be most influential. Student achievement patterns indicated that more sources of influence were found in higher performing schools, the top 20%, than in the lowest performing schools, the bottom 20%, and that despite additional sources of influence, levels of influence by traditional sources were perceived to be the same, relatively, across schools. Leithwood and Mascal (2008) describe this pattern of distributed leadership found in higher achieving schools as a "hybrid composed of the autocratic prototype (influence rises with hierarchical level) and polyarchic prototype (high levels of influence for all)" (p. 553).

Leithwood and Mascal (2008) conclude from their study findings that "*flatter* might not be the holy grail that it has been portrayed to be by some organizational theorists" (p, 552). As such, they find that "planful distribution of leadership as a strategy for organizational improvement beyond those important efforts to enlist the full range of capacities and commitments found within school organizations" are not empirically justified (p. 557).

Study limitations, as acknowledged by Leithwood and Mascal (2008) , include the inability to identity cause and effect relationships due to the correlational design, "weak relationships between leadership and teacher capacity" due to the teacher capacity variable primarily measuring "professional development opportunities, not actual knowledge and skills" (p.554), and an inability to address sources of leadership and their functions. The study is also limited in its ability to critique distributed leadership as a leadership practice in that the study design does not focus on instances in which collective leadership practices are being utilized consciously or explicitly. Further, because the utilized measure of teacher capacity is not reflective of actual teacher knowledge and skills, it is doubtful that positive influence in that area may not significantly affect student achievement.

Table 2.16
Summary of Distributed Leadership Research Studies.
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse	2004	Mixed methods	Investigation of "the practical implications of what has come to be known as 'distributed leadership'" (MacBeath et al, 2004, p.3).	Data were collected via shadowing, interviews, and surveys.	302 teachers in 11 schools of various levels within three districts in England completed surveys, while shadowing and interviews took place in each school.	Factors promoting and inhibiting the development of distributed leadership are identified. Stages of distribution are generated. They include: formal, pragmatic, strategic, incremental, opportunistic, and cultural categories. A model for sustaining distributed leadership in school is generated.	Significance of statistical data is not reported. Study provides more of a generalized description for approaches to distributed leadership, and a model for developing its use in schools. There are no quantifiable data to indicate improvements in any facet of teacher or administrator functioning, nor in regard to improvement in student outcomes.
Ritchie and Woods	2007	Qualitative	Study explores how degrees of leadership distribution in schools might be differentiated	Analysis of case studies of each school	Data were collected from ten schools in England- eight primary and two secondary schools _ which were identified as exhibiting 'good practice' with regard to distributed leadership.	Twelve factors indicative of distributed leadership are generated. Three degrees of distributed leadership are identified: emerging, developing, and embedded.	This study is limited to its ability to only roughly categorize stages of distributed leadership development within schools and uses a nonspecific method for making determinations. Results are most reflective of practices within primary school settings.
Leithwood and Mascall	2008	Quantitative	"to estimate the impact of collective, or shared, leadership on key teacher variables and on student achievement (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008, p.529).	Responses to 49 items from a 104-item survey administered to teachers provided data for this	2,570 teachers from 90 schools within 45 districts across 9 states.	collective leadership is significantly related to teachers' work setting , teacher motivation, and teacher capacity.	A correlational design does not allow for claims that collective leadership effects bring about change in school or student performance.

				study. Data were analyzed via t-tests and structural equation modeling (LISREL).		collective leadership, teachers' work setting , and teacher motivation are significantly related to student achievement. teachers rated the influence on teachers from traditional sources of leadership is much higher than that of nontraditional sources.	The study did not address sources of leadership. The study is also limited in its ability to critique distributed leadership as a leadership practice in that the study design does not focus on instances in which collective leadership practices are being utilized consciously or explicitly. because the utilized measure of teacher capacity is not reflective of actual teacher knowledge and skills, it is doubtful that positive influence in that area may not significantly affect student achievement. leadership practices resulting from sources of influence are implicit, and the explanations for levels of influence reported in the surveys remain unknown.

Findings from the work of MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004), Ritchie and Woods (2007), and Leithwood and Mascall (2008), Table 2.16, are reflective of mixed methods, case study, and quantitative methodologies, respectively. Collectively, they provide a rough comprehensive understanding of requirements, stages, and benefits of distributed leadership practices, see Figure 2.6 below. Findings of MacBeath et al. indicate that school leader abilities, and the development of conditions and culture within the school are important to the development of staff characteristics enabling distributed leadership practice, and to the actual implementation of distributed leadership practice (MacBeath et al.). The findings of Ritchie and Woods indicate that as leader abilities, required conditions, and staff characteristics develop the organization is able to evolve leadership practices and influence from a formal, individual, top-down, hierarchical mode to a many-source, informal, bottom-up, non-hierarchical, and collaborative mode. Further, Ritchie and Woods provide indicators for staff characteristics when distributed leadership is embedded within the organization. Finally, the work of Leithwood and Mascall indicates that distributed leadership practice can positively affect teacher motivation, work setting, and capacity and through those areas, especially teacher motivation, have significant positive effects on student achievement. Further as the number of sources of influence within schools increased, especially from: principals, district-level administrators, other building-level administrators (not principal), teachers with designated leadership roles, and staff teams (e.g., departments, grade levels) (Leithwood & Mascall) so did student achievement.

Figure 2.6
Model of Distributed Leadership Using Collective Findings
(MacBeath et al., 2004; Ritchie & Woods, 2007; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008).
(continued onto next page)

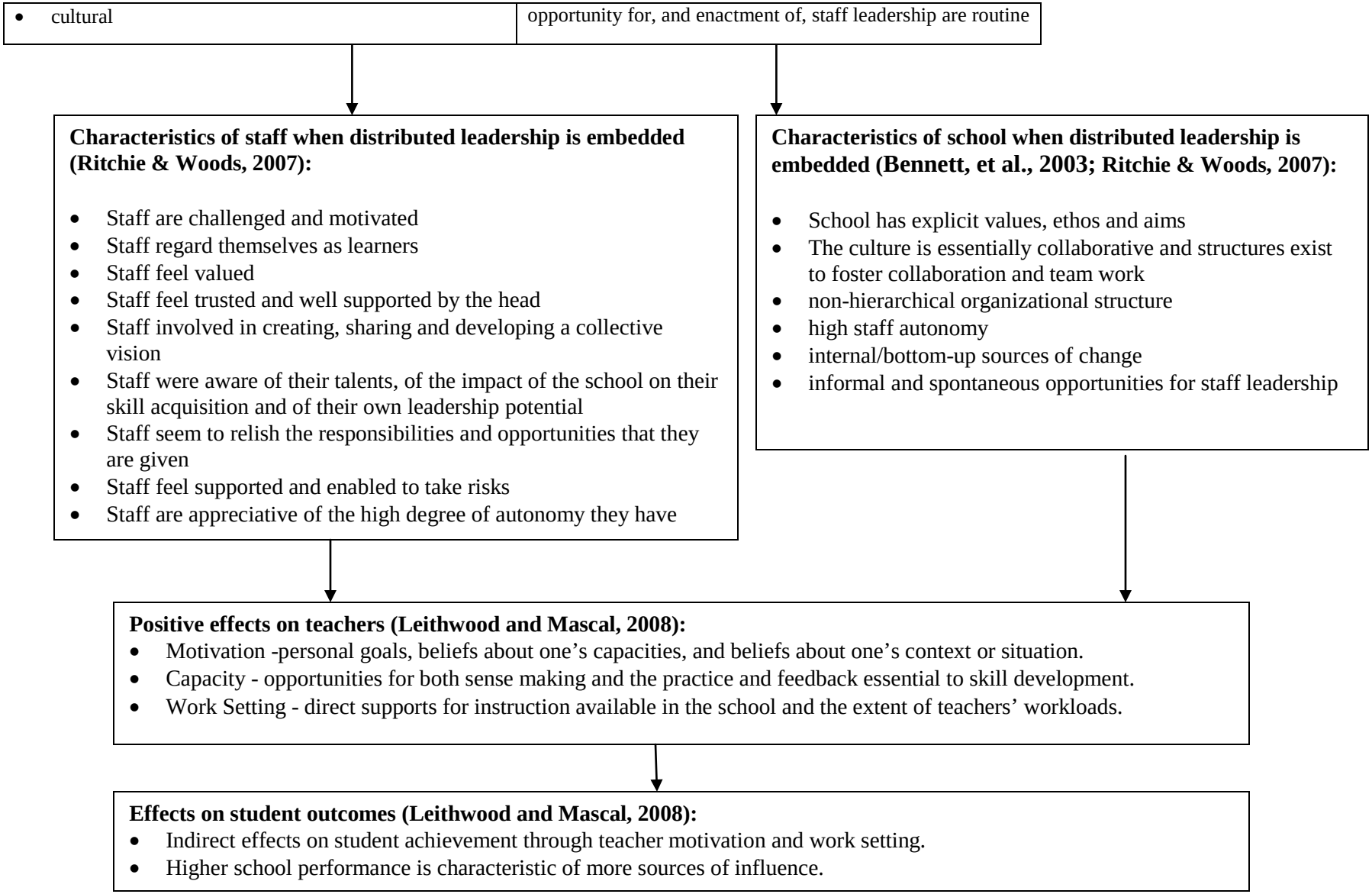
Abilities of leaders in developing distributed leadership within schools (MacBeath et al., 2004)

• Assign leadership responsibilities	• Motivate people to initiate leadership
• Manage the performance of others	• Listen
• Create a mutual learning culture	• Encourage risk-taking
• Identify leadership potential in people	• Provide material help
• Train people for leadership	• Make oneself accessible
• Facilitate individual leadership performance	• Allow sufficient freedom for people to initiate and implement
• Respect views of all	• Ensure security
• Ability to stand back	• Peer/self-evaluate
• Provide opportunity for continuous professional development	

Conditions provided by school leaders to promote distributed leadership (MacBeath et al., 2004):
- Sufficient resources
- Stable staffing
- School structures and accountability
- Teacher preparation for leadership
- leadership opportunities

Characteristics of staff that promote distributed leadership (MacBeath et al., 2004):
- trust
- mutual acceptance of others leadership
- shared goals
- self-esteem
- motivation to take up leadership roles

Stages of Distributed Leadership (MacBeath et al., 2004)	**Major Characteristic**
• formal • pragmatic • strategic	leadership roles are assigned to individuals
• incremental • opportunistic	staff increase their leadership involvement


• cultural
opportunity for, and enactment of, staff leadership are routine
Characteristics of staff when distributed leadership is embedded (Ritchie & Woods, 2007):
• Staff are challenged and motivated
• Staff regard themselves as learners
• Staff feel valued
• Staff feel trusted and well supported by the head
• Staff involved in creating, sharing and developing a collective vision
• Staff were aware of their talents, of the impact of the school on their skill acquisition and of their own leadership potential
• Staff seem to relish the responsibilities and opportunities that they are given
• Staff feel supported and enabled to take risks
• Staff are appreciative of the high degree of autonomy they have
Characteristics of school when distributed leadership is embedded (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007):
• School has explicit values, ethos and aims
• The culture is essentially collaborative and structures exist to foster collaboration and team work
• non-hierarchical organizational structure
• high staff autonomy
• internal/bottom-up sources of change
• informal and spontaneous opportunities for staff leadership
Positive effects on teachers (Leithwood and Mascal, 2008):
• Motivation -personal goals, beliefs about one's capacities, and beliefs about one's context or situation.
• Capacity - opportunities for both sense making and the practice and feedback essential to skill development.
• Work Setting - direct supports for instruction available in the school and the extent of teachers' workloads.
Effects on student outcomes (Leithwood and Mascal, 2008):
• Indirect effects on student achievement through teacher motivation and work setting.
• Higher school performance is characteristic of more sources of influence.

In Summary, reviewed studies are able to provide a basis for understanding and developing a distributed leadership approach within schools. Significant limitations in the refinement of conceptualizations and models of distributed leadership include a lack of identification of sources of leadership, and models for effectively distributing leadership within schools (Leithwood and Mascal, 2008). Because of these limitations, caution is given in regard to the efficacy of distributed leadership to improve instruction and student outcomes (Spillane, 2005). Leithwood and Jantzi (2000. p.61) warn of the possibility that "more leadership actually detracts from clarity of purpose, sense of mission, and sufficient certainty about what needs to be done to allow for productive action in the school". Timperley (2005, p.417) indicates that distribution of leadership "may result in distribution of incompetence" while Maxy and Nguyen (2006) advise that close attention be paid to power distribution patterns in service of particular interests.

Distributed leadership, however, is currently viewed as a promising strategy for improving operation and performance of learning organizations (MacBeath et al, 2004). There is general agreement that distributed leadership includes two central ideas: (1) leadership resides in more than one person, and (2) the leadership of multiple individuals can influence practice and outcomes (Elmore, 2000; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; MacBeath et al; Ritchie & Woods, 2004; Spillane, 2005). These central features separate this style from the lone leader conceptions discussed earlier. Moreover, this style necessitates leader actions within each of the leadership frames identified by Bolman and Deal (2003).

Leaders must put into place organizational structures and strategies necessary for individuals to affect organizational success, and these structures can be focused on developing quality, inclusive instructional practices, and on monitoring achievement. The organizational

culture must be developed in a way that encourages and values ideas and contributions of personnel. Personnel must also be empowered through professional development and cultural norms to effectively act in leadership roles. Lastly, relationships and stakeholder networks must be created in order to access and make use of the various expertise and leadership capabilities of stakeholders.

School leader functioning then, within each of the domains within each leadership frame, can focus on the broader perspective of development, implementation, and sustainment of: (a) an inclusive school culture, (b) teacher understanding, development and utilization of inclusive instructional practices, and (c) the development and implementation of structures providing and monitoring programs, curricula, and assessments that take into account both group and individual learning needs.

Collaborative Leadership/Communities of Practice/PLC's

Collaborative leadership is another alternative to hierarchical top-down leadership models within schools (Eilers & Camacho, 2007). Sometimes referred to as 'shared' leadership, this style emphasizes equal partnerships, diverse input, and improvement of professional knowledge and practice (Eilers & Camacho). Although there exists no single, agreed upon, formal definition of collaborative leadership, several important components have been identified as characteristic of collaborative practice: "common goals (Cook & Friend, 1991; Welch & Sheridan, 1995); joint work or interdependence (Gray, 1989; Little, 1990; Welch and Sheridan, 1995); parity (Cole & Knowles, 1993; Cook & Friend, 1991; Welch & Sheridan, 1995); and voluntary participation (Cook & Friend, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994)" (Slater, 2004).

Various conceptions of collaborative leadership practice can be seen as response to education reform trends of the last two decades (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004). These

trends include the development of site-based management, emphasis on improved teacher professionalism and instructional efficacy, and the development of community via the school (Pugach & Johnson; Slater).

As a response to site-based management and to the promotion of school as community, collaborative leadership practice provides a necessary decentralized approach to educational decision making that also acknowledges the importance of, and contributions by, diverse stakeholders (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004). Within the current educational climate, this is especially necessary in order to enable schools to be effective in addressing the diverse learning needs of both general and special education students (Pugach & Johnson). By involving diverse stakeholders such as parents, state and local agencies, community organizations, colleges and universities, and business, school-community relationships are fostered as is the development of community itself (Slater). This collaborative approach can then be utilized to develop shared educational goals and community values; increase educational resources; improve educational practice; and improve educational outcomes (Pugach & Johnson; Slater).

As a practice, collaborative leadership allows for opportunity for improving teacher professionalism and practice by transforming the traditionally isolated nature of teacher work by increasing and improving teacher-teacher interaction, teacher-administrator interaction, and educator professional development (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004). Collaborative experiences provide educators opportunity to learn from each other and from key stakeholders. In the current era of inclusion and educational accountability, addressing diverse learning needs and improving student learning outcomes is paramount. According to Slater teachers “have the greatest responsibility for improving practice”. Allowing teachers and administrators to interact in ways that allow for educational decision-making to address school, community, and classroom

needs and by providing teachers' opportunity to increase their knowledge base in regard to diverse learning needs, pedagogy, data-based decision making, and research-based practice, both professionalism and practice can be transformed to meet the current demands on educators.

It is important to distinguish collaborative leadership, communities of practice, and professional learning communities from distributed leadership, which has also been described with terms such as 'shared leadership', and 'collaborative leadership'. As described in the previous section, distributed leadership is a multi-actor practice in which people contribute to a group or organization through their *individual* actions (Bennett et al., 2003). Viewed as a product of interactions between school leaders, followers, contexts, and artifacts (Spillane, 2005), distributed leadership enables opportunity for *individuals* to exercise leadership aligned with school goals through agential and structural dimensions of the organization (National College for School Leadership, 2004).

Collaborative leadership is also a multi-actor leadership practice. It differs from distributed leadership, however, in that collaborative practices involve others in a much broader and collective sense. Collaboration involves voluntary participation, joint work, and interdependence within *group* activity around group goals in which there exists parity in relationships (Slater, 2004). Within collaborative leadership practices school, district, and community representation contribute to decision-making, development of educational goals, provision of resources; and improvement of educational practice and outcomes (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater). Therefore, collaborative leadership need not be distributed as individuals may not have the opportunity to exercise leadership in regard to school based decision-making or functioning. Also, distributed leadership need not be collaborative, as groups may not have the ability to exercise leadership in regard to school based decision-making or functioning.

Within the concept of collaborative leadership two main models exist: communities of practice, and professional learning communities (PLC's). The differences between which are not always clear. Wenger (1998) states that communities of practice are defined by members voluntary and mutual engagement within a joint enterprise in which there exists the development of a shared repertoire around "things that matter to people" (p.2). Printy (2008) views communities of practice as being constituted by members of a community who have common understandings and knowledge to share with one another. Buysse, Sparkman, and Wesley (2003) describe communities of practice as the most promising collaborative approach to connecting the work of educational researchers to the work of educational practitioners. Pugach and Johnson (1995) and Slater (2004) view a community of practice model as an effective method for addressing educational reform initiatives aimed at improving teacher professionalism, instructional efficacy, and the development of community via the school.

Similarly, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) defines learning communities as "places in which adults and students work collaboratively and demonstrate a commitment to continuous improvement of performance" (NAESP, 2008, p.2). According to DuFour (2004), however, professional learning communities "describe every imaginable combination of individuals with an interest in education—a grade-level teaching team, a school committee, a high school department, an entire school district, a state department of education, a national professional organization, and so on" (p.1). As such, the terms community of practice and PLC's can be confused. The main difference is identified by Hord (2009). Hord defines PLC's as collaborative work in which colleagues come together to engage in group learning and problem solving. Hord identifies the major function of that collaborative work as staff development aimed at improving teaching and learning. This definition separates

PLC's from communities of practice in that communities of practice are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning (Printy, 2008; Wenger, 1998) while PLC membership is limited to colleagues involved in professional practice aimed at improving teaching and learning (Hord).

According to Wenger (1998) a community of practice can be conceived of as a "cut on the organization's structure" (p.4) that is described by group functioning centered on collective learning via joint enterprise, mutual engagement, and the development and sharing of group resources. Fundamentally self-organizing and self-sufficient, communities of practice arise out of a shared cultural and historical heritage to produce shared practice (Wenger). Communities of this type are not functional units, teams, or networks. They do not exist within an operational definition, are not confined to specific or delineated tasks, and do not exist to create or develop relationships (Wenger). Instead, communities of practice define themselves as members participate and contribute to group understanding and development of shared goals and practices (Wenger). Further, they exist "because members of the community have common understandings and knowledge to share with one another" (Printy, 2008, p.187).

Within the field of education, communities of practice emerged as a model for professional development that addressed: (a) the incorporation of research into practice; (b) the individual nature of teaching practice; (c) development of best practices; (d) and development of shared understanding about the goals of education (Wenger, 1998). Based on the ideas that knowledge is derived from experience, and experience is understood though reflective practice (Wenger), a community of practice model provides a framework for organizational learning through the sharing of information via contributions of practitioners across areas of expertise within schools (Pugach, 1999). Wenger and Snyder (2000) report that diverse membership

allows for novice, intermediate, and expert level personnel to benefit from interactions between members. According to Marks and Printy (2004), exposure to new ideas and perspectives can help community members develop a sense of competence and confidence in their practice, encourage use of new approaches, and help teachers identify areas for improvement. Further, because communities of practice can be diverse, and because they are self-defining and reliant on participant contribution, they provide a setting in which professional development can flourish in accord with the needs defined by the practitioners themselves (Eilers & Camacho, 2007).

Within communities of practice, most activity occurs within a 'core' group of participants who actively develop practice through maintaining commitment to group activity, generating artifacts, and adapting shared goals (Wenger, 1998). As communities of practice have permeable and flexible boundaries, however, peripheral members and those outside the 'core' can contribute to, and influence, community activity. This allows peripheral members and those outside the 'core' to benefit from the work of the community through the sharing of resources, information, artifacts, and practices developed within the 'core' (Printy, 2008).

The efficacy of communities of practice extends beyond improvement of member practice, however. Wenger (1998), and Wenger and Snyder (2000) describe four important functions of communities of practice in regard to organizational learning as: (1) 'living' retainers of information and can serve as valuable resources of information, especially for newcomers; (2) "nodes for the exchange and interpretation of information" that can efficiently and succinctly disseminate information across organizational boundaries, and are ideal for spreading best practices; (3) enabling organizations to be creative in their conception, approach and solution to identified problems; (4) providing personnel with another space, or opportunity, to develop identities within the organization. Because members are familiar with organizational practice

and with each other, problems can be solved quickly and efficiently. This can help organizations both recruit and retain personnel.

Printy' (2008) finds, in her review of the literature regarding designed communities of practice, several important considerations their creation and development. She cites Davis and Sumara (2001), and Pugach (1999) in stating that diverse membership has been found to be essential for learning to occur. However, the sustainment of designed communities is typically short-lived, as found by Mitchell (1999) and Supovitz (2002). Printy cites Buysse et al., (2003) and Wenger (1998) in attributing this lack of sustainability to the exclusion of a self-organizing and self-perpetuating nature of the community. Printy finds support for this claim through the findings of Buysse, et al., Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999), Gilbert and Driscoll (2002), Ladson-Billings and Gomez (2001), and Palincsar et al. (1998) in characterizing designed communities as typically constrained by an already provided focus aimed at the utilization of research-based approaches for improving teacher knowledge and practice.

In her review of research regarding naturally occurring professional communities, Printy (2008) finds that members both contribute to, and benefit from, community functioning (Wenger, 1998). She cites Bidwell et al.(1997) and Bidwell and Yasumoto (1999) in stating the community development and member involvement is strongest when member interests are similar and specific in nature, e.g. in the case of a group of biology teachers as opposed to an entire science department. Lastly, teachers are more apt to adapt their practice in accord to with the community in which they most identify themselves (Coburn, 2001).

Organizations, according to Wenger (1998), can take several actions to support, nurture, and benefit from communities of practice. They can supply resources such as meeting space, technology, etc… that support the functioning of the community. Organizations can legitimize

community work by providing time for community activity and acknowledging community contributions to the organization. In order to better benefit from the work done by communities of practice, organizations can support their formation within areas of organizational need, and help communities articulate and recognize their strategic value.

Within the education field, the development and promotion of professional learning communities for school improvement continues to being investigated. Printy (2008), within her quantitative study titled *Leadership for Teacher Learning: A Community of Practice Perspective*, investigates the social organization of schools in regard to teachers' communities of practice. The study addresses three research questions in order to gain understanding of teacher participation in communities of practice, and the extent of participant interaction with school members:

- To what extent do high school teachers and their perceptions vary based on their teaching subject and curricular track assignment?
- How important is leadership by the department chair and the principal for mathematics and science teachers' participation in productive communities of practice?
- What is the relationship between school leadership and teachers' competence and pedagogical skills?

Data for the study were collected from the Second Follow-up to the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88) (National Center for Education Statistics, 1994) and represented survey responses from 2,718 12^{th} grade math and science teachers from 420 high schools. Teacher surveys were selected based on (a) availability of data pertinent to the study, and (b) a minimum of five teacher surveys from the school were appropriate for the study.

Two-way ANOVA was used to address research question one, while hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was used to address questions two and three. Independent variables used for HLM represent a teacher level and a school level of analysis. Dependent variables included communities of practice, teachers' pedagogical competence, and use of standards-based pedagogy. Continuous variables utilized within the study, with the exception of use of standards-based pedagogy (constructed as a sum of teacher responses), were constructed with the Rasch model. Variables and their definitions are given in Table 2.17.

Table 2.17
Study Variables and Descriptions
(Printy, 2008).

Variable	**Description of measure**
Communities of Practice - a sum of the three component Rasch measures. Rasch measures • Mutual engagement – measures interactions with other teachers • Joint enterprise – measures the extent to which teachers share departmental goals • Shared repertoire - measures cooperative and coordinated participation in activities	Reflects the social learning inherent in teachers' purposeful activity with a broad range of school members around curriculum, instruction, and student performance.
Teachers' pedagogical competence	Sense of self-efficacy, belief in personal ability to influence student learning, and sense of responsibility for student learning
Use of standards-based pedagogy	Reflects student-centered, problem-based instruction aligned with national mathematics and science standards.

Study results, in regard to the first research question, show distinctions between teachers perceptions by level of course taught and by subject taught. Participation in communities of practice, by level of course taught (academic, general/vocational, remedial), was found to occur most with teachers of students within the academic track. Academic teachers reported that they thought more highly of their departmental chairs than teachers of the other tracks, and also reported more job satisfaction. By subject, math teachers reported more productive experiences

in communities of practice than science teachers, and were also found to think more highly of their departmental chairs. Overall, however, remedial math teachers were found to have a higher than average level of participation in communities of practice than all other subgroups. Remedial science teachers were found to have the lowest level of participation.

In regard to the second research question, the influence of department chairs and principals was found to be significant for math and science teacher participation in communities of practice. Departmental leaders were found to have the strongest influence on the amount, and quality of teacher participation in communities of practice. Their influence is considered to stem from the departmental leaders' ability to provide resources, direction, and support for teachers' efforts to participate. Principals' influence was less than that of departmental chairs and depended upon the principals' ability to "communicate a clear vision, support teachers, and buffer them from outside influences" (p. 211).

Printy's (2008) findings in regard to question three indicate that neither department heads nor principals appear to be able to positively influence teachers' pedagogical competence or use of standards based pedagogy. Departmental chairs, in fact, were found to have a significant negative impact on teachers' use of standards-based pedagogy (Printy). Teachers' pedagogical competence and use of standards-based pedagogy were measured to increase by one fifth of a standard deviation, and by nearly one fifth of a standard deviation, respectively, when they participated in communities of practice (Printy).

Other noteworthy results from Printy's (2008) study include findings that women reported higher levels of participation in communities of practice than men, and that teachers in smaller schools reported more productive memberships in communities of practice than teachers in larger schools. School type and socioeconomic status of students' families were not found to

influence teacher participation within communities of practice (Printy). Large school size was found to be positively related to increases in teachers' use of standards-based teaching techniques, while teachers in rural schools were found to use student-centered, problem-based instructional practices more often than teachers in suburban or urban schools (Printy).

Overall results of Printy's (2008) study indicate that teachers of higher level students, those in the academic track, are more satisfied with their work and participate more in communities of practice than teachers of other tracks. Department heads and principals can influence teacher participation within communities of practice but do not appear to influence pedagogical competence. Lastly, productive communities of practice appear to occur more often within smaller schools, and women appear to participate more than men.

Limitations of this study include its ability to be generalized to other subjects, other grades, or other school levels as only 12^{th} grade math and science teachers were included in the study. More importantly though, is the degree to which the study investigates bona fide communities of practice as opposed to investigating "the social organization of schools" (Printy, 2008, p.200). Printy characterizes teachers' communities of practice by the "attributes of individuals who participate, the range of activities available for participation, the quality of members' participation as legitimate or peripheral, the rules for social interaction of members, and the joint understanding of the work that brings individuals together" (p. 199). Printy then goes on to describe teachers within schools as comprising communities of practice even though the reliability measure for the community of practice variable is low. Further, measured variation in the community of practice variable between schools is also low but is described as high within schools. These measures are considered to be a result of low numbers of respondents within each

school, and indicate that schools may be similar in regard to their measure of community of practice but may not actually be communities of practice.

In *Leadership for School Reform: Do Principal Decision-Making Styles Reflect a Collaborative Approach?,* Williams (2006) investigates principal decision-making style, and ability to adopt a collaborative leadership style in response to school district reform efforts to transform schools into professional learning communities (PLCs). This quantitative study utilizes data collected from 166 of 259 New Brunswick principals representing elementary, middle, and senior high schools. Data were collected via principal completion of the decision style inventory developed by Rowe (Rowe & Mason, 1987). The inventory utilizes a decision making model based on values orientation, and cognitive complexity to define four decision-making styles, see Table 2.18. Based on review of the decision-making styles developed by Rowe and Mason (1987), Williams identifies principal use/adoption of the conceptual style as necessary for development of PLCs within New Brunswick schools.

Table 2.18
Grid for Identifying Principal Decision-Making Style
(Rowe & Mason, 1987).

Cognitive Complexity:	Values Orientation:	
	Task	People
• Low	Directive	Behavioral
• High	Analytical	Conceptual

Williams (2006) identifies four decision-making styles and defines them according to their cognitive complexity and values orientation, see Table 2.19. The conceptual decision-making style is described as focusing on "social decisions and exhibiting a people orientation" (Williams, p. 12). Leaders who utilize this style are described as those who share control, utilize data from multiple sources, and who consider multiple possibilities before deciding on a

solution. Conceptual leaders are considered to value relationships based in ethics, trust, and collaboration, and as sharing decision-making, and utilizing loose control with personnel. Leaders of this style also focus on the development long term goals, are achievement oriented, and require the ability to act independently.

Table 2.19
Decision Making Styles
(Williams, 2006).

Decision-making Style	**Description**
a) Directive	• task oriented and low in cognitive complexity • effective in hierarchical structures that maintain the status quo or when change is predictable.
b) Behavioral	• people oriented and low in cognitive complexity • more collegial than collaborative and limited decisions that maintain the status quo or react to predictable change.
c) Analytical	• task oriented and high in cognitive complexity • effective during periods of unpredictable change but relies strongly on a hierarchical structure
d) Conceptual	• people oriented and high in cognitive complexity • collaborative and effective in the highly ambiguous environment associated with unpredictable change.

Data collected from the study, see Table 2.20, indicate that the conceptual style was the dominant style for senior high schools, and was the dominant backup style for full elementary schools. Across all settings, however, no style was found to be dominant. Among female principals, the behavioral and conceptual styles were found to be dominant while, among male principals, the directive and analytical styles were dominant.

Table 2.20
Summary of Study Results
(Williams, 2006).
(continued onto next page)

School Type	Dominant style	Conceptual style ranking (dominant)	Backup style	Conceptual style ranking (backup)
Partial elementary (K-1	Behavioural	2nd (20%)	Directive	4th (35%)

or K-3)	(45%)		(70%)	
Full elementary (K-5 or K-6)	Analytical (27%)	2nd (24%)	Conceptual (51%)	1st (51%)
Elementary/middle	Directive (32%)	2nd (21%)	Behavioural (61%)	2nd (50%)
Middle	Directive (33%)	Tie for 3rd (17%)	Analytical (58%)	4th (48%)
Senior high	Conceptual (32%)	1st	Analytical (54%)	Tied for 2nd with all others (43%)

Williams (2006) concludes from this study that the transformation of schools into professional learning communities is necessary for achieving education reform goals of improving instruction and student achievement through collaborative school leadership. The conceptual decision-making style, William's contends, is "required to facilitating professional learning communities" (p.12). As such, Williams continues explaining that PLC's center on "sharing leadership and building leadership capacity, the foundations upon which professional learning communities are built" (p.6). This presents a significant change in leadership perspective from the traditional technical-rational approach that currently exists in many schools. Data from the study, however, indicate that approximately one in four participating principals used a conceptual style as a dominant approach, and that a conceptual approach was not favored as a back-up approach. This, Williams attributes to the traditional use of hierarchical leadership structures present in most school systems. Therefore, Williams finds that leadership perspectives and practices at all levels must be examined and modified to so that collaborative practice and professional learning community development, mediated through leadership based in a conceptual decision-making style, becomes the norm.

Williams' (2006) study is limited to its ability to generally categorize and describe decision-making styles of school principals as measured by the decision style inventory developed by Rowe and Mason (1987). Claims for the importance, or necessity of use, of the

conceptual style in developing communities of practice are based in reviewed literature, not through study findings.

In 2007, Eilers and Camacho conducted a case study aimed at investigating school level changes impacting school performance. Their study, titled *School Culture Change in the Making: Leadership Factors That Matter,* centered on a low-income, urban, elementary school of 350 students that had been identified as low-performing. Eilers and Camacho (2007) collected both qualitative and quantitative data over a two year period via classroom observations, structured interviews, focus groups, document collection and analysis, and annual survey measures to assess changes in school culture, collaborative leadership, and use of evidence.

At the outset of the study, a novice principal described as focusing on "changing the school culture and then asserting his own brand of leadership employing collaboration, evidence-based practice, and the use of communities of practice" (Eilers & Camacho, 2007, p.619) had been newly assigned to the school. Further, the district is described as being responsive to requests by the principal for additional resources and supports which included a part-time curriculum and testing specialist. Initial school conditions and actions categorized as (1) changing the school culture, (2) collaborative leadership, and (3) using evidence in practice are shown below in Table 2.21.

Table 2.21
Summary of Study Initiatives, Initial Conditions, and Actions
(Eilers & Camacho, 2007).
(continued onto next page)

Major Initiatives	Initial condition	Specific Actions
Changing the school culture – described as "building professional communities of practice, making structural	• Teachers resistant to learning and collaboration • Staff feared outside observers	• 2-day workshop on team building and adventure learning. • Communication to teacher of positive reasons for school visits from others. • Creation of staff assigned reading of Effort and

changes to the schedule, aligning curriculum with assessments, and focusing on students' needs" (Eilers and Camacho, 2007, p. 620).		Excellence in Urban Classrooms (Corbett, Wilson, & Williams, 2002) and facilitation of reading group around the book's key lessons • Creation of grade level teaming and shared teacher prep time. • Facilitation of staff site visits to other schools • Communication of high staff expectations • Use of curriculum and testing specialist to: o help teachers gain ownership of the curriculum and improve student outcomes o coach, model, and mentor teachers. • change of the daily schedule • Alignment of staff professional development with curriculum and assessment.
Collaborative leadership - described as "leadership focused instructional leadership that guides teacher professional learning and continuous improvement (Senge et al., 2000)" (Eilers and Camacho, 2007, p.625).	• teachers not accustomed to working with each other • teachers not accustomed to working with others from outside the school	• Use of mentor for principal • Building of relationships with administrators and staff from other schools, and within the district • Improved communication and collaboration between the school and the district office • Principal positioned himself as a continual learner • Alignment of professional development with school goals via district provided professional development sessions over two consecutive years targeting improvement in math and literacy instruction.
Using evidence in practice – described as "use of data to inform practice", (Eilers and Camacho, 2007, p.629).	• data use not a significant component for school decision making.	• Staff training on data use • Increased use of the state's comprehensive assessment data and the Office of Civil Rights database

Initial data collection via school survey measured the school to have low levels of teacher collaboration, administrative support, and district contact. School survey measures included scales for communities of practice, evidence-based practice, and collaborative leadership. Major initiatives in the areas of school culture change, collaborative leadership, and use of evidence-based practices resulted in significant change in school functioning. Data collected during the second year of the study revealed scores on all three scales that surpassed district averages. Accompanying this change in school culture were significant gains in student achievement scores for both reading and math. Achievement scores in reading improved from 21% to 47% proficiency, while math improved from 23% to 51% proficiency.

Eilers and Camacho (2007) conclude from this study that "multiple and coherent district supports at the school level and collaborative leadership between levels of the district system can result in improvement" (p. 633). Further, survey data are reported to "demonstrate an improvement in professional communities of practice, collaborative leadership, and evidence-based practice" (p. 616). The authors identify district supports in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, and collaborative work between the principal, district staff, and teachers as central to the transformation that took place within the school. Student achievement is not claimed to be a result of school reforms, only that circumstantial evidence exists to support a claim that "school culture matters for student performance" (p. 631).

Study findings by Eilers and Camacho (2007) are limited to a single, low-income, urban elementary school setting. As such the ability to generalize results to other school levels or settings is not supported. Reporting of the improvement and development of communities of practice within the school is suspect in terms of its measure as defined by Wegner (1998) earlier in this section. Survey questions utilized within this study to measure community of practice appear to be more aligned with collaborative leadership actions and outcomes as described by Pugach, and Johnson (1995), and Slater (2004) earlier in this section. As such, it appears that study results may be reflective of an overall improvement in the development and use of collaborative leadership practice within the school, and of the provision of additional personnel and resources. Further, because several major changes occurred within the study timeframe that may have affected school functioning, it is not clear which changes were able to affect practices and outcomes within the school.

Results from the work of Printy (2008), Williams (2006), and Eilers and Camacho (2007) are reflective of two quantitative studies utilizing survey data, and a case study, respectively.

Both Eilers & Camacho, and Williams find that the creation of professional learning communities within a school is a viable means for addressing education reform goals. Eilers and Camacho indicate that collaborative leadership practices need to involve both school and district level leadership and be focused on curriculum, instruction, and assessment. A transformation of leadership from the traditional hierarchical mode to a collaborative mode can be enabled thorough, according to Williams, school leaders' ability to utilize a decision-making style that is: shared, data based, multi-vocal, and based in ethics, trust, and loose control of personnel. Printy adds that collaborative leadership enabling an effective community of practice is influenced by the level of student being taught, the size of the school, and the gender of the participants. Further, Printy finds that department heads and principals can influence the development of communities of practice but not teachers pedagogical competence. See Table 2.22 for studies and major findings.

Table 2.22
Summary of Collaborative/Communities of Practice/PLC's Research Studies.
(continued onto next page)

Author	Date	Type of Study	Research Question	Methodology	Participant(s) / Sample	Results	Limitations
Printy	2008	Quantitative	What "is the extent to which formal leaders influence the formation of productive communities of practice and the extent to which leaders affect teachers' professional beliefs and their instructional skills" (Printy, 2008, 9.187).	Analysis of survey responses by teachers via Two-way ANOVA and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM)	2,718 math and science teachers from 420 high schools.	Teachers' pedagogical competence is not significantly influenced by departmental leaders or principals. The influence of the department chair increases the average participation in communities of practice. Teachers' participation in communities of practice increases their pedagogical competence and standards-based pedagogy.	Data are representative of 12th grade math and science teachers only.
Williams	2006	Quantitative	How do principals understand the relationship between their daily work and the improvement of instruction in their schools?	Percentages of principals using each decision-making style are derived from data collected via principal completion of the decision style inventory developed by Rowe (Rowe & Mason, 1987).	166 of 259 New Brunswick principals representing elementary, middle, and senior high schools.	The conceptual style was the dominant style used in senior high schools. Across all settings, no style was found to be dominant. The conceptual style was the dominant backup style for full elementary schools.	Williams' (2008) study is limited in its ability to generally categorize and describe decision-making styles of school principals as measured by the decision style inventory developed by Rowe and Mason (1987). Claims for the importance, or necessity of use, of the conceptual style in developing communities of practice are based in reviewed literature, not through study findings.

Eilers and Camacho	2007	Qualitative	Investigation of leadership practices within a school, and between the school and district that improve school performance in a relatively short period.	Collection of both qualitative and quantitative data over a two year period via classroom observations, structured interviews, focus groups, document collection and analysis, and annual survey measures.	350 students from a low-income, urban, elementary school that had been identified as low-performing.	"Multiple and coherent district supports at the school level and collaborative leadership between levels of the district system can result in improvement" (Eilers and Camacho, 2007, p. 633). District supports in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, and collaborative work between the principal, district staff, and teachers are central to the transformation that took place within the school.	Case study focused at elementary level only. Many changes took place making it difficult to separate out effects from each change. Student achievement is not claimed to be a result of school reforms, only that circumstantial evidence exists to support a claim that "school culture matters for student performance" (p. 631).

Conspicuously absent from above studies regarding collaborative leadership practice is the involvement of students and parents. This omission reflects a usage of the terms community of practice, and professional learning community as both essentially describing PLC's within schools and districts. Such an omission is not surprising, given Leithwood and Mascal's (2008) finding, described in the distributed leadership section, that students and parents were the sources of least influence on teachers, and MacBeath et al's (2004) finding, also in the above section, that head teachers and teachers raked parent leadership as the lowest survey item describing sources of school leadership. Collectively, however, study results indicate that collaborative leadership practice, and its enactment through the development of professional learning communities, is a viable alternative to a top-down leadership approach within schools. Collaborative leadership practices can influence school culture, and provide opportunities for increased interactions among teachers, administrators, and others from within and outside the school or school district (Printy, 2008; Eilers & Camacho, 2007). With guidance from school leaders, and multiple, appropriate, and focused school level supports, collaborative leadership practices may also be able to influence instructional practices of teachers, which is something principals and department heads seem to have little influence over (Printy; Eilers & Camacho). The successful implementation of such collaborative practices, however, may depend on the willingness or ability of school leaders at the school and district level to operate in a manner that includes sharing of decision-making, provision of appropriate resources, and support for teachers' participation in professional learning communities (Williams, 2006). Further, study limitations indicate that potential benefits of collaborative leadership practices, and its enactment through the development of communities of practice, may not able to be generalized to all subject area teachers across school levels. Even more importantly, there is no evidence to

directly link improved student achievement outcomes to the implementation of collaborative practices or to the development of communities of practice.

As a contemporary leadership style, collaborative leadership necessitates leader actions within the frames described by Bolman and Deal (2003). Leaders must put into place organizational structures and strategies necessary for groups to affect organizational success. The organizational culture must value and encourage ideas and contributions of personnel if individuals are to act in a collective leadership capacity. Relationships and stakeholder networks must be created in order for collaborative practices to exist, and lastly, shared and valued actions and beliefs can be created through collaborative efforts.

With respect to identified leadership criteria, collaborative practice, through PLC's and community of practice modes, allows for group influence, involving diverse stakeholders, within each domain. Group influence, in a professional learning community mode, can impact school decision-making; influence school culture; provide opportunities for increased interactions among teachers, administrators, and others from within and outside the school or school district; and may also be able to influence instructional practices of teachers, which is something principals and department heads seem to have little influence over (Printy, 2008; Eilers & Camacho, 2007). However, there is not sufficient evidence to directly link improved student achievement outcomes to the implementation of collaborative practices, specifically in regard to a community of practice model. Further, potential benefits of collaborative leadership practices, and its enactment through a community of practice mode, may not able to be generalized to all subject area teachers across school levels.

Summary

Current education reform initiatives found in NCLB (2001), IDEA (2004), and Race to the Top (2010) are, and continue, to influence educational policy and practice within states, districts, schools, and classrooms (Bays, D. and Crockett, J., 2007; Boscardin, 2004; DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran, & Walther-Thomas, 2004). Common learning and achievement standards are now the norm within states, and are becoming the norm nationally (IDEA; NCLB; Race to the Top Program Executive Summary, 2009). Along with these standards come expectations that students of all backgrounds and abilities meet these standards, and that accountability measures address when they are not (Boscardin, 2007; Swanson and Deshler, 2003). Further, each state, district, school, teacher, and student is held accountable for the achievement of student learning outcomes at the student cohort level, and may soon be accountable for individual student outcomes (IDEA; NCLB; Race to the Top Program Executive Summary).

For contemporary school leaders, reform brings about expectations for the improvement of teaching practices, and for the achievement of all students (Billingsley, 2004; Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2009). Student achievement is most influenced through instruction, and secondarily through school leadership. Because instructional strategies succeed or fail within the interactions between teacher and student (Copeland, 2003), school leader ability to directly influence teacher's instructional practices, and to indirectly influence student learning outcomes is of paramount importance (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008;Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

From a conceptual perspective of leadership, and leadership within schools, school leaders are identified as needing to "improve employee performance; and such performance is a function of employees' beliefs, values, motivations, skills and knowledge, and the conditions in

which they work (Leithwood, et al., 2008) p.6)". Centrally, school leaders need to address the core function of schooling, instruction (Elmore, 2000). This entails the creation of a shared mission and values; the empowerment and development of personnel; the influence of organizational culture (Sigford, 2006), and the development of effective organizational structures (Spillane, et al., 2011). Bolman and Deal (2003) perceive these practices as occurring in four modes: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. More specifically, Bolman and Deal see school leadership as: creating organizational structures and strategies necessary for organizational success; creating organizational cultures in which ideas and contributions of personnel are valued and encouraged; building relationships and stakeholder networks in order to achieve organizational goals; and developing community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs.

More conceptually, contemporary demands reflect the need for school leaders to be able to understand the connections and dynamics between subject matter, teaching, and learning, and to allow for multiple sources of influence if they are to improve instruction and student outcomes (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; Stein and Nelson, 2003). To that end, contemporary school leaders need to focus on the development of strong teachers, and involve them, and others, in the leadership and decision-making within schools (Stein & Nelson; Elmore; Leithwood et al.; Barber and Mourshed).

A perspective of school leadership derived from a review of the literature indicates that contemporary demands on school leaders highlight a need for school leaders to be effective in influencing instruction to meet the needs of all students. This requires leaders to be able to develop, implement, and monitor instructional programs and practices that meet diverse learning needs (Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004;

Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2006; Stein & Nelson, 2003;). Achievement of these requirements implies a transformation of the traditional responsibilities of special education leaders to address "the problems of practice inherent in a diverse, complex, high-stakes educational environment (Lashley & Boscardin, 2003, p. 18). For general education leaders, it implies a transformation of perspective on school culture and functioning to include inclusive practices that takes into account the individual learning needs of children with disabilities (Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al.), and increased collaborative efforts that enable others to influence decision-making and to improve individual and collective instructional practices (Elmore; Leithwood et al.; Walther-Thomas & DiPaola, 2003). More specifically, these skills include: (a) strong analytical ability, (b) the ability to understand and utilize data and research to improve practice, (c) the ability to understand and comply with legal requirements (Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006), and the inclusion and involvement of various stakeholders to influence instructional practice (Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al.; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al, 2008;Stein and Nelson, 2003).

A comparison of the three investigated leadership styles considered to enable school leaders to meet contemporary leadership criteria is provided Table 2.23. Each leadership domain represents an area of leadership identified as important to the work of school leaders as leaders of special education. Inspection of this table reveals that leader actions within each style are distinct when compared across leadership domains.

Instructional leadership actions center on decisions and actions taken by the principal. Principals, then, as the centers of power and expertise within schools, must possess a broad range of knowledge and expertise if they are to be effective. This includes: (1) possession of knowledge of special education law and policy, (2) the ability to analyze and evaluate data, (3)

(4) understanding of individual learning needs of students with disabilities, (4) the ability to create inclusive instructional programs that meet those needs, (5) the provision of teacher development of instructional strategies that meet diverse learning needs, (6) and the ability to monitor and evaluate those instructional practices and programs.

Distributed leadership actions center on the promotion of, and allowance for others to take on leadership roles, and to implement ideas. As such, school leaders must enable and facilitate the actions of those seeking to engage in leadership roles if leadership is to be legitimately distributed. By accessing and utilizing the expertise and leadership of others individual school leader deficits in knowledge, and ability may be circumvented.

Collaborative leadership actions focus on group leadership and decision-making. Therefore, formal school leaders must create, and participate within, diverse stakeholder groups in order to function effectively within this style. By accessing and utilizing the expertise and leadership of stakeholder groups, school leader deficits in knowledge, and ability may also be circumvented.

Table 2.23
Characteristic Leader Actions, Depending on Leadership Style, Associated with Leadership Domains Identified as Important to the Work of Leaders of Special Education in Serving Students with Disabilities
(continued onto next page)

	Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style			
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**
Symbolic – develop community	**Development of Inclusive Learning Environments** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	Principal defines an inclusive school mission and goals, and communicates them to personnel (Hallinger, 2005)	A common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students is developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).	Diverse stakeholder groups identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)
Political – build stakeholder networks and relationships	**Utilization of Multi-actor leadership (Collaboration** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006) **and Distribution of Leadership** (Elmore, 2000; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; MacBeath et al; Ritchie & Woods, 2004; Spillane, 2005).	Principal engages the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success (NAESP, 2008). Principal empowers personnel to effectively act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007)	Principal and other leaders act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007)	Principal, and leadership groups serve as the main decision-making bodies (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004).
Human Resource – develop and empower people	**Development of Teachers Capable of Providing High Quality Instruction to All Students** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; O'Brien, 2006)	Principal is directly involved in classroom practices, promotes professional development (Hallinger, 2005), and provides professional development aligned with school vision, content, and curriculum (Graczewski al., 2009)	A culture in which teachers learn from each other, and provide opportunities for continuous professional development are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004).	Colleagues engage in group learning and problem solving as PLC's (Hord, 2009). Diverse groups engage in learning through the community of practice model (Pugach, 1999).
Structural - organizational development	**Program Development and Organization** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2006; Stein & Nelson, 2003)	Principal defines the program vision and program requirements and coordinates the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005).	Teachers are encouraged to initiate leadership roles and to take risks; are provided material help; and are allowed sufficient freedom to develop and initiate programs (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004).	Diverse stakeholder groups develop programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)

	Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style			
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**
Structural – organizational development	**Evaluation of Educational Programs & Program Outcomes** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006)	Principal supervises and evaluates instruction, and monitors student progress (Hallinger, 2005).	Programs are evaluated via contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources. (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).	Diverse stakeholder groups evaluate programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)
Human Resources - Domain area serves as an informational input for actions within each frame	**Law and Policy** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	Principal possesses expertise around law, and policy, and its implementation (Hallinger, 2003).	Understanding of, and compliance with, law and policy requirements are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).	Diverse stakeholder groups develop understanding of, and ensure compliance with, legal and policy requirements (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Upon review of leadership styles, instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership appear to be appropriate for investigation in order to ascertain their efficacy in enabling school leaders to provide effective programs and services for all students. Understanding how school leaders value leadership style components of each is a vital next step in furthering the development and implementation of leadership styles within schools that enable school leaders to meet contemporary demands.

As discussed within the previous chapter, current educational reform initiatives around accountability place special emphasis on the improvement of instruction and student achievement of all students (Billingsley, 2004; Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2009). For contemporary special education leaders, those administrators within schools who can formally influence special education practice, attainment of these goals emphasizes the need for leadership to affect teacher practice, which can be done directly, and student outcomes, which can be affected indirectly (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Leadership, then, must utilize knowledge, skills, and abilities traditionally conceived of as belonging separately to general and special leaders (Boscardin, 2003; Boscardin, 2007). This convergence of knowledge, skill, and ability results in a need for school leaders to be able to effectively address leadership domains identified as important to the work of leaders of special education.

As indicated by the research, each reviewed leadership style enables school leaders, as leaders of special education, to meet contemporary leadership demands in different ways. As

such, this study focuses on the three styles identified as having the potential to enable leaders of special education to meet contemporary demands for providing effective programs and services for all students; instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership. Specifically, this study attempts to identify the most and least valued components of aforementioned leadership styles by leaders of special education, specifically school principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators. Understanding how leaders of special education value these approaches to leadership is a vital next step in enabling school leaders to understand and improve practice to meet contemporary special education leadership demands.

Rationale for Research

The groundwork supporting a study investigating how special education leader's value instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership style components is based on four important existing conditions: (1) the presence of education reform pressures placed on special education leaders to utilize multi-actor leadership styles (Elmore, 2000; Slater, 2004), (2) limitations of current understandings of multi-actor leadership styles (Slater, 2004; Spillane, 2005), (3) a dearth of subjective investigations into the use, and efficacy of those styles, and (4) instructional leadership becoming the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003). Therefore, the further development of an understanding of how leaders of special education value instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership components is a viable and important next step in furthering understanding of special education leaders' use of multi-actor leadership styles.

Research presented in Chapter II consists of current studies aimed at developing an understanding of leadership styles, through objective means, in order to develop models of, and for, their use, and for measuring leadership style impact on teaching and student achievement.

No research presented in Chapter II, however, investigates leaders of special education understanding, or use of investigated leadership styles from the subjective perspective of the leader. Therefore, a better understanding of the distinct viewpoints of leaders of special education on individual actor, and multi-actor leadership styles can be obtained through investigation into the subjective perceptions of those leaders.

Investigation into those subjective perceptions is important for two major reasons: (1) the use of multi-actor leadership styles necessitates a significant change in leadership perspective, and (2) leadership practice. Change in leadership perspective stems from the deviation of multi-actor leadership styles from traditional, individual leader approaches. Representative of the individual leader approach, and the current 'model of choice' for school leaders, is the instructional leadership model (Hallinger, 2003) which relies on the individual school leader to act as the "centre of expertise, power and authority" within schools (Hallinger, 2003. p.330). This model relies on an 'I' approach to leadership. Multi-actor styles, distributed and collaborative leadership, respectively, utilize a 'they', and a 'we' approach to leadership. Distributed leadership essentially relies on a 'they' approach as individuals are enabled to take on leadership roles and to make decisions (Bennett et al., 2003; Harris, 2004). Collaborative leadership utilizes a 'we' approach as groups of stakeholders are allowed to lead and make decisions (Printy, 2008; Slater, 2004;Wenger,1998). Therefore, the transition for leaders of special education from an individual to a multi-actor leadership style will entail a fundamental shift in how those leaders understand their leadership role, and how they perceive the roles of those traditionally not acting as leaders and decision-makers.

Change in leadership practice also stems from the deviation of leadership styles from traditional, individual leader approaches. A reliance on the involvement of others, within and

outside the school, to act as leaders and to make decisions requires leaders to now, as a matter of practice, establish more and varied relationships, develop organizational structures allowing group or individual input, and to develop and support leadership abilities of others (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Spillane, 2005). Leaders of special education will also need to address what is perhaps the most significant issue associated with leadership practice, accountability.

Currently, accountability for school performance and decision-making remains assigned to those in traditional leadership roles, principals and special education administrators (Bass, 1985; Hallinger, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). Utilization of a multi-actor leadership style enables leadership and decision-making of others, but accountability for those decisions and outcomes is not explicitly assigned, and also not addressed by reform initiatives, or research. Why then, would leaders of special education risk moving away from an 'I' leadership style (e.g. in which accountability is explicitly assigned to them for decision-making and organizational performance, to a 'they' or 'we' style in which others have been enabled to lead and make-decisions, yet those in traditional leadership roles remain accountable for those decisions?

Other subjective considerations impacting the decision to utilize a multi-actor leadership style include perceptions of: (a) pressure exerted by educational reforms to utilize multi-actor leadership styles, (b) research-based evidence of potential benefits from the use of distributed and collaborative leadership styles, and (c) the existence of explicit models for effectively implementing multi-actor leadership styles. Therefore, the use of multi-actor leadership styles by leaders of special education is subject to individual leaders' understandings of those styles, perceptions of their usefulness, and perceptions regarding their required use of those styles.

Despite research-based limitations in understanding multi-actor leadership styles, there exist research-based means for identifying multi-actor leadership style components. Multi-actor

styles are less developed than traditional styles, but research does include idealized conceptions, and research-based findings describing their development and existence within schools. Further, for each style there exist validated research-based models, instruments, and conceptions describing style components, and uses. As such, a study of contemporary leadership styles can proceed from existing research. For this study, a Q methodology similar to Mosley (2010), Povost et al. (2009), and Militello and Janson (2008) will be utilized to investigate how special education leaders' value distributed and collaborative leadership style components in relation to their work as special education leaders.

The above conditions provide a rationale for the study of how leaders of special education value instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership components. There exists pressure on leadership through reform initiatives to utilize multi-actor leadership styles. Neither reforms nor research, however, provide sufficient motivation or information to leaders of special education that contributes to well-informed decision-making regarding the efficacy or utilization of multi-actor leadership styles. There do exist tools, however, that enable the identification of leadership style components. Therefore, it is important to investigate the subjective perceptions of leaders of special education in order to establish the usefulness of multi-actor leadership style components within the context of their work. Results of such a study may contribute to school leaders' better understanding of collaborative and distributed leadership, and promote further understanding of ways to study leadership.

Research Questions

Research questions that guide this study of instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership styles among leaders of special education include:

1. Are there any clusters of participants who sorted the leadership style statements similarly?

2. How are the leadership style statements ranked in relationship to participant roles?

3. To what extent did the highest ranked leadership style component statements differ from the lowest ranked leadership items?

4. How did the participants describe the rankings of the overall most and least important leadership statements regarding the work of a leader of special education?

5. Are there any similarities or differences among leadership statement rankings in relationship to the participant clusters?

Research Design

For this study, the subjective nature of school leaders' use of contemporary leadership styles guides the choice of methodology. A "scientific approach to the study of subjective ideas" (Aitken, 1988, p.2) can be accomplished by Q methodology (Aitken; Brown, 1991). Q methodology, developed in the 1930's as an approach to person correlations, was introduced by William Stephenson in *The Study of Behavior* (Stephenson, 1953). This methodology differs significantly from the more commonly used R factor-analytic technique in which clusters of variables are analyzed (Campbell, 1995). R methodology utilizes data in the form of a two dimensional matrix in which rows of data represent individuals, and columns of data represent measurement (Aitken). Results from R methods can be used to develop theory and to validate measures of behavior and ability (Campbell). Q methodology, like R, utilizes data in a two dimensional matrix form, but rows represent measurements and columns represent individuals (Campbell). In other words, in R methodology, measurements represent variables, and in Q methodology individuals are the variables (Campbell). As such, Q methodology "clusters people based on similarities of their responses" (Campbell, p.7), or in this case, their sorts, and "the researcher obtains person-types or thinking patterns of people through principles of factor analysis" (Aitken, p.3). In short, "Q determines person factors, or which participants sort items

similarly, while R determines concept factors" (Aitken, p.5). Results from Q methodology can be used to develop theory and to investigate differences in persons (Campbell). In this study Q methodology will be used to study the differences in leader perspectives. This approach according to Brown (1991) "provides a foundation for the systematic study of subjectivity, and it is this central feature which recommends it to persons interested in qualitative aspects of human behavior" (p.2).

Participants

In Q methodology, data are collected through participants sorting of items based on a subjective scale such as 'agree' or 'disagree' or 'most' to 'least' (Brown, 1991). The number of participants can vary from one to thousands, but rarely exceed fifty (Aitken, 1988; Brown) and item selection can be 'structured' or 'unstructured'. That is items can be chosen from dimensions within a given domain, or simply chosen from a given domain (Campbell, 1995). For example, and for the study proposed here, a structured Q-sort, leadership items to be sorted are representative of instructional, distributed and collaborative leadership styles. Items, for an unstructured sort, would be representative of leadership items only.

Participants selected for this study will include thirty special education leaders within Massachusetts schools. Special education leaders are identified as those administrators within schools who act in the leadership domains identified in Chapter I: principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators. Further, participants will be required to possess initial or professional licenses for Principal/Assistant Principal, or for Special Education Administration. Because of licensing requirements, all participants will have received a Bachelor's Degree, and will have 3 full years of employment within an educational setting (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2003). Selection of 30 participants for the study is

appropriate as, per Brown (1991), thirty participants is sufficient for providing a range and diversity of viewpoints in order to establish the existence of a factor for the purpose of comparing one factor to another.

Background information that will be collected for this study will characterize both participants and the districts within which they currently work. Participant background information will be collected via questionnaire, see Table 3.1, and will include participant: (a) age, (b) ethnicity, (c) gender, (d) administrative position, (e) number of years in that administrative position, (f) total number of years of administrative experience, (g) academic licenses held, (h) number of years working under each license, and (i) highest education level attained. District background information for each participant will include: (a) district enrollment, (b) school enrollment, (c) grades served within the school, (d) percent of students identified as special education within the school, (e) percent of students identified as free or reduced lunch, (f) % of core academic classes taught by teachers who are highly qualified, (g) the NCLB accountability status of the school, and (h) Coordinated Program Review findings. District and school data will be obtained from the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education website and compiled in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1
Participant Background Information
(continued onto next page)

Category	Participant Information	Data Source
Age	❒ 20 – 29 ❒ 30 – 39 ❒ 40 – 49 ❒ 50 – 59 ❒ 60 – 69 ❒ 70 – 79	Participant
Ethnicity	❒ African American ❒ Asian ❒ Hispanic	Participant

	❒ Native American ❒ White ❒ Native Hawaiian, Pacific Islander ❒ Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic	
Gender	❒ Male ❒ Female	Participant
Current Administrative Position	❒ Principal ❒ Assistant Principal ❒ Special Education Administrator	Participant
Number of Years in Current Position	❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21	Participant
Total Number of Years of Administrative Experience	❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21	Participant
Other Academic Licenses Held and Number of Years Working Under Each License	❒ General Education Teacher ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Special Education Teacher ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Principal/Assistant Principal ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Special Education Administrator ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Superintendent/Assistant Superintendent ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Related Service Provider ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21	Participant
Highest Education Level Attained	❒ Master's Degree ❒ Master's Degree +30 ❒ Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS) ❒ Ed.D. or Ph.D.	Participant

Table 3.2
District Background Information.

Category	District Information	Data Source
District Enrollment	❒ < 1,000 ❒ 1000 ≤ 4,000 ❒ > 4,000	DESE Website
Total School Enrollment	❒ 0 to 1,000, ❒ 1,000 to 2,000, ❒ 2,000 to 3,000, ❒ 3,000 to 4,000, ❒ 4,000 to 5,000, ❒ 5,000 to 6,000, ❒ 6,000 to 7,000, ❒ 7,000 to 8,000 ❒ 8,000 to 9,000, ❒ 9,000 to 10,000, ❒ 10,000 to 11,000, ❒ 11,000 to 12,000, ❒ 12,000 to 13,000, ❒ 13,000 to 14,000, ❒ 14,000 to 15,000, ❒ 15,000 to 16,000, ❒ 16,000 to 17,000, ❒ 17,000 to 18,000, ❒ 18,000 to 19,000, ❒ 19,000 to 20,000, ❒ > 20,000	DESE Website
Percent of Students Identified as Special Education Within the School	❒ 0 to 10% ❒ 10% to 20% ❒ 20% to 30% ❒ 30% to 47%	DESE Website
Grades Served Within the School	❒ K, ❒ 1, ❒ 2, ❒ 3, ❒ 4, ❒ 5, ❒ 6, ❒ 7, ❒ 8, ❒ 9, ❒ 10, ❒ 11, ❒ 12	DESE Website
NCLB Accountability Status of the School	❒ II1/2-S: Identified for Improvement - Subgroups only (Year 1 or 2) ❒ II1/2-A: Identified for Improvement (Year 1 or 2) ❒ CA-S: Identified for Corrective Action - Subgroups only ❒ CA-A: Identified for Corrective Action ❒ RST1/2-S: Identified for Restructuring - Subgroups only (Year 1 or 2) ❒ RST1/2: Identified for Restructuring (Year 1 or 2) ❒ UR: Under Review	DESE Website
% of Core Academic Classes Taught by Teachers Who are Highly Qualified	❒ ≤ 90% ❒ 90% to 98% ❒ 98% to 100% ❒ 100%	DESE Website
Percent of Students Identified as Free or Reduced Lunch Within the School	❒ ≤ 10%, ❒ 10% to 20%, ❒ 20% to 30%, ❒ 30% to 40%, ❒ 40% to 50%, ❒ 50% to 60%, ❒ 60% to 70%, ❒ 70% to 80%,❒ ≥ 80%	DESE Website
Coordinated Program Review Findings	Special Education Program Areas Receiving a Commendable Rating: Special Education Program Areas Requiring Corrective Action:	DESE Website

Q sample development

Items themselves, the Q-sample, are drawn from a larger collection of ideas or opinions called a 'concourse' (Brown, 1991). The concourse can be derived from interviews, the literature, or focus groups (Aitken, 1988). McKeown and Thomas (1988) categorize Q samples derived from the oral or written responses of participants are as 'naturalistic', while Q samples derived from sources external to the participants are categorized as 'ready made' (Larry, 1993). Derived Q-samples typically consists of N=40 to 50 statements (Brown, 1980). Participants, then are given individual statement cards, in random order, and asked to sort the cards into a normal or quasi-normal distribution on which a subjective scale is given (Brown; Kerlinger, 1986). Therefore, opposite extremes are fewest in number, while more neutral statements comprise the larger middle. However, "both the range and the distribution shape are arbitrary and have no effect on the subsequent statistical analysis, and can therefore be altered for the convenience of the Q sorter" (Brown,1991 p.10). In general, Q samples smaller than N=40 range from +4 to -4; N=40-60 range from +5 to -5; and N>60 range from +6 to -6. (Brown, 1980). Once the sort has been completed by all participants, a table reflecting the rating for each item by each individual can be constructed. Factor analysis may then be conducted in order to determine "how many basically different Q sorts are in evidence" (Brown, 1991, p.16). Persons sharing common conceptions then, define each basically different Q sort, or factor (Brown). Each Q sort, then, represents an individual version of the concourse and each factor represents a commonly held conception (Brown).

Collectively, 50 statements are derived to comprise the Q sample. This number of statements is slightly larger than the typical 40 (Brown, 1980), but well within the typical range

of 40-100 (Kerlinger, 1979). Further, the process for deriving statements is similar to that of prior studies conducted by Mosely (2010), Provost et al. (2010) and Militello and Janson (2008).

Mosley's, and Provost et al.'s samples are 'ready made' as they are derived from a questionnaires used by Bass (1985), and Heck and Marcoulides (1993) respectively, while Militello and Janson's (2008) is "naturalistic" as their statements are derived from 177 opinion statements generated through participant interviews. Statements for this study, and similarly to Mosley, and Provost et al., are also directly derived from research studies, but are also modified to action statements, in order to create ready-made Q sample statements as described by Militello and Janson for the purposes of this study. In both cases, modifications are made "for clarity, but (statements) retain as much of the original language and words of the participants as possible" (Militello & Janson, p.16).

The Q sample concourse consists of the educational literature regarding instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Instructional leadership statements are derived predominantly from the work of Hallinger (2005) in which leader actions characteristic of each leadership style and identified as important to the work of leaders of special education are developed. From the instructional leadership literature, 19 statements that represent instructional leader actions are derived: eight from Hallinger (2005), five from (Graczewski, et al., 2009), five from NAESP (2008), and one from Reitzug et al., (2008). Nine additional statements are derived from the synthesis of the literature describing instructional leader actions within the leadership domains identified as important to the work of leaders of special education. All action statements are provided in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3
Instructional Leadership Action Statements

Actions derived from specific research within Chapter II	Actions derived from the synthesis of literature
1. Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means of achieving desired outcomes (Reitzug, et al., 2008) 2. Set high expectations and standards for the academic and social development of all students and the performance of adults (NAESP, 2008) 3. Demand content and instruction that ensures student achievement of agreed-upon academic standards. (NAESP, 2008) 4. Create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals. (NAESP, 2008) 5. Use multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify, and apply instructional improvement. (NAESP, 2008) 6. Actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success. (NAESP, 2008) 7. Articulate clear goals and strategies for the improvement of instruction and student achievement (Graczewski, et al., 2009) 8. Align various goals and strategies with professional development (Graczewski, et al., 2009) 9. Provide resources and support for professional development (Graczewski, et al., 2009) 10. Visit classrooms(Graczewski, et al., 2009) 11. understand the learning needs of teachers (Graczewski, et al., 2009) 12. Define a clear direction for the school and motivate others to join in its achievement. (Hallinger, 2005) 13. Align the strategies and activities of the school with the school's academic mission (Hallinger, 2005) 14. Working directly with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2005) 15. Evaluating instruction, (Hallinger, 2005) 16. Coordinating the Curriculum, (Hallinger, 2005) 17. Monitoring Student Progress(Hallinger, 2005) 18. Communicate these goals so they are widely known and supported throughout the school community(Hallinger, 2005) 19. Developing High Expectations and Standards for teachers and students (Hallinger, 2005)	• Define an inclusive school mission and goals (Hallinger, 2005 • Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel (Hallinger, 2005 • Engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success (NAESP, 2008) • Provide professional development aligned with the school mission and goals (Graczewski et al., 2009 • Define the vision for instructional programs (Hallinger, 2005 • Coordinate the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005 • Evaluate instruction (Hallinger, 2005) • Monitor student progress (Hallinger, 2005) • Understand special education laws and policies (Crockett, 2002)

Distributed leadership statements are also derived primarily from two sources: the work of MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004), and from the synthesis of research (Bennett et al., 2003; Elmore, 2000; Ritchie & Woods, 2004). From the distributed leadership literature 31

leadership action statements are derived: 20 from the work of MacBeath et al., and 11 from the synthesis of research (Bennett et al.; Elmore; MacBeath et al.; Ritchie & Woods). MacBeath et al.'s work is utilized because their *Model for developing distributed leadership in schools (MacBeath et al., p.46)* specifically identifies 17 leader actions associated with distributed leadership within schools. Those actions, along with three others describing the scope of stakeholder involvement within the leadership model are provided in Table 33. Remaining studies provide a conceptual basis for understanding distributed leadership (Bennet, Wise, Wood, & Harvey, 2003; Elmore, 2000; Spillane, 2005; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001), characteristics of staff and schools when distributed leadership is embedded within a school (Ritchie & Woods, 2007), and distributed leadership effects on teachers, and student outcomes (Leithwood & Mascal, 2008). As such, those studies, along with work by MacBeath et al., Billingsley, Boscardin & Lashley (unpublished), Boscardin, McCarthy & Delgado (2009), Crockett (2002), Crockett, Becker, and Quinn (2009), DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran, and Walther-Thomas (2004), and O'Brien (2006) inform the explicit development of characteristic distributed leadership actions identified as important to the work of leaders of special education. Those actions are also given explicitly in column two of Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Distributed Leadership Actions
(continued onto next page)

Actions derived from MacBeath et al. (2004)	Actions derived from the synthesis of literature
• Formally and strategically assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals. • Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks. • Create a mutual learning culture • Identify leadership potential in people. • Train people for leadership. • Facilitate individual leadership performance. • Respect views of all	1. Utilizes the expertise of others to create a common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000). 2. Creates structures that foster collaboration and team work in order to establish a collaborative culture (Bennett et al, 2003; Ritchie and Woods, 2004). 3. Creates a culture in which teachers learn from each other (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004). 4. Provides opportunity for continuous professional

• Be prepared to stand back • Motivate people to initiate leadership. • Listen • Encourage risk-taking among staff • Provide material help in support of leadership initiatives • Make yourself accessible • Allow sufficient freedom for people to initiate and implement • Ensure security • Peer/self-evaluation • Provide opportunity for continuous professional development • encourages and values innovative ideas from all members of the school – teachers, pupils, or support staff (respect views of others) • Involve all staff in important decision-making. • Leadership roles are extended to pupils	development (MacBeath et al., 2004). 5. Motivates teachers to initiate leadership roles, 6. Encourages risk-taking (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004). 7. Provides material help, (MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004).and 8. Allows sufficient freedom for people to initiate and implement (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004). 9. Utilizes expertise of personnel to evaluate programs (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000). 10. Utilizes expertise of personnel to understand and meet legal and policy requirements (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000). 11. Provides resources to support responsibilities and opportunities given to staff (Bennett et al, 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2004).

Collaborative leadership statements are also derived from the synthesis of research presented in Table 29 of Chapter II, and from specific research by Wenger (1998) and Hord (2009), as well as Pugach and Johnson (1995), Slater (2004). The statements are also derived from research presented in Chapter II. However, statements represent collaborative actions, and actions within both popular conceptions of this type of leadership: communities of practice (COP), and professional learning communities (PLC). Six collaborative actions are taken from Pugach and Johnson (1995), Slater (2004), and Hord (2009) and represent characteristic collaborative actions important to the work of special education leaders within Table 34. Actions regarding PLC's involve creation of collaborative opportunities in which colleagues come together to engage in group learning and problem solving (Hord, 2009). Actions regarding communities of practice involve supporting the formation of voluntary membership groups engaged in joint enterprise in which there exists the development of a shared repertoire around "things that matter to people" (Wenger, 1998, p.2).

Leader actions in regard to communities of practice are derived primarily from the work of Wenger (1998). Communities of practice are identified as voluntary, self-perpetuating groups (Wenger) that are typically short-lived when formally designed (Mitchell, 1999; Supovits, 2002; Wenger). Further, membership in communities of practice can be diverse, and include students or others outside of the organization (Printy, 2008). Therefore, leader actions are somewhat limited to those involving the facilitation and sustainment of these groups. Nine leader actions regarding the facilitation and sustainment of communities of practice are given in Table 34.

Leader actions in regard to development and utilization of PLC's are derived primarily from the work of Hord (2009). Leader actions in regard to PLC development differ from those in the development and utilization of communities of practice in two significant ways. Because PLC's involve colleagues engaging in professional practice aimed at improving teaching and learning (Hord), leadership does not need to allow for diverse membership. Also, because the establishment of PLC's is not dependent on members voluntary involvement (Hord), leaders have a more significant role in their development and sustainment. Eight specific leader actions are given in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Collaborative Leadership Actions
(continued onto next page)

Community of Practice Actions Derived from Wenger (1998)	PLC Actions Derived from Hord (2009)	Actions derived from the synthesis of literature
A. Supply resources to the community such as meeting space, technology, etc… B. allot time for communities to meet C. acknowledge community contributions to the organization D. help communities articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization E. support community	1. Share decision-making with the community 2. Decide on the time for community meetings to occur. 3. Decide on the place for community meetings to occur. 4. Focus community time on collective learning to improve	• Allows diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) • Fosters and utilizes diverse stakeholder relationships as main component of leadership practice (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004). • Colleagues engage in group learning and problem solving (PLC's) (Hord, 2009), and are part of organizational learning through the community of practice model (Pugach,

formation within areas of organizational need F. support student involvement within the community G. support parents involvement within the community H. support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within the community I. do not lead or influence the work of the community	teacher practices. 5. Focus community time on collective learning to improve student outcomes. 6. Define the purpose for community meetings 7. Provide informational resources to community meetings	1999). • Involves diverse stakeholder groups in developing programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) • Involves diverse stakeholder groups in evaluating programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) • Involves diverse stakeholder groups in identifying, and meeting legal and policy requirements (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) • Involves diverse stakeholder groups in identifying and allocating resources (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)

From the 28 instructional leadership action statements 10 statements characteristic of instructional leadership are derived and given in Table 3.6. Statements are a synthesis of leadership actions with redundant statements, or statements representing a common theme, combined into a single statement. Each statement is written to complete an 'I' sentence regarding the participants leadership actions. Four statements were removed as they were considered to be reflective of actions that may be associated with school leaders in general: (1) actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success (NAESP, 2008), (2) provide resources and support for professional development (Graczewski, et al., 2009), (3) visit classrooms (Graczewski, et al., 2009), (4) understand the learning needs of teachers (Graczewski, et al., 2009).

From the 31 distributed leadership actions, 17 statements characteristic of distributed leadership are derived and given in Table 35. Again, statements are written to complete an 'I'… sentence. Statements from sources in Table 34 considered to be redundant were reduced to one statement. One statement from MacBeath et al.'s (2004) description of their distributed leadership model was added, "leadership roles are extended to pupils" (p.47), in order to explicitly provide for this condition. Two statements from MacBeath et al.'s model were

removed: ensure security, and peer/self-evaluation. Ensure security describes leader actions that demonstrate to others that their initiation of leader actions is encourage and supported. It is replaced by two more specific statements within MacBeath et al. that describe ways that leadership ensures security: 1) leadership encourages and values innovative ideas from all members of the school – teachers, pupils, or support staff, and 2) leadership involves all staff in important decision-making. Peer/self-evaluation describes a condition in the school in which those who have taken on leadership roles feel open to giving and receiving peer input and evaluate their own performance. As such, it is not included in the Q sample as it is more of an outcome of leader actions, instead of an explicit leader action.

From the 24 collaborative, community of practice, and PLC actions, 23 statements are developed: six regarding collaboration, nine regarding communities of practice, and eight regarding PLC's. Again, statements are written to complete an 'I'… sentence. The collaborative actions involving colleagues participation in PLC's is not used to develop a statement as presence of PLC's is explicitly addressed with statements derived from those actions. Wording of actions in Table 34 are modified to create statements, but statements retain the focus and meaning of action statements. Two major wording modifications are made within community of practice actions, and PLC actions. Within community of practice actions the terms 'voluntary membership group(s)' are used in place of 'community(ies) of practice'. Within PLC actions, the term 'staff/faculty group(s)' is used in replacement of 'professional learning community', or 'PLC'. These replacements are made to prevent misinterpretation or confusion among terms, but still retain the characteristic natures of the different 'communities'.

The uneven representation of items from each leadership style is not viewed as problematic in this study. Brown (1980) views the selection of items from the concourse as

"more of an art than science". As such, uneven representation of items for each leadership style reflects the logic used by this researcher to obtain a reduced version of the concourse, or a balanced set of statements representing the concourse. Further, it is the participant who gives meaning to the items during the sort (Brown, 1993), not the researcher creating sort items.

Table 3.6
Q Sort Statements
(continued onto next page)

Instructional Leadership Statements	Distributed Leadership Statements	Collaborative Leadership Statements
1. Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students (Hallinger, 2005)	1. Respect the views of others (MacBeath et al., 2004).	1. Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning (Printy, 2008; Wenger, 1998).
2. Define the school mission and goals (Graczewski, 2009; Hallinger, 2005)	2. Formally and strategically assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals (MacBeath et al., 2004).	2. Support student involvement within voluntary membership groups (Wenger, 1998).
3. Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel (Graczewski, 2009; Hallinger, 2005).	3. Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks (MacBeath et al., 2004).	3. Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups (Wenger, 1998).
4. Provide professional development aligned with the school mission and goals (Graczewski et al., 2009; NAESP, 2008)	4. Identify leadership potential in people (MacBeath et al., 2004).	4. Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups (Wenger, 1998).
5. Design and implement instructional programs (Hallinger, 2005; Reitzug, et al., 2008)	5. Train people for leadership (MacBeath et al., 2004).	5. Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc… (Wenger, 1998).
6. Evaluate instruction (Hallinger, 2005; NAESP, 2008)	6. Facilitate individual leadership performance (MacBeath et al., 2004).	6. Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet (Wenger, 1998).
7. Understand special education laws and policies (Crockett, 2002)	7. Motivate people to initiate leadership actions (MacBeath et al., 2004).	7. Acknowledge voluntary membership groups contributions to the organization (Wenger, 1998).
8. Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress (Graczewski, et al., 2009; Reitzug, et al., 2008)	8. Provide material help in support of leadership initiatives of others (MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004).	8. Help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization (Wenger, 1998).
9. Work directly with teachers to support their improvement of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2005).	9. Encourage and value innovative ideas from all members of the school – teachers, pupils, or support staff (MacBeath et al., 2004).	9. Support voluntary membership groups formation and work within areas of organizational need (Wenger, 1998).
10. Coordinate the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005; NAESP, 2008)	10. Involve all staff in important decision-making (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004; Ritchie and Woods, 2004)..	10. Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly (Hord, 2009).
	11. Leadership roles are extended to pupils.	11. Share decision-making with
	12. Do not manage leadership	

	initiatives of others. (MacBeath et al., 2004) 13. Provide advice and feedback to those taking on leadership roles (MacBeath et al., 2004) 14. Utilize the expertise of others to help create a common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000; MacBeath et al., 2004) 15. Allow sufficient freedom for others within the school to initiate and implement leadership initiatives (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004). 16. Utilize the expertise of others within the school to support my understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000). 17. Utilize the expertise of others within the school to evaluate school programs (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).	staff/faculty groups (Hord, 2009) 12. Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur (Hord, 2009) 13. Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur (Hord, 2009). 14. Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve teacher practices (Hord, 2009). 15. Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes (Hord, 2009). 16. Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings (Hord, 2009) 17. Provide informational/data resources to staff/faculty group meetings (Hord, 2009) 18. Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) 19. Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004). 20. Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to develop school programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) 21. Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to evaluate school programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) 22. Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004) 23. Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)

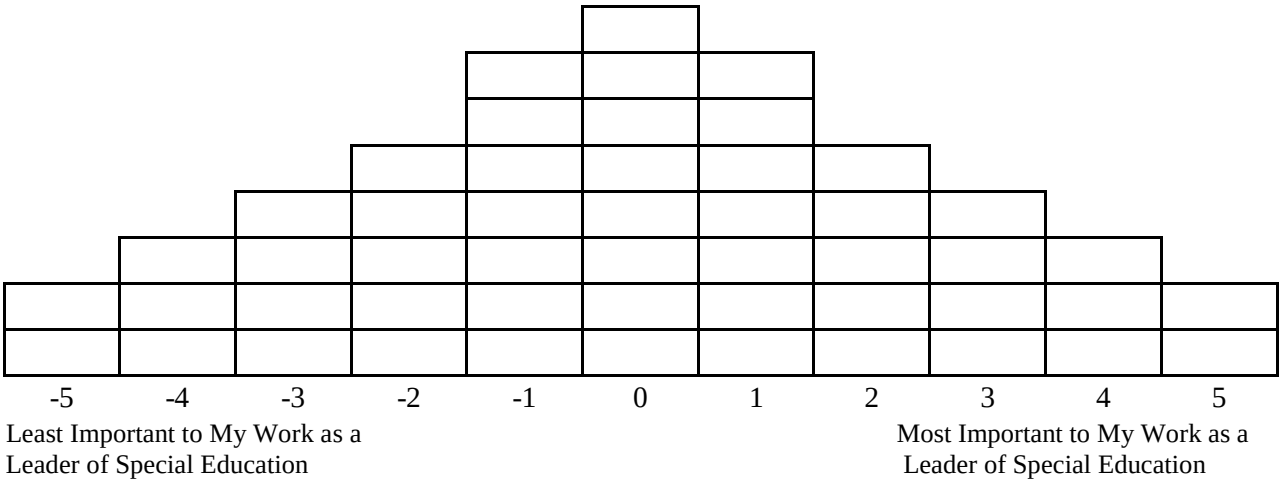
Procedure

For this study, principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators will be contacted to request their participation in the study and to inform them of participation requirements. Participants will be required to provide written consent in order to participate. Participants will be and asked to rank statements representing distributed and collaborative leadership behaviors, within a quasi-normal distribution pattern, on a scale from 'most important to my work as a leader of special education' to 'least important to my work as a leader of special education. The Q sample will be 'ready made' (McKeown & Thomas, 1988) as statements will be derived from existing research within the field of educational leadership in regard to leader behaviors characteristic of distributed and collaborative leadership. Prior to engaging in the sort, participants will be required to complete a questionnaire designed to obtain participant background information. Directions for completing the sort will then be read and any participant questions will be answered. Participants will be asked to sort statements individually, or in small groups, and will complete a post-sort questionnaire aimed at obtaining participants rationale for sorting the statements in the manner in which they did. The post-sort questionnaire session will be video and voice recorded. Q sort data will be collected and factor analyzed using statistical software in order to reveal factors, or "basically different Q sorts in evidence" (Brown, 1991, p.16) and qualitative data will be analyzed via grounded theory methods. Instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership frameworks will be utilized to help identify themes representing each factor.

For the Q sort, each of the 50 statements comprising the Q sample is provided as a deck of cards randomly numbered from 1 through 50. Participants will be provided written instructions for conducting their sort, and those instructions are read to the participant(s). Along

with the instructions, participants will be provided a grid reflecting the pattern in which statements are to be ranked and sorted. That pattern to be used, see Figure 3.1, is a quasi-normal distribution consisting of 11 columns, ranging in height from 2 to 8, and ranging from -5 to +5 on the horizontal scale, as is typical for Q samples involving 40-60 statements (Brown, 1980). The horizontal scale is indicative of the statements importance to the participant's work as a leader of special education. Least important statements are raked -5 while most important are ranked +5. Participants will sort statements into the provided pattern and will record the individual card numbers on the corresponding position within the provided grid. This pattern for sorting statements is typical for sorts of N=50 statements, and the shape has no effect on the statistical analysis (Brown,1991). What is important is that opposite extremes are fewest in number and neutral statements comprise a larger middle (Brown).

Figure 3.1
Q Sort Grid



Once a participant has completed sorting the cards, and has recorded each cards number into the corresponding location on the Q Sort Grid, the participant will be asked to complete a post-sort questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain an understanding of the participant's rationale for sorting the statements. This method for obtaining additional qualitative data is utilized by both Provost et al. (2010), and Militello and Janson (2008). Post-sort questions include the following: (1) what went into your choices of statements that are "most important to my work as a leader of special education? (+5's), (2) what went into your choices of statements that are "least important to my work as a leader of special education? (-5's), (3) describe how you arrived at your choices for the most important statements (those in +5 column), (4) describe how you arrived at your choices for the least important statements (those in -5 column), (5) if there were specific statements that you had difficulty placing, please list the number of the statements and describe your dilemma, (6) what other issues/thoughts emerged for you while sorting the cards, and (7) what factor(s), e.g., time, resources, your own knowledge, your skills, and/or your dispositions, contributed most to the sorting through the distributed leadership statements?

Data Analysis

Quantitative Data

Once all Q sorts are completed, sort data will be analyzed via SPSS v.21, an analytical software package. The analysis of the data begins with the development of a correlation matrix that shows the relationship between individuals and sorts. According to Brown (1991), statistically significant correlations are greater than 2 to 2.5 times the standard error. The standard error is computed as 1/(SQRT N) where N is the number of statements that are sorted. In this case N=50, the standard error is .1414, and statistically significant correlations are greater

than .2828. This matrix is useful for identifying similarities and differences in participant's ratings of items (Brown, 1991). Factor analysis is then utilized to "determine how many basically different Q sorts (or factors) are in evidence" (Brown, p.160).

A table of 'factor loadings' is then created by the software to indicate the strength of the association, or correlation, between each Q sort and each factor. Correlations between sorts and factors are considered significant at the $p > .05$ level for correlations measuring greater than $1.96/(\sqrt{N})$. For this study N is 50 and p must be > .277. Emergent factors may then be rotated, most often using the varimax rotation method, in order to attempt to associate each factor with a "small number of large loadings and a large number of zero (or small) loadings" (Abdi, 2003, p.3). The benefit of this rotation method is that factors can then be interpreted from a perspective in which only a few positive loadings are contrasted with a few negative loadings (Abdi).

Once factors have been identified, interpretation of factors takes place. According to Brown (1991) interpretation of factors "proceeds primarily in terms of factor scores rather than (as is typical in R methodology) in terms of factor loadings" (p.21). Factor scores represent a kind of average statement score based on sorts associated with that factor (Brown). From factor scores a representative Q sort for the group associated with the factor can be derived. Statements distinguishing each factor can then be identified and used to interpret distinctions between conceptions of participant groups associated with each factor (Brown). This interpretation does not allow for identification of the proportions of individuals within the general population possessing these conceptions or viewpoints, nor do findings necessarily represent all viewpoints (Brown). Identified viewpoints, however, are still able to be used to compare and contrast identified conceptions (Brown).

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data will be analyzed via grounded theory methodology. The aim of this methodology is to obtain a substantive, or "useful to practice" (Merriam, 1998), theory regarding the leadership perspectives of leaders of special education. Creation of a substantive theory includes the development of categories, properties, and hypotheses (Merriam). Categories represent the "conceptual elements of the theory" (Merriam, p. 18) and "span many individual examples of the category" (Merriam, 182). Properties comprise the components of the categories, while hypotheses are the relationships, or conceptual links, between and among categories and properties (Merriam).

Categories, properties, and hypotheses are generated though the employment of the constant comparative method of data analysis (Merriam, 1998). Through this method categories are generated through the researchers search for data patters, via constant comparison of participant responses, to post-sort questionnaire items. Category names are obtained from the researcher, the literature, or information obtained from participants themselves. Theory is then developed through the "integration and refinement of categories, properties, and hypotheses" (Merriam, p.191).

Chapter Summary

Contemporary education reforms emphasize use of multi-actor leadership approaches, but understanding of those approaches, and models for their use, are currently not well developed. Missing from the research in special education leadership is an understanding of how leaders of special education value multi-actor leadership style components. Development of this understanding can be conducted through studies, such as this one, employing Q methodology. Through the employment of such a research methodology, similar and dissimilar perspectives of

principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators, on instructional, distributed and collaborative leadership, may be identified. Identification of those similarities and differences can contribute to (a) the development of conceptions and models of those leadership styles, (b) the development of conceptions and models of hybrid styles, (c) identification of those leadership styles, and style components, important to principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators, and leaders of special education in general, and (d) improved leadership professional development for those school leaders.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Initial Analysis

In this chapter similar and dissimilar perspectives of principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators on instructional, distributed and collaborative leadership style components are analyzed. Participant data collected for this study via Q sort, was subject to factor analysis using SPSS v.21. Initial analysis revealed a correlation matrix (Figure 4.1.) between participant sorts. Statistically significant sorts, those exceeding ±.2828, are bolded, and negative correlations are italicized. Visual inspection of the bolded and italicized matrix shows a high number of statistically significant correlations between participant sorts and no participant sort is uncorrelated or unique. Further, there are no significant negative correlations. As such, utilization of principal component factor analysis on the data set is appropriate.

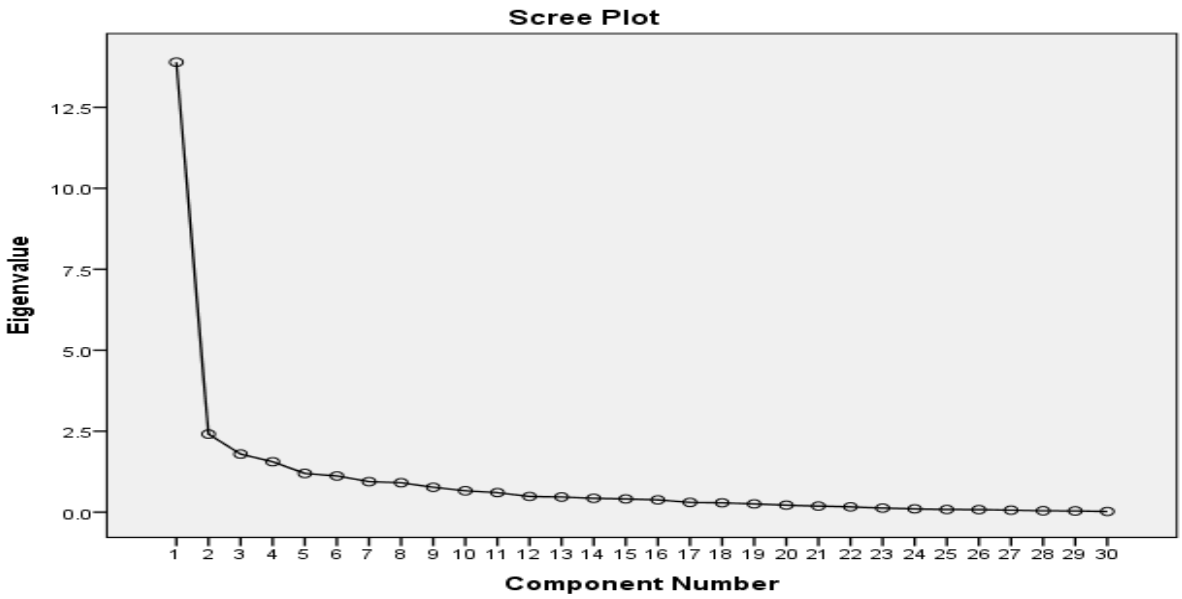
	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	P15	P16	P17	P18	P19	P20	P21	P22	P23	P24	P25	P26	P27	P28	P29	P30
P1	100																													
P2	27	100																												
P3	**70**	04	100																											
P4	**52**	**61**	25	100																										
P5	**77**	04	**71**	**48**	100																									
P6	**58**	17	**61**	**38**	**60**	100																								
P7	25	**45**	14	**53**	**29**	**33**	100																							
P8	**66**	14	**66**	**39**	**62**	**68**	**35**	100																						
P9	**70**	**31**	**50**	**57**	**64**	**65**	25	**60**	100																					
P10	**60**	**51**	**40**	**64**	**49**	**47**	**36**	**55**	**70**	100																				
P11	**50**	**33**	23	27	**43**	24	23	**37**	**50**	**43**	100																			
P12	**79**	**33**	**47**	**52**	**59**	**36**	18	**39**	**53**	**51**	**53**	100																		
P13	**74**	13	**59**	25	**62**	**47**	00	**51**	**57**	**50**	**53**	**62**	100																	
P14	**78**	16	**69**	**33**	**69**	**64**	70	**63**	**59**	**52**	**56**	**68**	**81**	100																
P15	26	**44**	03	**38**	*-02*	07	13	24	22	27	25	**39**	18	22	100															
P16	**50**	**37**	**29**	**39**	**39**	**50**	**38**	**39**	**60**	27	28	**45**	**42**	**47**	**32**	100														
P17	**57**	27	27	**42**	**48**	**32**	09	**34**	**51**	**43**	**49**	**52**	**59**	**52**	**31**	**34**	100													
P18	**80**	23	**65**	**45**	**70**	**44**	24	**47**	**57**	**55**	**44**	**64**	**61**	**66**	24	**44**	**50**	100												
P19	**66**	**29**	**48**	**44**	**56**	**48**	07	**34**	**50**	**32**	**31**	**72**	**54**	**61**	**31**	**44**	**49**	**60**	100											
P20	**53**	24	**35**	**45**	**49**	27	12	**50**	**47**	**45**	**61**	**52**	**50**	**58**	**29**	**45**	**43**	**48**	**48**	100										
P21	**70**	22	**62**	**39**	**57**	**60**	**34**	**60**	**48**	**46**	**32**	**62**	**58**	**69**	25	**53**	**38**	**56**	**55**	**38**	100									
P22	**33**	*-14*	**45**	10	**39**	**40**	15	**33**	04	05	04	07	**34**	**31**	*-06*	16	20	**32**	18	10	**45**	100								
P23	**63**	**29**	**65**	**56**	**62**	**53**	**36**	**52**	**60**	**48**	25	**51**	**51**	**53**	14	**51**	**47**	**55**	**60**	**51**	**65**	**36**	100							
P24	**45**	**43**	**39**	**48**	**32**	**46**	**42**	**57**	**38**	**45**	**36**	**31**	**35**	**43**	**40**	**42**	**50**	**38**	25	**48**	**45**	**36**	**54**	100						
P25	**47**	**44**	26	**43**	**34**	**32**	27	**45**	**52**	**32**	**44**	**42**	**52**	**57**	**44**	**59**	**52**	**43**	**46**	**49**	**46**	20	**43**	**44**	100					
P26	**42**	20	**35**	**28**	**42**	**34**	14	**29**	**36**	20	**29**	**50**	**34**	**44**	**32**	**43**	24	**33**	**40**	**40**	**34**	15	**39**	26	20	100				
P27	**43**	**30**	**35**	**34**	**33**	**42**	21	**37**	**56**	**40**	12	**36**	**34**	**44**	01	23	**37**	24	**39**	16	**33**	*-02*	**38**	22	**39**	13	100			
P28	**69**	**36**	**44**	**48**	**48**	**52**	16	**62**	**51**	**50**	**44**	**61**	**45**	**55**	**43**	**43**	**55**	**45**	**56**	**57**	**57**	**29**	**57**	**66**	**46**	**53**	27	100		
P29	**74**	**33**	**54**	**43**	**61**	**62**	19	**55**	**69**	**45**	**52**	**65**	**72**	**74**	**43**	**63**	**56**	**61**	**62**	**51**	**63**	**31**	**49**	**52**	**60**	**46**	**44**	**61**	100	
P30	**55**	**28**	**42**	**34**	**51**	**56**	**43**	**60**	**43**	**39**	**50**	**34**	**56**	**64**	27	**44**	**46**	**46**	**35**	**48**	**62**	**35**	**42**	**64**	**52**	**33**	16	**52**	**65**	100

Numerical data is expressed in 1/100ths with values in bold indicating statistically significance at the .05 level, and italicized indicating negative correlations.

Figure 4.1
Correlation Matrix

Upon initial analysis, SPSS identified six factors for consideration. To identify an appropriate number of factors to carry forward, the scree test was utilized. In utilization of the scree test, the scree plot, see Figure 4.2 below, is examined to determine the where the negative slope of the graph ends and the leveling out of the graph begins. The number of points on the identified negative slope before the graph levels out represents the number of factors (Abdi & Williams, 2010). Inspection of the scree plot shows a significant negative slope that may be considered to level out at point two or three. As such, a one or two factor solution may be considered appropriate.

Figure 4.2
Scree Plot



For this study a two factor solution with a 'weak' second factor is retained. The identification of a two factor solution, in which the second factor is considered to be weak, may be interpreted as an over-extraction. This is not considered to be problematic as effects of over-extraction in principal component analysis with varimax rotation generally lead to less difference with the true structure than an under-extraction (Wood, et al., 1996). Further, utilization of a two factor

solution also results in identification of factors that account for 54% of the total variance (see Table 4.1 below).

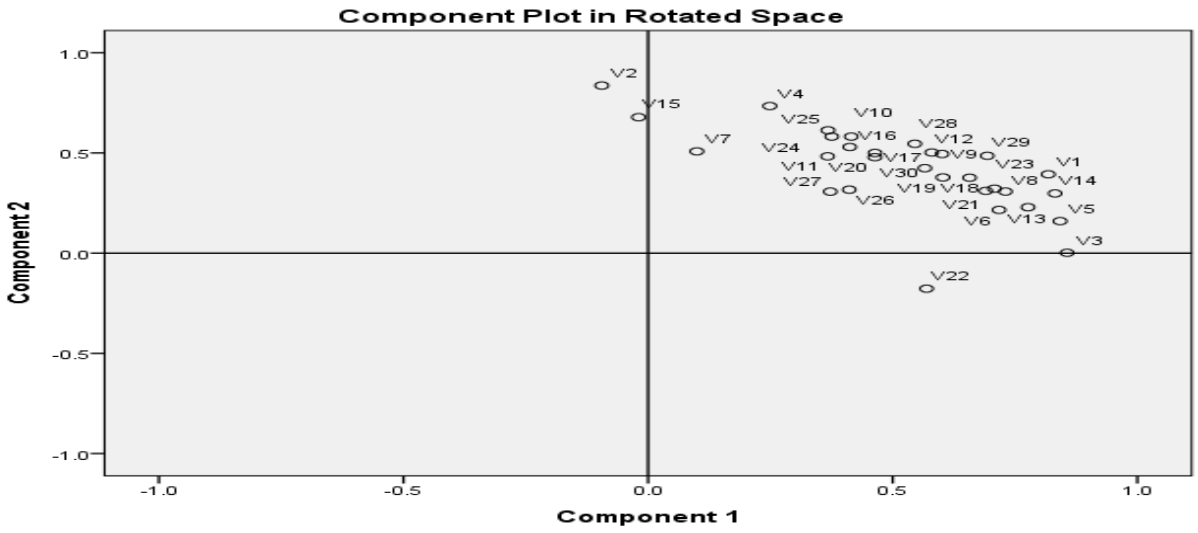
Table 4.1
Factor Variance

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.893	46.311	46.311	13.893	46.311	46.311	9.917	33.058	33.058
2	2.412	8.038	54.349	2.412	8.038	54.349	6.387	21.292	54.349

Inspection of the component, or factor plot, for the two factor solution shows the distribution of participants in the two component space (see Figure 4.3). Many participants are clustered in quadrant I, and as reflected in Figure 4.3, above, many participants significantly loaded on each component. Participants 3, 5, 6, 13, and 22 loaded significantly on factor 1, or Factor A only, and participants 2, 4, 7, and 15 loaded significantly on factor 2, or Factor B only.

Figure 4.3
Component Plot

..



Determination of Factor Membership

To assist in identification factor members a 'pre-flagging' algorithm is utilized (Schmolck, 2000). This algorithm is designed to flag 'pure' cases only and has two conditions: 1. $A^2 > h^2/2$, and 2. $A > 1.96/(\sqrt{N})$ (Schmolck, 2000).

Condition 1 compares the square of a factor loading of a specific sort, a^2, to the proportion of the sort's variance accounted for by all factors extracted for the sort, h^2, or the communality. More specifically, a squared factor loading must account for more than half of the total variance of all factors for the sort. Communality, or h^2, is calculated as the sum of the squared factor loadings for the number of factors extracted, and is provided by SPSS. This calculation can utilize the unrotated factor matrix scores and the communality values as communalities are not affected by factor rotation (Schmolck, 2002).

Condition 2 requires that a factor loading, *a*, be statistically significant at the $p > .05$ level. In this case $a > 1.96 /(\sqrt{50})$ or $a > .277$. In Table 4.2, below, factor membership among participants is identified. Statistically significant factor loadings are bolded, and values of $a^2 > h^2/2$ are bolded and italicized. There are no significant negative factor loadings.

Table 4.2
Participant Assignment to a Factor Group
(continued onto next page)

Participant	Factor 1 loading (a)	Factor 1 loading (a^2)	Factor 2 loading (a)	Factor 2 loading (a^2)	$H^2/2$	Factor 1 Member	Factor 2 Member
1: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.818**	***0.669***	**0.393**	0.155	0.412	X	
2: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	-0.095	0.009	**0.836**	**0.699**	0.354		X
3: P, HS, HSP,	**0.856**	***0.734***	0.002	0.000	0.367	X	

NCLB4, HSPED, HFRL, HCPR							
4: SpAd, D, SP,NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	0.249	0.062	**0.734**	***0.539***	0.301		X
5: P, El/MS, SP, NCLB4, HSPED, HFRL, HCPR	**0.842**	***0.709***	0.160	0.026	0.367	X	
6: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.717**	***0.514***	0.216	0.047	0.280	X	
7: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB4, SPED, FRL, HCPR	0.100	0.010	**0.508**	***0.258***	0.134		X
8: AP, MS, SP, NCLB, HSPED, HFRL, CPR	**0.690**	***0.477***	**0.311**	0.097	0.287	X	
9: SpAd, D, HSP, NCLB, SPED, HFRL, HCPR	**0.601**	***0.361***	**0.495**	0.245	0.303	X	
10: P, EL, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.415**	0.172	**0.582**	***0.338***	0.255		X
11: AP, MS, SP, SNCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.367**	0.135	**0.483**	***0.233***	0.184		X
12: P, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, HFRL, HCPR	**0.580**	***0.336***	**0.502**	0.252	0.294	X	
13: P, EL, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.776**	***0.603***	0.229	0.053	0.328	X	
14: P, EL, SP, NCLB, HSPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.832**	***0.692***	**0.298**	0.089	0.390	X	
15: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, HFRL, CPR	-0.019	0.000	**0.678**	***0.460***	0.230		X
16: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, HSPED, FRL, CPR	**0.412**	,0.170	**0.530**	***0.281***	0.225		X
17: P, EL, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.464**	0.215	**0.479**	***0.229***	0.222		X
18: P, EL, HSP, NCLB, SPED, HFRL, HCPR	**0.708**	***0.501***	**0.322**	0.104	0.302	X	
19: SpAd, D, HSP, NCLB4, HSPED, HFRL, HCPR	**0.603**	***0.363***	**0.378**	0.143	0.253	X	

20: P, EL, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.464**	0.215	**0.500**	***0.250***	0.233		X
21: AP, MS/HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.730**	***0.533***	**0.308**	0.095	0.314	X	
22: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.569**	***0.324***	-0.177	0.031	0.178	X	
23: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.657**	***0.432***	**0.376**	0.142	0.287	X	
24: SpAd, D, SP, NCLB, SPED, HFRL,CPR	**0.375**	0.141	**0.582**	***0.338***	0.240		X
25: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.368**	0.135	**0.613**	***0.376***	0.256		X
26: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.411**	***0.169***	**0.317**	0.100	0.125	X	
27: P, MS, HSP, NCLB4, SPED, HFRL, CPR	**0.372**	***0.139***	**0.307**	0.094	0.116	X	
28: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, HCPR	**0.545**	0.297	**0.546**	***0.298***	0.298		X
29: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, SPED, FRL, CPR	**0.693**	***0.481***	**0.486**	0.236	0.358	X	
30: AP, HS, SP, NCLB, FRL, HCPR	**0.566**	***0.320***	**0.424**	0.180	0.250	X	

Note: SpAd: Special education administrator, P: Principal, AP: Assistant principal, D: District level administrator, EL: Elementary level administrator, MS: Middle school level administrator, HS: high school level administrator, SP: District student population is less than 6,000, HSP: District student population is greater than 6,000, NCLB level 1, 2 or 3 distict: NCLB level NCLB4: NCLB level 4 district, SPED: % of special education students in the district is less than 20%, HSPED: % of special education students in the district is greater than 20%, FRL: % of students receiving free or reduced lunch is less than 40%, HFRL: % of students receiving free or reduced lunch is greater than 40%, CPR:10 or fewer areas requiring corrective action on the CPR, HCPR: more than 10 areas requiring corrective action on the CPR.

For this study, all participants met pre-flagging criteria for 'pure' membership of a factor group. Eighteen met criteria for exclusive membership under Factor 1, and twelve met criteria for exclusive membership under Factor 2.

Participants Demographics

Participant demographic information is shown in Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below. Factor A members are predominantly principals or assistant principals, 72%, with 28% being special education administrators. Principals and assistant principals comprised almost equal percentages of Factor A membership with 39% and 33% respectively, and the majority of high school level participants, 7 of 10, aligning with this group. This group is almost evenly comprised of males and females and all are white. A majority of members, 56%, are between the ages of 40 and 49 with smaller percentages of members under 40 (28%), or over 49 (17%). Half of Factor A members have 0 to 3 years experience in their current position and approximately 95% have less than 9 years experience in their current position. Forty-four percent of members have no other administrative experience. The majority of Factor A members, 89%, have under 12 years of total administrative experience with 56% having 6 to 12 years of total experience and only 2 members, or 12%, having 12 or more years of administrative experience. Four of the Factor A members, or 22%, have 0-3 years experience and are working in their first administrative role. The majority of members hold a general education teacher license, 89%, and half hold a special education teacher license. Two members hold both Principal/Assistant Principal and Special Education Administrator licenses, one holds a Related Service Provider license and four, 22%, hold a Superintendent license. Only one member holds a doctoral degree while almost equal percentages of members, 33%, 28%, and 33% hold a Master's Degree, Master's +30, or a CAGS.

Factor B members are almost evenly split as general education and special education administrators with 42% being special education administrators. Principals comprise 25% of Factor B membership while assistant principals comprise the remaining 33%. As such, Factor B

membership is represented by district level personnel with principals and assistant principals reflecting, somewhat uniformly, elementary, middle, and high school levels. All members are white but unlike Factor A members 75% are female. The age distribution of Factor B members is also relatively evenly spread across the age range of 30 to 59. No members are under 30 and as in Factor A only one member is over 59. One third of members have 0 to 3 years of experience in their current position and 83% have less than 9 years of experience in their current position. One third of members of this group have no other administrative experience. Less than half of Factor B members, 41%, have less than six years of total administrative experience while an almost equal percentage, 42%, have 12 to 18 years of total administrative experience. Only one Factor B member has 0-3 years of experience and is working in their first administrative role. Three quarters of members hold a general education teacher license while 33% hold a special education teacher license. Two members hold both Principal/Assistant Principal and Special Education Administrator licenses and three, 25%, hold a Superintendent license. Two members of Factor B hold a doctoral degree while the majority, 42%, hold a Master's Degree +30 credits and only 17% of members hold a Master's degree.

Table 4.3
Participant Demographics
(continued onto next page)

		Factor A		Factor B	
		N = 18	%	N = 12	%
Current Administrative Position	Principal	7	39%	3	25%
	Assistant Principal	6	33%	4	33%
	Principal/Asst Principal	13	72%	7	58%
	Special Education Administrator	5	28%	5	42%
Level of	Elementary	3	17%	3	25%

Administrative Role	Middle School	2	11%	1	8%
	High School	6	33%	3	25%
	District	5	28%	5	42%
	Elementary/Middle School	1	6%	0	0%
	Middle/High School	1	6%	0	0%
Gender	Male	8	44%	3	25%
	Female	10	56%	9	75%
Age	20 – 29	2	11%	0	0%
	30 – 39	3	17%	3	25%
	40 – 49	10	56%	4	33%
	50 – 59	2	11%	4	33%
	60 – 69	1	6%	1	8%
Ethnicity	White	18	100%	12	100%
Number of Years in Current Position	0 to 3	9	50%	4	33%
	3 to 6	5	28%	4	33%
	6 to 9	3	17%	2	17%
	9 to 12	1	6%	1	8%
	12 to 15	0	0%	1	8%
Total Number of Years of Administrative Experience	0 to 3	4	22%	1	8%
	3 to 6	2	11%	4	33%
	6 to 9	5	28%	0	0%
	9 to 12	5	28%	1	8%
	12 to 15	1	6%	3	25%
	15 to 18	0	0%	2	17%
	18 to 21	0	0%	0	0%
	>21	1	6%	1	8%
	all experience in current position	8	44%	4	33%
Other Academic Licenses Held	General Education Teacher	16	89%	9	75%
	Special Education Teacher	9	50%	4	33%
	Superintendent/Assistant Superintendent	4	22%	3	25%

	Related Service Provider	1	6%	0	0%
	Both Principal or Assistant Principal and Special Education Administrator license	2	11%	2	17%
	General Education and Special Education teacher licenses	8	44%	4	33%
	Principal or Assistant Principal with General Education teacher license only	8	44%	6	50%
	Special Education Administrator with Special Education Teacher license only	1	6%	1	8%
	Principal or Assistant Principal with any Special Education license	5	28%	1	8%
	Special Education Administrator with any General Education license	3	17%	2	17%
Highest Education Level Attained	Master's Degree	6	33%	2	17%
	Master's Degree +30	5	28%	5	42%
	Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS)	6	33%	3	25%
	Ed.D. or Ph.D.	1	6%	2	17%

Similarities and Differences in Factor Member Demographics

Examination of differences in Factor A and Factor B members shows that Factor A members are predominantly principals or assistant principals, 72%, while Factor B members are almost evenly split as general education and special education administrator and Factor A members include the majority of high school level participants. Factor A members are almost evenly split as males and females while Factor B members are predominantly females (75%). Ages of Factor A members span the Age category with the largest concentration of members

between 40 and 49, while Factor B members are generally spread across the age range of 30 to 59. When considering years of experience in the current role, 78% of Factor A members have less than 6 years of experience as compared to 66% of Factor B members. In regard to years of total administrative experience, 89% of Factor A members have less than 12, as compared to 49% of Factor B members. Factor A members also include 3 of the 4 'new' administrators, those with 0-3 years experience overall and in their current position. When examining member's professional licenses, the Factor A group had a slightly higher percentage of members who held special education teacher licenses (50% and 33% respectively).

When considering similarities for both groups, the majority of members of each group ranged between 0 and 9 years of experience in their current position. Similar percentages of members of both groups have all their administrative experience within their current position, 44% and 33% respectively. Comparison of educational levels of both groups shows that the majority of members of each group have masters, master's +30, or CAGS degrees (94% and 83% respectively). Factor A members are almost equally distributed across these educational levels while Factor B members appear normally distributed across levels with the majority in the master's +30 and CAGS levels (67%). Factor A and Factor B members are also similar when comparing the professional licenses held by members of each group. Both groups have similar percentages, and majorities of, members who hold general education teacher licenses (89% and 75% for A and B respectively). Both groups also have similarly low percentages of member who hold duel administrative licenses in general and special education (11% and 17% respectively). Other similarities include the percent of members who hold: both general and special education teacher licenses, or principal or assistant principal with general education

teacher license only, or special education administrator with special education teacher license only.

Participants District Level Demographics

Upon examination of school district information, Factor A members work in districts with enrollments under 3,000 students, 57%, and in districts over 6,000 students, 28%. Almost three quarters of members work in districts with special education populations in the 10 to 20% range while members are almost equally distributed across districts when examining percentages of students receiving free or reduced lunch. Almost equal percentages of participants, 33% and 39%, work in districts at the level 2 or level 3 NCLB accountability status with 22% in level 4 districts. Approximately half of members work in districts with 98% or more of core academic classes taught by teachers who are highly qualified. Almost all Factor A members work in districts with one or fewer areas of commendation found during the most recent Coordinated Program Review conducted by the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education while 66% of member districts had 11 or more areas requiring corrective action. Only 17% of member districts had 5 or fewer areas requiring corrective action.

Factor B members work predominantly in districts with under 3,000 students, 83%, and none work in districts with over 6,000 students. Almost all members, 92%, work in districts with special education populations in the 10 to 20% range and none work in districts with greater than 60% of students receiving free or reduced lunch. Further, the majority, 83%, work in districts with under 40% of students receiving free or reduced lunch. Half of Factor B members work in districts at the level 2 NCLB accountability status with another 33% in districts at the level 3 status. Approximately half of members work in districts with 98% or more of core academic classes taught by teachers who are highly qualified. Only two thirds of Factor B members work

in districts with one or fewer areas of commendation found during the most recent Coordinated Program Review conducted by the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education while 75% of member districts had 10 or fewer areas requiring corrective action.

Table 4.4
Participant District Level Demographics
(continued onto next page)

		Factor A		Factor B	
		N = 18	%	N = 12	%
Total District Enrollment	< 3,000	10	56%	10	83%
	3,000 to 6,000	3	17%	2	17%
	> 6,000	5	28%	0	0%
Percent of Students Identified as Special Education Within the School	10% to 20%,	13	72%	11	92%
	20% to 30%	5	28%	1	8%
NCLB Accountability Status of the District (ELA, Math)	Level 1	1	6%	1	8%
	Level 2	6	33%	6	50%
	Level 3	7	39%	4	33%
	Level 4	4	22%	1	8%
% of Core Academic Classes Taught by Teachers Who are Highly Qualified	100%	5	28%	4	33%
	98% to 100%	5	28%	3	25%
	< 98%	8	44%	5	42%
Percent of Students Identified as Free or Reduced Lunch Within the School	< 20%	5	28%	4	33%
	20% to 40%	5	28%	6	50%
	40% to 60%	4	22%	2	17%
	> 60%	4	22%	0	0%
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas commended)	0 to 1	17	94%	8	67%
	>1	1	6%	4	33%
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas requiring corrective action)	0 to 5	3	17%	6	50%
	6 to 10	3	17%	3	25%
	11 to 15	6	33%	1	8%
	16 or more	6	33%	2	17%

Similarities and Differences in Factor Member District Level Demographics

Factor A and Factor B members differ in several areas. When school district size is examined, almost all Factor B members work in districts with student populations under 3,000

and no members work in districts with over 6,000 students. All participants working in districts with over 6,000 students are members of Factor A. Almost all members of Factor B, 92%, work in districts where 10%-20% of students are identified as special education. Seventy-two percent of Factor A members work in districts where 10%-20% of students are identified as special education and slightly more than one quarter of Factor A members work in districts where 20%-30% of students are identified as special education. The majority of Factor B members, 83%, work in districts designated as Level 2 or Level 3 NCLB Accountability status. This is true of Factor A members, 72%, but 4 out of 5 participants working in Level 4 districts are members of Factor A. No Factor B members work in a district with over 60% of students receiving free or reduced lunch, and the majority of members, 83%, work in districts with under 40% of students receiving free or reduced lunch. Fifty-six percent of Factor A members work in districts with under 40% of students receiving free or reduced lunch. When considering school district special education performance as measured by the findings during a Coordinated Program Review (CPR) by the Massachusetts DESE, one-third of Factor B members, representing 3 districts, work in districts where the district received more than one commendation from the DESE CPR. Only one member of Factor A, 6%, works in a district where the district received more than one commendation from the DESE. Seventy-five percent of Factor B members work in districts where 0 to 10 areas needing corrective action were found during the CPR, with 50% working in districts where 0 to 5 areas needing corrective action were found. Thirty-four percent of Factor A members work in districts where 0 to 10 areas needing corrective action were found during the CPR and sixty-six percent of Factor A members work in districts where 11 or more areas needing corrective action were found.

When considering similarities in participant districts, both Factor A and Factor B members are similar when examining the percent of core academic classes taught by teachers who are highly qualified. This area is the only category showing similar percentages of members in each subcategory.

Summary of Demographic Findings

In summary, Factor A and Factor B groups differ in notable ways. Factor A members tend to be principals or assistant principals, white, of either gender who are between the ages of 40 and 49. They tend to be prior general education teachers with 0-6 years of experience in their current positions and less than 12 years of administrative experience. Almost half have the majority of their administrative experience within their current role. Educationally, members' degrees range from master's to CAGS. From the district perspective, Factor A members tend to work in smaller districts, those under 3,000 students with 10-20% of students identified as special education. Further, districts can be categorized as NCLB status levels 2 or 3, and identified as having 11 or more areas of special education performance requiring corrective action.

Factor B members tend to be principals or assistant principals, or special education administrators, white, and female who are between 30 and 59 years of age. Principals or assistant principals tend to be prior general education teachers. The majority of members also have 0-6 years of experience in their current positions, and 0-6 or 12-18 years of total administrative experience. Only one-third have the majority of experience within their current administrative role. Educationally, members tend to have more education than Factor A members as most hold a master's +30 or CAGS. From the district perspective, Factor B members also tend to work in smaller districts, those under 3,000 students, in which 10-20% of students are

identified as special education. Further, districts represented by Factor B members and also categorized as NCLB status levels 2 or 3. However, the majority of Factor B members work in districts where the percent of students identified as free or reduced lunch is under 40%. Factor A members are not representative of any group in this category. Also, Factor B members tend to work in districts identified as having 10 or less areas of special education performance requiring corrective action.

Aside from differences in the overall descriptive profiles of each Factor group, there are notable differences in the populations of each. All participants from districts with greater than 6,000 students, the majority of participants from districts which have special education populations in the 20%- 30% range, and the majority of participants from NCLB level 4 districts are identified as Factor A members. Factor A members also represent the newest administrators and Factor A members are generally less experienced than Factor B members. The Factor B group contains the majority of participants from districts receiving more than one area of commendation during a Coordinated Program Review, and as being identified as having fewer than 5 areas needing corrective action.

Analysis of Ranking of Sort Items by Factor Groups

For each factor group, Q sort items were assigned factor scores by SPSS (see Table 4.6). This allows for ranking of items within each factor group and creation of Q sorts representative of each factor group. Table 4.6, below, shows the factor scores for each Q sort item for each factor group.

Table 4.5
Q-sort Items and Factor Sorts
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Statement	Factor A factor scores N=50	Factor B factor scores N=50
1	**Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students**	1.84210 (2)	1.35298 (5)
2	**Define the school mission and goals**	1.73665 (4)	-0.78551 (38)
3	**Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel**	1.11419 (9)	-0.23399 (29)
4	**Provide professional development aligned with the school mission and goals**	1.17301 (7)	0.20055 (22)
5	**Design and implement instructional programs**	1.12643 (8)	-0.52484 (33)
6	**Evaluate instruction**	1.77174 (3)	0.46634 (15)
7	**Understand special education laws and policies**	0.28556 (19)	2.35686 (1)
8	**Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress**	0.47328 (18)	1.10035 (8)
9	**Work directly with teachers to support their improvement of teaching and learning**	1.86040 (1)	0.17323 (23)
10	**Coordinate the curriculum**	1.0531 (10)	-0.74240 (36)
11	*Respect the views of others*	0.66482 (15)	1.21710 (7)
12	*Formally and strategically assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals*	0.47584 (17)	0.36516 (19)
13	*Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks*	0.16052 (22)	-2.04836 (49)
14	*Identify leadership potential in others*	0.25659 (20)	-0.06562 (27)
15	*Train others for leadership*	0.00267 (27)	-0.79317 (39)
16	*Facilitate individual leadership performance*	-0.30621 (30)	0.14774 (24)
17	*Motivate others to initiate leadership actions*	0.10443 (23)	0.10268 (26)
18	*Provide material help in support of leadership initiatives of others*	-0.43400 (31)	-0.07522 (28)
19	*Encourage and value innovative ideas from all members of the school – teachers, pupils, or support staff*	0.03713 (25)	0.84130 (11)
20	*Involve all staff in important decision-making*	0.63321 (16)	-0.79757 (41)
21	*Extend Leadership Roles to pupils*	-0.47749 (32)	-0.68160 (35)
22	*Do not manage leadership initiatives of others*	-0.22097 (29)	-1.06515 (44)
23	*Provide advice and feedback to those taking on leadership roles*	0.04163 (24)	0.60539 (14)
24	*Utilize the expertise of others to help create a common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students*	0.75882 (14)	0.76034 (12)
25	*Allow sufficient freedom for others within the school to initiate and implement leadership initiatives*	-0.00135 (28)	0.27053 (21)
26	*Utilize the expertise of others within the school to support my understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements*	-0.82917 (38)	1.53435 (4)
27	*Utilize the expertise of others within the school to evaluate school programs*	0.01147 (26)	0.46328 (16)
28	Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning	-0.79992 (36)	-0.83312 (42)
29	Support student involvement within voluntary membership groups	-1.14207 (41)	-0.77615 (37)

30	Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups	-1.21883 (46)	0.43713 (17)
31	Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups	-1.71211 (50)	0.35235 (20)
32	Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	-1.15728 (43)	-1.08356 (46)
33	Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	-1.47297 (49)	-1.03645 (43)
34	Acknowledge voluntary membership groups contributions to the organization	-0.80238 (37)	-0.79505 (40)
35	Help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization	-1.15086 (42)	-0.42273 (32)
36	Support voluntary membership groups formation and work within areas of organizational need	-0.97201 (39)	-0.66143 (34)
37	Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly	0.78753 (13)	-1.33944 (47)
38	Share decision-making with staff/faculty groups	0.79374 (12)	0.13880 (25)
39	Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	-0.71891 (35)	-1.71656 (48)
40	Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	-1.16695 (44)	-2.16441 (50)
41	Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve teacher practices	0.97788 (11)	-0.41416 (31)
42	Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes	1.38585 (5)	-0.24630 (30)
43	Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings	1.24666 (6)	-1.07683 (45)
44	Provide informational/data resources to staff/faculty group meetings	0.16535 (21)	0.38880 (18)
45	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students	-0.61924 (33)	1.23668 (6)
46	Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice	-1.34193 (47)	1.86073 (2)
47	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to develop school programs	-0.65816 (34)	0.84800 (10)
48	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to evaluate school programs	-1.21247 (45)	0.66690 (13)
49	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements	-1.41357 (48)	1.59899 (3)
50	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources	-1.11176 (40)	0.89303 (9)

Using factor scores, Q sorts representative of each factor group were created. Statements were also categorized according to location on the Q sort grid so that item distributions could be created. Items in the +5, +4, and +3 columns are categorized as 'most important. Those in the +2 and +1 columns are categorized as 'important'. Items in the 0 column are labeled 'neutral', while those in the -3 and -2 columns are labeled 'less important' and those in the -3, -4, and -5 columns are labeled 'least important'. Tables 4.4, and 4.5, below, show the Q Sort pattern and distribution of leadership style items for each factor group.

Factor A members sorted all instructional leadership items within + ranked columns, with the majority, 7, ranked as *most important*. Distributed leadership items are sorted in a normal distribution as *important, neutral,* and *less important* with the majority of items in the *neutral* column. Collaborative items are ranked primarily in the *less important* and *least important* categories, with none in the *neutral* column and a minority in the *important* and *most important* columns (26%).

Figure 4.4
Q-sort for Factor A Group

Factor A Q Sort										
					22					
				28	25	44				
				39	15	14				
			50	47	*27*	**7**	*24*			
		35	36	45	*19*	**8**	37	**3**		
	30	32	*26*	*21*	*23*	*12*	38	**5**	42	
31	46	40	34	*18*	*17*	*20*	41	**4**	**2**	**9**
33	19	48	29	*16*	*13*	*11*	**10**	43	**6**	**1**
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5

Factor A Item Distribution

Least Important	Less Important	Neutral	Important	Most Important
Instructional - 0% Distributed - 0% Collaborative -39%	Instructional - 0% Distributed - 24% Collaborative - 34%	Instructional - 0% Distributed - 47% Collaborative - 0%	Instructional - 30% Distributed - 29% Collaborative - 17%	Instructional - 70% Distributed - 0% Collaborative - 9%

Bold – Instructional
Italics – Distributed
Normal font - Collaborative
Underlined – Negative factor score

Factor B members sorted instructional leadership items somewhat uniformly across all categories except the *least important* column. Distributed leadership items are sorted across all categories in a somewhat normal distribution skewed to the + columns. Collaborative items are ranked in a pattern similar to that of Factor A members. Items are placed primarily in the *less important* and

least important categories, with a small percentage in the *neutral* column, and a minority in the *important* and *most important* columns (39%).

Figure 4.5
Q Sort for Factor B Group

Factor B Q Sort										
					3					
				10	*18*	*25*				
				21	*14*	31				
			34	36	*17*	*12*	*23*			
		28	*15*	**5**	38	44	48	50		
	32	33	**2**	35	*16*	30	*24*	**8**	**1**	
13	37	*22*	29	41	**9**	*27*	*19*	*11*	*26*	46
40	39	43	*20*	42	**4**	**6**	47	45	49	**7**
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5

Factor B Item Distribution				
Least Important	Less Important	Neutral	Important	Most Important
Instructional - 0% Distributed - 12% Collaborative - 30%	Instructional - 30% Distributed - 18% Collaborative - 26%	Instructional-30% Distributed-24% Collaborative-4%	Instructional - 10% Distributed - 35% Collaborative - 22%	Instructional - 30% Distributed -12% Collaborative - 17%

Bold – Instructional
Italics – Distributed
Normal font - Collaborative
Underlined – Negative factor score

Factor scores for the Factor A group ranged from 1.86040 to -1.71211. Table 4.6, below, shows the nine highest and lowest ranked items for Factor A. The highest ranked items (9, 1, 6, 2, 42, 43, 4, 5, and 3) include 7 of the 10 instructional leadership statements within the highest ranked items for this group. Of the instructional leadership items, 7 'Understand special education laws and policies' and 8 'Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress' and 10 'Coordinate the Curriculum' are not in the ten highest ranked items. The remaining two items, collaborative leadership statements, are 42

'Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes' and 43 'Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings'.

All nine of the lowest ranked items for this factor group are from the collaborative leadership statements (31, 33, 49, 46, 30, 48, 40, 32, and 35). The two lowest ranked are 31 'Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups' and 33 'Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet'. The remaining 3 instructional leadership statements, 12 collaborative leadership statements, and all 17 distributed leadership statements, are ranked within the middle 30 of items.

Table 4.6
Factor A Highest and Lowest Ranked Items

Item #	Statement	Factor A 9 highest ranked scores	Item #	Statement	Factor A 9 lowest ranked scores
9	**Work directly with teachers to support their improvement of teaching and learning**	1.8604	31	Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups	-1.7121
1	**Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students**	1.8421	33	Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	-1.4730
6	**Evaluate instruction**	1.7717	49	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements	-1.4136
2	**Define the school mission and goals**	1.7367	46	Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice	-1.3419
42	Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes	1.3859	30	Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups	-1.2188
43	Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings	1.2467	48	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to evaluate school programs	-1.2125
4	**Provide professional development aligned with the school mission and goals**	1.1730	40	Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	-1.1670
5	**Design and implement instructional programs**	1.1264	32	Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	-1.1573
3	**Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel**	1.1142	35	Help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization	-1.1509

Factor scores for the Factor B group ranged from 2.3569 to -2.1644. Table 4.7, below, shows the nine highest and lowest ranked items for Factor B. Factor B members rank 3 of the 10 instructional leadership statements, four of the 23 collaborative leadership statements, and two of the 17 distributed leadership statements within the highest ranked items for this group (7, 46, 49, 26, 1, 45, 11, 8, and 50). The two highest ranked items are 7 *Understand special education laws and policies* from the instructional leadership statements and 46 *Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice* from the collaborative leadership statements.

Seven collaborative leadership statements and two distributed leadership statements make up the nine lowest ranked items for this factor group (40, 13, 39, 37, 32, 43, 22, 33, and 28). No instructional leadership statements are ranked within the ten lowest ranked items. The remaining seven instructional leadership, 13 collaborative leadership, and 13 distributed leadership statements are ranked within the middle 30 of items.

Table 4.7
Factor B Highest and Lowest Ranked Items
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Statement	Factor B 9 highest ranked scores	Item #	Statement	Factor B 9 lowest ranked scores
7	**Understand special education laws and policies**	2.3569	40	Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	-2.1644
46	Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice	1.8607	13	*Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks*	-2.0484
49	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements	1.5990	39	Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	-1.7166
26	*Utilize the expertise of others within the school to support my understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements*	1.5344	37	Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly	-1.3394

1	**Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students**	1.3530	32	Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	-1.0836
45	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students	1.2367	43	Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings	-1.0768
11	*Respect the views of others*	1.2171	22	*Do not manage leadership initiatives of others*	-1.0652
8	**Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress**	1.1004	33	Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	-1.0365
50	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources	0.8930	28	Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning	-0.8331

Summary of Item Rankings

Factor A and Factor B Q sort item rankings differed in several ways. The Factor A sort shows all instructional leadership items with the + ranked columns with the majority in the *most important* category. The Factor B sort shows somewhat uniformly ranked instructional leadership items across all categories except the *least important* category. Factor A and B sorts both show distributed leadership items in a somewhat normal distribution. However, the Factor A distribution did not include the *most important* and *least important* columns while the Factor B distribution was spread across all categories. Collaborative leadership items were also similarly distributed within each groups sort. For both sorts, items are placed primarily in the *less important* and *least important* categories, with a small percentage in the *neutral* column, and a minority in the *important* and *most important* columns. The main difference in the Factor A and B distribution is that the Factor B group has less items in the – categories and more in the + categories.

In examining specific placements of items, the Factor A sort shows the majority of instructional leadership items within their ten most important items. The two not ranked in the top ten for Factor A members, items 7 and 8, *Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress*, and *Understand special education laws and policies*, respectively, are ranked in the top ten of Factor B items, and item 7 is ranked as the most important for Factor B members. Items 46, *Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice,* and 49, *Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements* are ranked within the ten least important by Factor A members but within the ten most important by Factor B members. Factor A members rank item 43, *Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings,* within their ten most important items and Factor B members rank it within the ten least important.

There are two similarities in item rankings for both groups. Each ranks item 1, *Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students,* as one of the ten most important items and each group ranks items 32, 33, and 40, *Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…, Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet*, and *Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur*, respectively, within the ten least important.

Table 4.8
Comparison of Factor A and B Item Rankings
(continued onto next page)

	Leadership Style		Similarities in Item Rankings	Differences in Item Rankings	
	Factor A	Factor B	Factor A and B	Factor A	Factor B

Highest Ranked	• Instructional -7 statements • Collaborative – 2 statement	• Collaborative – 4 statements • Instructional – 3 statements • Distributed – 2 statements	• Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students	• Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings • All instructional leadership statements except o Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress, and o Understand special education laws and policies	• Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice, • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements • Only the instructional leadership statements o Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress, and o Understand special education laws and policies
Lowest Ranked	• Collaborative – 9 statements	• Collaborative -7 statements • Distributed – 2 statements	• Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur • Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet • Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	• Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements	• Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings

Rationale for Sorting Items

Factor member rationale for sorting items was also examined. This information is gathered via participant interview using the Post-Sort Questionnaire (see Appendix) after the sort was completed. Member answers to the post-sort questionnaire were examined in an effort to group and categorize statements. Within this process, key statements from participant answers were identified and extracted. Key statements are those identified as best representing a member's answer. The identification and use of key statements for analytical purposes allowed for significant reduction in the size of information to be analyzed. Statements were then grouped by similarities and then categorized through use of Bolman and Deal's (2003) leadership frames.

Bolman and Deal's frames were utilized as, as stated earlier in this paper, their leadership frames are reflective of the major practices used by organizational leaders in general, and school leaders specifically.

Factor A Members' Rationale for Sorting Items

Table 4.9, below, contains 19 key statements from Factor A members' reasoning for selecting a specific item as a +5 item. Six of the Factor A members top nine statements are included in the table as, for three of the top nine items, either no Factor A member ranked that item as a +5 item or a member who did select it, did not articulate their reason for placing that specific item as a +5 item. Five of the six items in Table 4.10 are instructional leadership statements, and one is a collaborative leadership statement.

Factor A member statements associated with a top ranked item fell within two main themes. First, as evidenced by the majority of statements, 68% or 13 of 19, factor members considered their ability to influence the mindset of the organization as most fundamental to their role as a leader of special education. For example, participant 5 state "Through my experience and through the training we've received, I firmly believe that the most important responsibility or objective of any leader is to communicate very clearly and to identify and communicate what the mission of that organization is. Because all else falls from that." Statements aligned with this theme are associated with items 1, 2, 3, and 42 and actions associated with these items can be categorized within the symbolic leadership frame identified by Bolman and Deal (2003) as they are focused on the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs.

Second, as evidenced by 32% of statements (6 of 19), members considered that their ability to influence teaching and/or student learning is most important to their role. Of those six statements, the three associated with item 9 indicate that members consider that they can

positively affect the instruction of teachers by working with them. For example participant 29 states "I would say the reason I chose the things I thought were most important, because those have the most direct impact on students and student learning" and participant 13 states "I think that that is the most important job that I have as the instructional leader of the school, to improve teaching and learning." These statements are categorized within the human resources leadership frame as they are focused on serving the needs of personnel so that personnel feel empowered to serve the needs of the organization.

The remaining three statements are associated with item 6, *evaluate instruction* and indicate that members consider that this action is most influential of teachers' instruction. Per participant 22 "I think the most important thing I do as an administrator of special (education) or regular (education) is to provide direct feedback to teachers on my observation of their work." These items are categorized within the structural leadership frame as they are focused on the evaluation of the internal environment of the organization.

Table 4.9
Factor A Members Rationale for Sorting +5 Items
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Most Important Statements	Factor A item ranking	Leadership Frame	Rationale
9	**Work directly with teachers to support their improvement of teaching and learning**	1	Human resources	(13) I think that that is the most important job that I have as the instructional leader of the school, to improve teaching and learning. I need to work directly with teachers. I can't farm that out. (21) Where students improve the most is when they have a good teacher, and I enjoy supporting teachers and looking at their instruction and helping them tweak it to improve what's going on in their classrooms. (29) I would say the reason I chose the things I thought were most important, because those have the most direct impact on students and student learning. (This) is the best way for an administrator to have a strong impact on what's going on in these programs, and to really understand what's going on within these programs.

1	**Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students**	2	Symbolic	(1) If we don't set the bar high for students and special education…they are students that need to have the best teachers because they're not making it in general education, so you have to teachers that do believe in the students and are really skilled in teaching these students with disabilities. (13) That's the goal that we're getting to. All of the work that we do is to reach that high standard, and you have to set those goals. I think it's important for the instructional leader to do that. (19) (This) is particularly important for a special education administrator, as we need to make sure that we have high expectations for students regardless of just ability. (21) I think a lot of time especially in special ed., teachers feel like they're "other" or not considered when teachers are talking about curriculum or some of those decisions are made, so I think it's important to maintain those high expectations and standards, for both teachers and students. Students can also fall into the trap of "learned helplessness", and they don't expect something high of themselves. (23) (This) is very important to student success. We're in the process of making sure RTI is used effectively in the schools. Taking a look at design and implementation of appropriate structures and implementations as a means to monitoring student processes is key to making sure we're setting, maintaining, and encouraging those high standards. (29) I think that's the cornerstone of any good program; if you don't have that, you're not working towards anything.
6	**Evaluate instruction**	3	Structural	(3) I think that in order to get our students where they need to go, our instruction needs to be diversified, it needs to be on point, and we need to be able to differentiate as much as possible to student's specific learning needs. (14) Evaluating instruction and teaching to me is the most important. Before I can express my vision and goals, I have to make sure I have the right people driving that mission and the goals. Those are two very important ones to me, evaluating the instruction and making sure I have the very best to help me and what I feel the mission goals are of a school. (22) I think the most important thing I do as an administrator of special (education) or regular (education) is to provide direct feedback to teachers on my observation of their work. Of all the things I do, it has the most impact on their performance, and therefore on student learning. They're very connected – watching teachers teach and then giving direct feedback I think are the most important things we do.
2	**Define the school mission and goals**	4	Symbolic	(5) Through my experience and through the training we've received, I firmly believe that the most important responsibility or objective of any leader is to communicate very clearly and to identify and communicate what the mission of that organization is. Because all else falls from that. (12) I think, first of all, it's important (that) the district, the teachers, everyone has a sense of what our mission goal is, so it's really a defining out of that, as well as gaining input from people in terms of a common set of values and norms and servicing the learning needs of students. (18) In order for a school to be successful for anyone, teacher, administrator, all the way down to any other staff that works in the building, they all have to clearly know what the mission of the school is and the goals that we have set forth for the building to be successful. That, to me, would probably be the most important thing. Everything else that you do certainly could be great things, but if people don't understand your expectations and your mission and your goals, then it's not going to be successful.

				(19) Without understanding what the mission and goal is, and in this case it's for the district, it's really impossible, I think, to be a leader, whether you're a leader of special education or a principal. That's something that has to be established and understood. (27) I think that is ultimately critical to focus people on while you're (in the school).
42	Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes	5	Human resources	(26) (Factors considered were) the parts of my job that are most beneficial to special (education) students. As a special education leader, my job is to make sure those other students are being considered as well.
3	Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel	9	Symbolic	(5) Through my experience and through the training we've received, I firmly believe that the most important responsibility or objective of any leader is to communicate very clearly and to identify and communicate what the mission of that organization is. Because all else falls from that.

Table 4.10 contains 15 key statements from Factor A members' reasoning for identifying a specific statement as a -5 item. Of the nine lowest ranked items by Factor A members, five were specifically ranked as -5 by one or more members, and the key statements representing the member's reasoning for that selection are provided. All five of the statements are collaborative leadership statements.

Examination of the statements reveals that Factor A statements are represented by two main themes. First, tasks that require little to no attention from the member are considered least important. The twelve statements, 80%, supporting this theme are associated with items 33, and 40. For example, participant 1 states "That's something that I don't need to think about at all" and participant 8 states, "In terms of what I consider to be small things, allotting (volunteer groups) time to meet – I didn't feel as if they needed my involvement to make that happen." These actions do not fall within Bolman and Deal's leadership frames as they can be categorized as managerial tasks.

Second, voluntary membership groups/stakeholders do not require member support, nor do they positively impact schools. Three statements, 20%, support this theme and statements are

associated with items 30, 31, and 32. Participant 22 states “People not in the building, who therefore have the least amount of impact, I consider them the lowest priority in terms of how I spend my time” and participant 22 states “I think parents have the least perspective on (impacting student performance), so it's not as critical for me for them to be involved.” Two of these statements can be categorized within the political leadership frame as they are focused on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships, and one is categorized as a managerial task.

Table 4.10
Factor A Member Rationale for Sorting -5 Items
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Least Important Statements	Factor A item ranking	Leadership Frame	Rationale
31	Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups	50	Political	(22) People not in the building, who therefore have the least amount of impact, and I consider them the lowest priority in terms of how I spend my time.
33	Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	49	Managerial Task	(8) If they're voluntary, I think my thinking is that was that they need the least leadership or the least administration and can have the most go. If they're voluntary, it's not mandated that they be there. It's not an IEP team or a program. Whatever their reason for meeting, it may or may not need a whole lot of my involvement. In terms of what I consider to be small things, allotting them time to meet – I didn't feel as if they needed my involvement to make that happen. (23) Seems much more like a management of time and resources, than management of effective interventions to meet student needs. (30) It's a simple task you can do once at the beginning of the year, just deciding on places for them to meet, and not have to think about it again. It's not a high priority issue.
30	Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups	46	Political	(22) I have voluntary membership groups in the building; those are teachers and sometimes students focused on a particular area who will ask for a change in the school. I think parents have the least perspective on (impacting student performance), so it's not as critical for me for them to be involved.
40	Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	44	Managerial Task	(1) That’s something that I don’t need to think about at all. (12)It's the very nitty-gritty of planning the time for a staff meeting, planning the place for the staff meeting. (it's) least important to me. (14) Obviously, finding a place for meetings to occur is important, but amongst all of these other cards on the table, I didn't find it as important as the others.

				(18) Obviously, staff meetings are going to occur, but the place of where they're going to occur doesn't really in the scheme of things seem that important to me, because I know I'm going to make a meeting happen, and I have plenty of choices to choose from. (19) Staff/faculty group meetings are important, but where and when is pretty minor in terms of what I need to spend my time thinking about. (21) I just feel those are tasks to do and don't have anything to do with leadership; a secretary could determine the time and place and it wouldn't make a difference. As a leader of special ed., I don't see those having anything to do with the curriculum and instruction support of students on an IEP. (26) I feel like of all the things I do and all the statements presented, that is the least important task acting as a special education leader. (29) Where they occur to me is micro-managing, I'd rather have the staff decide what's most comfortable for them. (30) That's something that needs to be done, but it's not a real important part of my work as a special education leader. It's a simple task you can do once at the beginning of the year, just deciding on places for them to meet, and not have to think about it again. It's not a high priority issue.
32	Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	43	Managerial Task	(3) I feel that when people want to use our school, our students, they should be able to fund their program financially, logistically, and with any other need that they may have.

Table 4.11 contains a total 25 key statements from the rationales of each Factor A member for identifying items as most, or least important, respectively, to their work as a leader of special education. For Factor A members, and their rationale for rating items as most important, the majority of key statements, 9 of 17, or 53%, are categorized as belonging to the human resources frame. These statements indicate that members considered that their individual ability to work with teachers would have a positive effect on the teacher's instructional practices. For example, participant 6 states "The most important cards, were really the things that I experienced on a daily basis. Things that directly affect student outcome, I tried to look at that." And participant 22 state "Direct contact with teachers is how I have the most impact on the school on the learning of students."

Eight statements, or 47%, are categorized under the symbolic frame, and these statements indicate that members considered that their ability to develop and communicate the school

mission, and to set high expectations for performance is fundamental to their efficacy. For example, participant 1 states "(Respecting the views of others and setting high expectations) build the foundation for working in a school district. You have to have the basics to build upon." And participant 9 states "You really need to know what the mission and goals of the district is before you can begin to implement programs."

For Factor A members, and their rationale for rating items as least important, the majority of key statements, 11 of 17, or 65%, indicate that members consider decisions or actions that require little time or attention from them as least important. Participant 12 states "(Least important items are actions) that for me I didn't have to spend time on" and participant 30 states "(Least important items are) in the category of either minor administrative tasks, or they are extra things if you have time." This collection of key statements is categorized under the heading of managerial tasks.

Six key statements, or 35%, are categorized under the political frame and indicate that members consider that voluntary membership groups and/or outside of school stakeholders are least important to their work. Statements also indicate that voluntary membership groups do not require factor member involvement or impact student performance. For example, participants 22 and 29 state, respectively, "Outside stakeholders have the least amount of impact on the direct performance of students in terms of what I could control in the building" and "With respect to voluntary membership groups, personally I don't have a lot of contact with them."

Table 4.11
Factor A Member's Rationale for Item Rankings
(continued onto next page)

	Factor A Members Rationale for Ranking Items
+5 Items	Human Resource - focused on the development and empowerment of personnel (3) It was based around instruction. (6) The most important cards, were really the things that I experienced on a daily basis. Things that directly affect student outcome, I tried to look at that.

	(12) Once you begin to look at structures and processes in terms of looking at student progress, what type of professional development are you willing to allocate funds towards, also directly working with teachers to support their improvement in teaching and learning, and then setting expectations forward for both teachers and students. (13) To me, teaching and learning is the most important thing. Those are my big jobs, working with teachers. (14) I'm about how to improve instruction and how to make people feel successful and be successful at their craft. (22) Direct contact with teachers is how I have the most impact on the school on the learning of students. (23) We're looking at what's most important for student success and making sure we really progress-monitor that success. (26) Things that are the most universal to my job now. That's where I have the most impact. In those roles, I can guide conversation, or practice looking around all students, making sure that special (education) students are being considered when any sort of school-wide initiative or practice is being discussed. (29) Those are the two things that an administrator would have the most direct impact, particularly with working directly with teachers to support improvement. <u>Symbolic - focused on the development of community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs</u> (1) (Respecting the views of others and setting high expectations) build the foundation for working in a school district. You have to have the basics to build upon. (5) I believe that the most important thing that a school can do for its students is to really clearly have a good process of defining what the mission is for that organization and communicating it relentlessly to all stake holders so that it's clear what you stand for, and what your objectives are. (8) What was most valuable to me, both personally and as a leader. It's important to me to have high expectations in almost anything that I do. In the same way, it's important to me to be respectful of the views and times. (9) You really need to know what the mission and goals of the district is before you can begin to implement programs (18) You have to have a structure and a foundation for your school to run by. The two things that I picked were defining the school mission and goals and then setting high expectations and standards for the teachers and students, because we all want everyone, no matter what your level or ability is, to rise to high expectations and achievement. (19) I first need to know what the mission is of our district, then having high expectations for all students is where we have to begin. That's baseline. (21) I sorted by importance, and after looking at what I found important. All (others) fall under the umbrella of having high expectations. (27) You have to set up an organization that is a learning organization, so you have this mission and you need to take data on how you're doing, and the only way to do that is through the data you get.
-5 Items	<u>Managerial</u> (5) (Managerial tasks are) not nearly as significant or consequential as the content of those meetings and who's involved in them, who's leading them. (6) I'm not much of a top-down (leader), I would be happy to facilitate if necessary, but I certainly wouldn't want to be micromanager (of personnel). (12) (Least important items are actions) that for me I didn't have to spend time on. (13) (Managerial tasks are) not related to exactly what I do every day. (18) That's least important in the scheme of things. (19) That's not a hard decision to make. (21) I tried sorting it in terms of what I felt was important in terms of my leadership role in the building, and then the job of a school as a whole, and that determining logistics isn't important because once it's determined, people don't have to think about it again usually. (23) (Allocation of time and resources) are not a high priority in making sure that students adequately access the curriculum. (26) (Managerial tasks are important but) I don't think they were the most important of all the things presented to my work as a special education leader. (27) (Micromanaging personnel is least important because) I think teachers are able to figure out what kids need in a wide variety of circumstances. They don't need a tremendous amount of comforts, they just need the confidence and the data to do it. (30) (Least important items are) in the category of either minor administrative tasks, or they are extra things if you have time. <u>Political - focused on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships</u> (1) I selected more volunteer times because over the years, we've tried to develop a good volunteer program. It's not changing special education and it's not improving student achievement, because it's not consistent. (3) I think we have a lot of (volunteer) groups come in and try to use the school for certain initiatives and things of that nature and often times it's for their own self-interest. (8) (Voluntary membership groups) need the least leadership or the least administration.

	(9) (Involving all staff is not important as) I think there are some decisions that are important and they have to be made and that is what the decision is and you have to make the decision and not everyone can be a stakeholder in that decision. There is a time and place for input with some of them, but there are times where as the leader you have to make the decision and go forward with what the decision is that you make. (14) I don't want to be the one to manage them (volunteer stakeholders) and necessarily tell them what to do. (22) Outside stakeholders have the least amount of impact on the direct performance of students in terms of what I could control in the building (29) With respect to voluntary membership groups, personally I don't have a lot of contact with them.

Factors contributing to sorting of items for Factor A Members

Table 4.12, below, contains each of the 18 Factor A member responses to the post-sort questions inquiring about thoughts or issues that emerged for the participant while sorting the statements, and about factors that contributed most to the sorting of the statements. Responses were analyzed and key statements; those identified as best representing a member's answer to each question, were extracted and combined in an effort to better understand factors and considerations influencing the sorting of statements. Extracted statements were then categorized.

For Factor A members, four themes emerged from the analysis and categorization of member responses: 1) *Role Responsibilities*, 2) *Contextualizing the Work of Personnel*, 3) the *'Lone Leader' Perception*, and 4) *Influencing Instruction*. Each theme represents a lens used by factor group member in sorting the cards. Of the four themes, the first contained the most responses, six, and the next three contained five, four and three responses respectively.

Responses under the *Role Responsibilities* theme, 33%, indicate that members' perception of most and least important leadership statements align with their specific job responsibilities. Statements by participants 6, "I think, really, what's on the burner for me now was influencing what I was picking", and participant 22 "I spend more time on evaluating and supervising teachers than probably anything else, and that aligns with what I consider most important" evidence use of this lens.

Within the *Contextualizing the Work of Personnel* theme, 28% of member statements indicate that developing a set of shared beliefs and expectations, and creation and communication of an organizational mission, are considered fundamental leadership actions. Per participant 1 “I sorted them working up from understanding, getting along with others, understanding what the school and district is about”. Further, participants indicate that their individual beliefs primarily drive the beliefs and expectations that they want others to share. For example participants 26 and 19 state, respectively, “(My) mindset and my belief/values dictate the way I run my job’, and “I think that it's things that I've studied in terms of leadership in the school and research I've done in terms of what results in the best outcomes for all students, and particularly students who have disabilities, (that most influenced the sorting of statements).

Responses under the *‘Lone Leader’* theme, 22%, indicate that members perceive of leadership and decision-making coming, primarily, from them alone. For example, participant 21 states “I can take people's opinions into account, but at the end of the day the principal and I have to make these decisions”, and participant 5 states “I’ve always been the kind of person who takes care of business and I take care of my business”. Further, statements indicate a perception of the unimportance of involving others in decision-making, and more specifically, voluntary membership groups. Participants 8 and 13 state, respectively, “I thought about the term “stakeholder” a lot. I think I placed those cards towards the least important sides because I interpreted the words stakeholder to mean so many people – a stakeholder could be anyone.” and "Too much for me to deal with right now, all these voluntary groups". However, statements within this theme also indicate an awareness of the need to move away from a lone leader approach, as evidenced by the statement of participants 13, “You're trying to decide, what are the issues that we can decide on democratically, which ones I'm going to take input and make my

decision, and which are the things that it's what I say because that's the way I see it?" and 5, "if I were more skilled right now at investing other people with leadership, a lot more of this collaboration could be happening right now in my school than it currently is now."

Lastly, responses under the *Influencing Instruction* theme, 17%, indicate that participants consider that the primary function of their leadership role is to influence instruction. Statements from participant 3 and 29, support this theme: "My development as an instructional leader, and me acknowledging and learning how important instruction is (most influenced the sorting of statements)", and "I'd like to think my skills as an administrator would help me be able to work directly with teachers to support the improvement of their teaching and learning".

Table 4.12
Categorization of Factor A Questionnaire Responses
(continued onto next page)

	What other issues/thoughts emerged for member while sorting the cards? What factor(s), e.g., time, resources, your own knowledge, your skills, and/or your dispositions, contributed most to the sorting through the distributed leadership statements?
Factor A Members	Role Responsibilities (6) There are a lot of questions about involving diverse groups of people, and people from the community in stuff that we do here at school, which we do try to do. I've had that unfortunate experience of that being just a disaster. I'm much more of a facilitator than a manager, and I think that's what most of us need, or we probably shouldn't be in leadership roles. I think, really, what's on the burner for me now was influencing what I was picking. Those kinds of things that are in the forefront influenced my decision at the time. (14) My job is to give (teachers) that time and try to find the resources for (teachers) to have time. (The sorting of cards) caused me to think in my brain, what goes on here at this school as far as voluntary membership and what do I want my world to be as part of that? (18) As a leader of the building, sometimes you have to make those choices and you have to set other things aside because something else takes more precedence. I think that every year, a school has other things that are added to their plate, whether it's a new curriculum, whether it's a new program that you're housing in your building, whether it's new mandates that the state is putting on, or whatever that may be. I guess the experiences I've had so far, and trying to figure out where to spend your time, what's more important versus what can be a little bit less important in the day. (22) I spent a fair amount of time in noticing the progression from direct contact with teachers to faculty guiding/decision making, to the heavy-handed stuff like coordinate the curriculum, train others – stuff where it's facilitating individual leadership. How I spend my time is an important one. I spend more time on evaluating and supervising teachers than probably anything else, and that aligns with what I consider most important. (27) I tend not to prioritize like this naturally. I've had a lot of experience around special ed, for example, so I think knowing the laws is important. I've also had experiences where you can get stuck in a... it's so compliance-driven, special (education), that it's hard to necessarily create a framework beyond that compliance, of excellence. (30) I think it's important to identify leadership potential in others, but I wouldn't put that at the top of what's most important as a special education leader. I think it's valuable, but I'm not going to put it at the top. Whether it's special (education) leader or a building leader, there are other things that would have to come first like evaluating instruction or understanding the laws. Just as it's good to help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize strategic value, that's on the lower end of what's important. Things like providing data resources to faculty are more important, as far as what my responsibilities are.

Contextualize the Work of Personnel

(1) I think you have to start with understanding of people, understanding the mission, professional development. I sorted them working up from understanding, getting along with others, understanding what the school and district is about, and then supporting teachers, working together, and then moving into the "what we do;"

(12) I think I've said that when you think about wanting to move people in a direction towards looking at all students, they have to know what the mission goals of the school and have input into the valuing of do we really believe that all students can truly learn, and if we do, then how do we process that out? It's always trying to gain input from (teachers), but it's always setting expectations and standards that are going to help teachers to get to where they need to be in order to service all students in a way that makes sense.

(19) I think that it's things that I've studied in terms of leadership in the school and research I've done in terms of what results in the best outcomes for all students and particularly students who have disabilities (most influenced the sorting of statements). (Those things are) understanding special education laws and policies, obviously, professional development, communicating school mission and goals to personnel so that we're all kind of going in the same direction towards excellence for all students.

(23) I value student success, but also teacher leadership roles. Although I value incorporating input and resources from outside the district, making sure students have what I need is my priority. I think it was my values around what's important for student learning, and how we grow our staff professionally. Although I find bringing in the community valuable, it falls at the lower spectrum for me.

(26) (My) mindset and my belief/values dictate the way I run my job (and most contributed to the sorting of the cards). I certainly have a bias towards making sure that special education students are considered in the whole work of the school, and that everything that happens in the school needs to happen for all the kids, not just the select few or even just the majority.

'Lone Leader'

(5) I've always been the kind of person who takes care of business and I take care of my business. I'm realizing as a leader that even though it worked well for me in the classroom, it does not work as well for me in a leadership role and I am very actively trying to expand the role, and the principle-ship to empower those to make decisions around me. Even though I value helping people to become leaders and investing in their leadership capacity, there are a number of collaboration pieces which, if I were more skilled right now at investing other people with leadership, a lot more of this collaboration could be happening right now in my school than it currently is now.

(8) I thought about myself as the leader in the plus columns, and I thought about myself as the person being led as I got into the minus columns. As you look through, you'll see a lot of "voluntary groups" and "stakeholders" towards the bottom. The factor would be, as I said, my experience and my desire of how I would like to be led if I was a voluntary person... I thought about the term "stakeholder" a lot. I think I placed those cards towards the least important sides because I interpreted the words stakeholder to mean so many people – a stakeholder could be anyone, in terms of education and special education.

(13) That's what I think is tricky for an administrator. You're trying to decide, what are the issues that we can decide on democratically, which ones I'm going to take input and make my decision, and which are the things that it's what I say because that's the way I see it? I think I have such clear ideas for myself about what I want it to be, and I think sharing the leadership comes a little bit after that, because I realize that there's no way that you can do it all by yourself. Again, it's probably in the infancy of my career as an administrator thinking, "Too much for me to deal with right now, all these voluntary groups."

(21) I would consider myself one of the experts. I'm fairly young, but I think because I was (in college/university) more recently than others, people are willing to trust me and go with (my ideas). I can take people's opinions into account, but at the end of the day the principal and I have to make these decisions. But that's been a learning experience for me.

Influencing Instruction

(3) I think teaching and learning is the foundation to any good school environment. My development as an instructional leader, and me acknowledging and learning how important instruction is (most influenced the sorting of statements).

(9) Which was going to be more important than the other, especially when it came into looking at the evaluation piece of where do you do the breakdown between evaluation and supporting the teachers, and supporting the staff, and looking at programs. Who do we have to start to come along and how important it is that others really know what I do specifically.

(29) I'd like to think my skills as an administrator would help me be able to work directly with teachers to support the improvement of their teaching and learning. Trying to use my skills at keeping the focus on student learning. I feel like I try to surround myself with good people and allow them to do what they're good at.

Factors B Members' Rationale for Sorting Items

Table 4.13, below, contains 12 key statements from Factor B members' rationale for selecting a specific item as a most important, +5, item. Seven of the Factor B members top nine statements are included in the table as, for two of the top nine items, either no Factor B member ranked that item as a +5 item or provided a justification for placing that statement as a +5 item. As such, no specific rationale for selection of that item was available. Three of the seven items in Table 4.13 are instructional leadership statements, three are collaborative leadership statements, and one is a distributed leadership statement.

Examination of the 12 statements reveals that Factor B member statements fall within three main themes. First, there is a knowledge-base that is fundamental to the factor member's role and efficacy. Six statements, or 50%, support this theme, such as that of participant 15, "I need to know the special education laws and policies in order to be able to do my job and keep the district in compliance", and statements are associated with item 7, *Understand special education laws and policies*. These statements fall within the human resources leadership frame as members who selected it are acknowledging that their development of this knowledge is critical to their efficacy and empowerment of themselves as leaders.

Second, collaboration is fundamental to the factor member's role and efficacy. Four statements, 33%, associated with items 11, 45, 46, and 50, support this theme. For example, participant 20 states "The only way to know the children as individuals is to collaborate with all stakeholders that actually have a stake in that child's learning.", and participant 4 states "there are a lot of different organizations or individuals that are involved in those cases and in my opinion, it's very important to have positive and open working relationships with all of those people so we can do what's in the best interest of the child". Three of these statements are categorized within

the political leadership frame as the member statements connect identification of key stakeholders, relationship building, and collaborative practice as most import to their work. One statement, by participant 28, "I think as a leader, before you do anything, everyone needs to know that their views are going to be respected", can be categorized within the human resources frame as it is reflects the idea that when personnel feel that their ideas and contributions are meaningful and respected then those personnel will contribute to organizational success.

Lastly, actions that most affect student outcomes are most important. Two statements, or 17%, support this theme and are associated with item 1, *Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students*, and item 8, *Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress.* The statement associated with item 1, by participant15 "I can't (move all students towards the expectations we have for them), without setting high expectations and standards for both teachers and students." can be categorized under the symbolic frame as it refers to the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs. The statement associated with item 8, by participant 16 "I needed to be responsible for systems that would allow the greatest gain in student learning" can categorized within the structural leadership frame as it is focused on the design, efficiency and outcomes of the organizational structure.

Table 4.13
Factor B Member Rationale for Sorting +5 Items
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Most Important Statements	Factor B Item ranking	Leadership frame	Rationale
7	**Understand special education laws and policies**	1	Human resources	(2) I am the compliance officer. We have very strong building-based management here, and principals are in charge of their building and I am only a resource. (4) That's what I view, in my position, to be a very important part of what I do. So I see my role, as the director, in this district as being the go to person when it comes to

				understanding the laws and policies. (7) In my job as compliance officer, the law is very important, and one of the top two statements that I chose, was to understand special education laws and policies. Because without that, it's nearly impossible to do this job of compliance. (10) Knowing the law is key, so that's why I chose understanding educational laws and policy as most important. As long as we follow the law, that leads me in everything that I do. (15) What went into my choices were the content that I need and the habits of mind that I need to set for people. I need to know the special education laws and policies in order to be able to do my job and keep the district in compliance. (24) It's really important for me, as an administrator, to know the special education laws inside and out. I often get quick questions from staff and I have to be able to answer those questions right away. I also share in a lot of teams where things can get contentious, and the best way to deal with that is to know what the regulations and laws are so it's not muddy. You sit across from lawyers often, they know their stuff and I have to know mine. That's why I gave that such a high ranking.
46	Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice	2	Political	(4) Relationships are a main component of my leadership practice. Because there are so many complicated students that we deal with. That often means that there are a lot of different organizations or individuals that are involved in those cases and in my opinion, it's very important to have positive and open working relationships with all of those people so we can do what's in the best interest of the child and not have it become and argument or battle over funding or location of resources.
1	**Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students**	5	Symbolic	(15) I can't achieve what I need to achieve, (move all students towards the expectations we have for them), without setting high expectations and standards for both teachers and students.
45	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students	6	Political	(20) I felt like the big piece there was the serving learning needs of all students. In order to find exactly how you're going to establish the norms and provide a service model that's very effective, you need to know the children as individuals. The only way to know the children as individuals is to collaborate with all stakeholders that actually have a stake in that child's learning. If you don't get the perspectives of everyone and what's important to that child, then you're not really going to develop their program accurately and effectively.
11	*Respect the views of others*	7	Human Resources	(28) I think as a leader, before you do anything, everyone needs to know that their views are going to be respected, whether you be a student, teacher, or staff member, it's paramount that you do respect what others think and why they think it. In return, when you have to hand out policy, they know that they have input.
8	**Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress**	8	Structural	(16) I needed to be responsible for systems that would allow the greatest gain in student learning. Again, that comes from my belief that you can put a whole lot of effort into input, but if you're not focusing on the output and the outcomes, it doesn't necessarily mean that you're meeting the needs of students.

50	Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources	9	Political	(20) I felt like what was really important about all of those on the +5 side were there was a combination of collaboration with stakeholders or staff that are working to serve and provide services for children.

Table 4.14, below, contains 14 key statements from Factor B members' rationale for selecting a specific item as a least important, -5, item. Five of the Factor B members top nine statements are included in the table as, for four of the top nine items, no Factor B member ranked that item as a +5. As such, no specific rationale for selection of that item was available. Four of the five items in Table 4.14 are collaborative leadership statements, and one is a distributed leadership statement.

Examination of the 14 statements reveals that Factor B member statements fall within one main theme - tasks that require little to no attention from the member are considered least important. All fourteen, or 100% of statements support this theme and are associated with items 23, 33, 39 and 40. Examples of statements include, by participants 4 and 7, respectively, "I have better things to do than worrying about spending a lot of time deciding on when and where those will take place." and "those are areas that are where administrative assistants would basically work with." Categorization of these statements is under the title *Managerial Tasks* and not within Bolman and Deal's (2003) leadership frames.

Table 4.14
Factor B Member Rationale for Sorting -5 Items
(continued onto next page)

Item #	Least Important Statements	Factor B item ranking	Leadership frame	Rationale

40	Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	50	Managerial task	(2) This is about where the meetings are going to happen and the time, which are the most of minutia of any, even if you have responsibility around them. (4) I have better things to do than worrying about spending a lot of time deciding on when and where those will take place. (7) those are areas that are where administrative assistants would basically work with (11) I just didn't think that that was really important to me. That's just automatic. That happens all the time. (16) I was trying to look for those kinds of activities that I do as a leader that wouldn't necessarily have a direct link to student achievement. I didn't think that that was critical for the success of individual students (24) That's not something I'd concern myself with. (28) That's easily irrelevant and doesn't dictate my day.
39	Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur	48	Managerial task	(2) That's easily irrelevant and doesn't dictate my day. (4) It's not even something that I think about. For me, my group and staff faculty meetings happen within this office, everyday. They happen whether they're scheduled or not. (7) those are areas that are where administrative assistants would basically work with (16) I was trying to look for those kinds of activities that I do as a leader that wouldn't necessarily have a direct link to student achievement. I didn't think that that was critical for the success of individual students
32	Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc…	46	Managerial task	(20) I feel like it's very important to acknowledge the work of volunteers, but currently we don't have a whole lot of volunteers, in this position or in my last position that worked specifically for the needs of special education.
23	*Do not manage leadership initiatives of others*	44	Managerial task	(25) One of the things I look at as an educator and being an administrator and past teacher for many years is that the more you manage your staff as far as what you provide in faculty meetings and as professional development is important, but you don't want to micro-manage too much.
33	Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	43	Managerial task	(10) Allotting times for them to meet, that doesn't make a difference to me.

Table 4.15 contains 14 key statements from the rationales of each Factor B member for identifying items as most, or least important, respectively, to their work as a leader of special education. For Factor B members, and their rationale for rating an item as most important, the majority of key statements, six or 43%, are categorized as belonging to the frame. Three of these statements reflect that members value actions that support their development of knowledge necessary to perform their role. For example, participant 4 states "Understanding special education laws and policies is absolutely vital. We can't really do parents the service they

deserve, without knowing that." The other three statements refer to actions taken by participants to empower teachers. Participant 17 states "It is so important to have teachers that are quality educators and that are very familiar with the curriculum, that have the resources necessary to do a good job with instruction, to work closely with them, to ensure that they're providing the best possible instruction."

Four key statements, or 29%, are categorized under the political frame, and refer to the perception that that multi-actor involvement decision-making positively affects the factor member's efficacy in their role. Participant 4 states, "Administrators who have created effective relationships with stakeholders) are much more effective in what they do so I've worked really hard personally to do the same thing.", and participant 20 states "In order to make really good decision for children, you need to know the individuals as learners. The only way to do it is to collaborate with all stakeholders that are invested in that child's learning."

Two statements, or 14%, are categorized within the structural frame and indicate that participants who are required to work within their role boundaries value actions aligned with their role. This is evidenced by the following statements by participants (2) "I am the compliance officer. I am only a resource and (my role is clear)." and 16 "Whatever seemed to have the greatest link to student achievement. I also looked from a systems (and processes) standpoint."

The remaining two statements, or 14%, are categorized within the symbolic frame and indicate that creation of organizational values and expectations is fundamental to the efficacy of the participants. Per participant 25 "Expectations for teachers and students are important. That drove my instruction and communication with my students, colleagues; as administrator it's the same thing."

For Factor B members, and their rationale for rating an item as least important, the majority of key statements, 11 of 13, or 85%, are categorized under the title *Managerial Tasks* and not within Bolman and Deal's (2003) leadership frames. Statements by participants 7, 11 and 15 respectively: "Those are areas that are where (an) administrative assistant would basically work", "It's not on my priority list. I don't worry about that", and "These are things that are not part of my direct responsibility", support this theme. These statements indicate that tasks that do not require time or attention from group members are considered least important.

Two statements, or 15%, are categorized under the political frame and indicate that member's have no involvement with voluntary stakeholders. For example, participant 20 states "I don't supply resources to volunteer groups for special education, and I don't acknowledge their volunteer membership" and participant 28 states "With respect to voluntary membership groups, personally I don't have a lot of contact with them." As such, a minority of factor group members view involvement or support of voluntary membership groups as least important to their work.

Table 4.15
Factor B Member's Rationale for Item Rankings
(continued onto next page)

	Rationale for Item Rankings by Factor B Members
+5 Items	Human Resource - focused on the development and empowerment of personnel (7) In my job as compliance officer, the law is very important. (10) What affects students directly, and then allowing my staff to do the job that they are so capable of doing (15) I looked at the things I need to know, the content I need to know in order to be able to do my job (17) It is so important to have teachers that are quality educators and that are very familiar with the curriculum, that have the resources necessary to do a good job with instruction, to work closely with them, to ensure that they're providing the best possible instruction. (24) Understanding special education laws and policies is absolutely vital. We can't really do parents the service they deserve, without knowing that. (28) Everyone needs to know that their views are going to be respected. I can't say enough about having the people, your subordinates if you will, feeling they have value. Political - focused on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships (4) (Administrators who have created effective relationships with stakeholders) are much more effective in what they do so I've worked really hard personally to do the same thing. (7) (I) want to be able to work and assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals, so (I'm) not doing it all (myself). Because (I) just can't, it's too big a job. (11) When I see the word "stakeholders," I'm looking at the management team around the table with the superintendent, and they're evaluating the schools in general, the district programs and the school programs, and

	collaborating with those diverse stakeholders to develop ongoing quality programming. (20) In order to make really good decision for children, you need to know the individuals as learners. In order to allocate resources effectively, you need to know what the needs are of those children. The only way to do it is to collaborate with all stakeholders that are invested in that child's learning. <u>Structural – focused on the design, efficiency and outcomes of the organizational structure</u> (2) I am the compliance officer. I am only a resource and (my role is clear). (16) Whatever seemed to have the greatest link to student achievement. I also looked from a systems (and processes) standpoint. <u>Symbolic - focused on the development of community through the creation of shared and valued actions and beliefs</u> (15) What went into my choices were the content that I need and the habits of mind that I need to set for people. The values I need to set in order to be able to achieve compliance (and) to move all students towards the expectations we have for them. (25) Expectations for teachers and students are important. That drove my instruction and communication with my students, colleagues; as administrator it's the same thing.
-5 Items	<u>Management Task</u> (2) Minutia...time and place. (4) Is this really important to me and how do I go about doing that? (Items are) not even something that I think about. (7) Those are areas that are where (an) administrative assistant would basically work (10) It wouldn't make a difference if I was involved in these things or not. (11) It's not on my priority list. I don't worry about that. (15) These are things that are not part of my direct responsibility. (16) Didn't directly relate to student achievement and performance and meeting the needs of diverse learners. (17) I thought it would be something I would delegate to a staff member (24) There are certain things I don't need to do for them to get done. (25) micro-managing statement(s) (28) It's not an issue. <u>Political - focused on the building of stakeholder networks and relationships</u> (20) we don't have any active systems that are in place to identify and to work with to have volunteer support specific to special education. I don't supply resources to volunteer groups for special education, and I don't acknowledge their volunteer membership. (28) With respect to voluntary membership groups, personally I don't have a lot of contact with them.

Factors contributing to sorting of items for Factor B Members

Table 4.16, below, contains each of the 12 participant responses to the post-sort questions inquiring about thoughts or issues that emerged for the participant while sorting the statements, and about factors that contributed most to the sorting of the statements. As for Factor A members, responses were analyzed and key statements; those identified as best representing a member's answer to each question, were extracted and combined in an effort to better understand factors and considerations influencing the sorting of statements. Extracted statements were then categorized using Bolman and Deal's leadership frames.

For Factor B members, three themes emerged: 1) *Developing Multi-actor leadership*, 2) *Role Responsibilities*, and 3) *Influencing Instruction*. Six of group member statements, or 50%,

are categorized under the *Developing Multi-actor leadership* title. Three statements or 25% respectively, are categorized under each of the remaining two themes.

Statements under the *Developing Multi-actor leadership* title indicate that group members considered their own disposition to involve others in decision-making and leadership roles when sorting items. Group member statements also indicate that group members value input and participation by both in and out-of-school stakeholders. Participant 25 states "You need to involve not just your staff, but parent organizations and outside stakeholders". Participants 10 and 11 state, respectively: "I really honed in on giving people leadership, allowing other people to do what they're really good at, and therefore allowing me to do my job" and "When you're utilizing the expertise of others and delegating to competent people, it does make your job easier, and you can maybe get more involved in the collaboration with (other) stakeholders, and work maybe more closely with the volunteer groups." As such, group members identify that multi-actor leadership has a positive impact on their efficacy as individuals.

Responses under the *Role Responsibilities* theme indicate that members' perception of most and least important leadership statements align with their specific job responsibilities. As found for Factor A members, Factor B members also perceive their role responsibilities as determining what actions are important to them. Statements by participants 15 and 17, respectively, support this theme: "That's really how things flow, in terms of what is my responsibility within the district I'm in now: and "Leadership statements that pertain to myself generate more towards the plus. My primary role is to be an instructional leader."

Lastly, factor members' statements were also categorized with the *Influencing Instruction* theme. Per participant 20, "Those (items that) are directly linked to instruction and student

outcomes, those were the ones that were very important to me" and participant 4, "Some of the statements in here were more focused on managerial things and I try not to fill my day with those things. I would much rather be spending time on thinking about improving programs and thinking about how to help students." As found for Factor A members, Factor B members also consider that their ability to influence instruction is a primary function of their leadership role.

Table 4.16
Factors Contributing to the Sorting of Items

	What factor(s), e.g., time, resources, your own knowledge, your skills, and/or your dispositions, contributed most to the sorting through the distributed leadership statements?
Factor B Members	<u>Developing Multi-actor leadership</u> (7) It's important to foster leadership in other people, because the more heads that can do it, the better it's going to be. (Sorting statements is based on) my framework of being a compliance officer. (10) (The main factor for sorting statements was) what I would have the most effect on, what I was needed for. I really honed in on giving people leadership, allowing other people to do what they're really good at, and therefore allowing me to do my job. (11) I want to involve the faculty and staff and make sure that people are encouraged to take on leadership roles, that are competent and motivated and on training for that leadership. When you're utilizing the expertise of others and delegating to competent people, it does make your job easier, and you can maybe get more involved in the collaboration with (other) stakeholders, and work maybe more closely with the volunteer groups. (24) "Utilizing the expertise of others", those kinds of things are important to me. Finding other people's talents. I also know clearly that I don't know everything, so it's important for me to rely on the expertise of other people and not be afraid to tell someone that I don't know something. (25) I think education is about the students, what they get out of it, and what I really tried to do was put the focus on instruction, curriculum, and expectations. You can't run a school in a top-down leadership. You need to involve not just your staff, but parent organizations and outside stakeholders. (28) In terms of what I do on a daily basis, these are the things I think are important: being transparent, collaborating with decisions. I'm hands on and I empower those people who have more knowledge than I do. <u>Role Responsibilities</u> (2) (Setting high expectations) is a hot ticket for me; evaluating instruction, but also evaluating the people who provide the instruction. I used the lens of my role. (15) That's really how things flow, in terms of what is my responsibility within the district I'm in now (know the special education laws and policies and setting high expectations and standards). (17) Leadership statements that pertain to myself generate more towards the plus. My primary role is to be an instructional leader. The way things are right now with evaluations of schools, performance evaluations, you have to be very cognizant of that. <u>Influencing Instruction</u> (4) Some of the statements in here were more focused on managerial things and I try not to fill my day with those things. I would much rather be spending time on thinking about improving programs and thinking about how to help students. (16) I feel like the single most important piece for special education is identifying what it is that makes the student a learner with needs, being really clear on what strategies we're going to employ to compensate for those areas of deficit, and then being able to track, follow up, monitor what we're doing, and whether or not it's working, and then having systems in place to modify or change instruction. (20) Those (items that) are directly linked to instruction and student outcomes, those were the ones that were very important to me. My comfort zone as a leader is to be working in the classroom, collaborating with the staff, identifying improvements for programs, for materials, for supports, for structures.

Summary of Factor Group Responses to the Post-Sort Questionnaire

Collection and categorization of factor group responses to post-sort questionnaire items reveals that Factor groups differ in how they assess items as most and least important to their work as leaders of special education. For Factor A members, the majority of statements, 68%, associated with highest ranked items are associated with three instructional leadership style items categorized within the symbolic leadership frame. A minority, but equal amounts of statements (16% respectively) are associated with human resources and structural leadership items. Analysis of member rationale for selecting most important items in general, reveals that members utilize both human resources and symbolic leadership frames almost equally when considering choices of most important items, 53% and 47% respectively.

For Factor B members, the majority of statements associated with highest ranked items are associated with two distributed leadership items and one collaborative leadership style item categorized within the human resources leadership frame. A minority of statements, 25%, is associated with 4 collaborative leadership items categorized within the political leadership frame, and two instructional leadership items categorized within the structural and symbolic leadership frames, 8.5% of statements respectively. Analysis of member rationale for selecting most important items in general, reveals that members utilize all 4 leadership frames when considering choices of most important items. Most utilized is the human resources frame (43%) followed by the political frame (29%) and then the structural and symbolic frames (14% respectively).

For Factor A members, examination of statements supporting choices for least important items reveals that the majority of statements, 80%, associated with lowest ranked items are associated with 3 collaborative leadership items categorized as managerial tasks. The remaining 20% of statements are associated with collaborative leadership statements categorized within the

political leadership frame. Analysis of member rationale for selecting least important items in general, reveals that members utilize a managerial lens, primarily (65% of statements), and a political lens, secondarily (35% of statements) when considering choices of least important items.

For Factor B members, examination of statements supporting choices for least important items reveals that all statements, 100%, associated with lowest ranked items are associated with 6 collaborative leadership items and 2 distributed leadership items categorized as managerial tasks. Analysis of member rationale for selecting least important items in general, reveals that members utilize a managerial lens, primarily (85% of statements), and a political lens, secondarily (15% of statements) when considering choices of least important items.

When asked to identify issues that emerged for them while sorting items, and factors that contributed most to the sorting of the items, Factor A members identified that their role responsibilities, focus on contextualizing the work of personnel, perception of themselves as lone leaders, and perception that their primary role is to influence instruction were considered when sorting leadership items. Examination of percentages of statements associated with each theme reveals that no theme is reflective of the majority of factor group members. Instead, themes are used somewhat uniformly with percentages of statements within each being 33%, 28%, 22% and 17% respectively.

Factor B members, when asked to identify issues that emerged for them while sorting items, and factors that contributed most to the sorting of the items, identified that developing multi-actor leadership, their role responsibilities, and their perception that their primary role is to influence instruction were considered when sorting leadership items. For Factor B members,

developing multi-actor leadership emerged as the main theme with 50% of member responses. The remaining two themes are considered equally with 25% of statements within each.

Synthesis of Results – Factor A and B Leadership Profiles

A synthesis of quantitative and qualitative results reveals both a demographic and leadership style profile for factor group members. Factor A members are principals or assistant principals in their forties who have general education teaching experience and under 12 years of administrative experience. Members work primarily in districts of under 3,000 students with 10%-20% of students identified as special education. Member districts, primarily, are NCLB levels 2 or 3, and district performance within the Massachusetts Coordinated Program Review resulted in 11 or more areas in which corrective action is required. However, Factor A members also represent: a) large districts, over 6,000 students, b) districts with 20%-30% of students identified as special education, c) NCLB level 4 districts, d) new administrators, and e) youngest administrators.

In regard to leadership style, Factor A members are instructional leaders who most value instructional leadership actions associated with the symbolic leadership frame such as a) Setting high expectations and standards for teachers and students, and b) Defining the school mission and goals. Factor A members also utilize human resources and symbolic leadership frame lenses almost equally when considering leadership items/actions that are most important to them. More specifically, Factor A members utilize these lenses because they consider that their individual ability to work with teachers will have a positive effect on the teacher's instructional practices, and their ability to develop and communicate the school mission, and to set high expectations for performance is fundamental to their efficacy as leaders.

Factor A members least value collaborative leadership items/actions associated with, primarily, managerial tasks and, secondarily, political leadership tasks aimed at involving and supporting diverse and/or voluntary stakeholders. When identifying least important leadership items, Factor A members utilize, primarily, a managerial tasks lens and, secondarily, a political leadership frame lens. More specifically, Factor A members consider least important items/actions as those that require little to no attention from them, or that involve voluntary membership groups as factor group members consider that voluntary membership groups do not require member involvement or positively impact schools.

Lastly, Factor A members identified that a) their role responsibilities, b) focus on contextualizing the work of personnel, c) perception of themselves as lone leaders, and d) perception that their primary role is to influence instruction were considered, and contributed to the members sorting of leadership items. More specifically, when sorting statements, Factor A members utilized the following considerations: a) statements that aligned with their specific job responsibilities, b) their belief that developing a set of shared beliefs and expectations, and creation and communication of an organizational mission, are fundamental leadership actions, c) their belief that leadership and decision-making belongs, primarily, to the individual leader, and c) the primary function of their leadership role is to influence instruction.

With respect to the leadership frames of Bolman and Deal (2003), Instructional group members can be described as aligned with the Symbolic frame, and then the Human Resources frame. Most statements supporting choice of +5 items are categorized within the Symbolic frame (68%) with statements categorized in the Human Resources frame next at 16%. However, statements describing the rationale for selecting most important items are almost evenly divided among the Symbolic and Human Resources frames. Factors influencing

Instructional group member sorts can be described primarily as perception of role responsibility with Contextualizing the Work of Personnel as the next most prevalent theme. This theme describes developing and communicating a shared mission and expectations as fundamental to group members work. A least predominant factor is Influencing Instruction.

Table 4.17
Leadership Profile for Factor A Group
(continued onto next page)

Category	**Factor A Demographic Profile**
Current Administrative Position	Principal/Asst Principal with general education teacher license
Level of Administrative Role	High School
Gender	Male or Female
Age	40-49 but this group includes 2 youngest participants
Ethnicity	White
Number of Years in Current Position	0-6, and majority of new administrators
Total Number of Years of Administrative Experience	0-12
Highest Educational Level Attained	Masters Degree, or Masters Degree +30, or CAGS
Total District Enrollment	under 3,000, but this group includes all participants from districts with greater than 6,000 students
Percent of Students Identified as Special Education Within the School	10% - 20%, but this group includes the majority of participants from districts in the 20%- 30% range
NCLB Accountability Status of the School (ELA, Math)	level 2 , or 3, but this group includes the majority of participants from level 4 districts
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas commended)	0-1
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas requiring corrective action)	11 or more

Factor A Leadership Profile			
Leadership Style Evidenced by Most Important	**Leadership Frames Associated with Most Important Leadership Items and Percent of Member Statements Supporting the Ranking**	**Rationale for Most Important Leadership Items**	**Factors Influencing Choice of Leadership Items**

Items	of at Least One of the Items		
Instructional – 7 Leadership Items Collaborative – 2 Leadership Items	**Symbolic frame** (68% of statements) • Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students (IL) • Define the school mission and goals (IL) • Communicate the school mission and goals to personnel (IL) **Human Resources frame** (16% of statements) • Work directly with teachers to support their improvement of teaching and learning (IL) • Provide professional development aligned with the school mission and goals (IL) • Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes (CL) **Structural frame** (16% of statements) • Evaluate instruction (IL) • Design and implement instructional programs (IL) • Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings (CL)	• **Human Resources** (53% of statements)- members considered that their individual ability to work with teachers will have a positive effect on the teacher's instructional practices • **Symbolic** (47% of statements) - members considered that their ability to develop and communicate the school mission, and to set high expectations for performance is fundamental to their efficacy.	1. **Role Responsibilities** (33% of statements) - perception that most and least important leadership statements align with their specific job responsibilities 2. **Contextualizing the Work of Personnel** (28% of statements) - developing a set of shared beliefs and expectations, and creation and communication of an organizational mission, are considered fundamental leadership actions 3. **'Lone Leader' Perception** (22% of statements) - leadership and decision-making belongs, primarily, to the individual 4. **Influencing Instruction** (17% of statements) - the primary function of their leadership role is to influence instruction
Anti-Leadership Style Evidenced by Least Important Statements	**Leadership Frames Associated with Least Important Leadership Items and Percent of Member Statements Supporting the Ranking of at Least One of the Items**	**Rationale for Least Important Items**	
Collaborative – 9 Leadership Items Managerial Tasks	**Managerial tasks** – (80% of statements) • Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur (CL) • Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc… (CL) • Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet (CL) **Political frame** – (20% of statements) • Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups (CL) • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements (CL) • Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice (CL) • Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups (CL) • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to evaluate school programs (CL) • Help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization (CL)	• **Managerial tasks** (65% of statements) - actions that require little to no attention from the factor member are least important, and • **Political** (35% of statements) - voluntary membership groups do not require member involvement or positively impact schools	

Factor B members are principals or assistant principals who have general education teaching experience, or special education administrators, who are female, between 30 and 59, and who have 0 to 6 years or 12 to 18 years of administrative experience. Educationally, members are similar to Factor A members. Also similar to Factor A members, Factor B members work primarily in districts of under 3,000 students with 10%-20% of students identified as special education, but Factor B districts are representative of districts with lower percentages of students identified as free or reduced lunch (0%-40%). Member districts, primarily, are also NCLB status levels 2 or 3, but district performance within the Massachusetts Coordinated Program Review resulted in 10 or fewer areas in which corrective action is required. Further, Factor B members also represent: a) districts that have received 1 or more areas of commendation within their last Massachusetts Coordinated Program Review.

Factor B members least value collaborative and distributed leadership items/actions associated with, primarily, managerial tasks and, secondarily, distributed leadership tasks aimed at managing the leadership initiatives of others. When identifying least important leadership items, Factor B members utilize, primarily, a managerial tasks lens and, secondarily, a political leadership frame lens. More specifically, Factor B members consider least important items/actions as those that require little to no attention from them, or that involve managing leadership initiatives of others.

Lastly, Factor B members identified that a) developing multi-actor leadership, b) their role responsibilities, and c) their perception that their primary role is to influence instruction were considered, and contributed to the members sorting of leadership items. More specifically, when sorting statements, Factor B members utilized the following considerations: a) their disposition to involve others in decision-making and leadership roles, b) statements that aligned

with their specific job responsibilities, and c) their belief that the primary function of their leadership role is to influence instruction.

With respect to the leadership frames of Bolman and Deal (2003), Multi-actor group members can be described as aligned with the Human Resources frame, and then the Political frame. Most statements supporting choice of +5 items are categorized within the Human Resources frame (58%) with statements categorized in the Political frame next at 25%. Statements describing the rationale for selecting most important items are in similar percentages in those same groups respectively. Factors influencing Multi-actor group member sorts can be described primarily as focused on developing multi-actor leadership (50%). Perception of role responsibility, and influencing instruction are the next most influential factors at 25% of responses each. Influencing Instruction.

Table 4.18
Leadership Profile for Factor B Group
(continued onto next page)

Category	**Factor B**
Current Administrative Position	Principal/Asst Principal with general education teacher license only or Special Education Administrator
Level of Administrative Role	District
Gender	Female
Age	30-59
Ethnicity	White
Number of Years in Current Position	0-6
Total Number of Years of Administrative Experience	0-6, 12-18
Highest Educational Level Attained	Masters Degree, or Masters Degree +30, or CAGS
Total District Enrollment	under 3,000
Percent of Students Identified as Special Education Within the School	10% - 20%
NCLB Accountability Status of the School (ELA, Math)	level 2 or 3

Percent of Students Identified as Free or Reduced Lunch Within the School	0% - 40%
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas commended)	0-1 but with this group includes the majority of participants from districts receiving more than 1
Coordinated Program Review Findings (# areas requiring corrective action)	0-10

Factor B Leadership Profile

Leadership Style Evidenced by Most Important Items	**Leadership Frames Associated with Most Important Leadership Items and Percent of Member Statements Supporting the Ranking of at Least One of the Items**	**Rationale for Most Important Leadership Items**	**Factors influencing Choice of Leadership Items**
Collaborative – 4 Leadership Items Instructional – 3 Leadership Items Distributed – 2 Leadership Items	**Human Resources** (58% of statements) • Understand special education laws and policies (IL) • Respect the views of others (DL) • Utilize the expertise of others within the school to support my understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements (DL) **Political** (25% of statements) • Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice (CL) • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements (CL) • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (CL) • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources (CL) **Structural** (8.5% of statements) • Design and implement appropriate structures and processes as a means to monitor student progress (IL) **Symbolic** (8.5% of statements) • Set high expectations and standards for teachers and students (IL)	• **Human Resource** (43% of statements) - there is a knowledge-base fundamental to the factor member's role and efficacy • **Political** (29% of statements) - multi-actor input and decision-making enables the organization to best serve students • **Symbolic** (14% of statements) -creation of organizational values and expectations is fundamental for organizational success • **Structural** (14% of statements) - members role is to create systems that affect student outcomes	1. **Developing Multi-actor Leadership** (50% of statements) - disposition to involve others in decision-making and leadership roles 2. **Role Responsibilities** (25% of statements) - perception that most and least important leadership statements align with their specific job responsibilities and 3. **Influencing Instruction** (25% of statements) - the primary function of their leadership role is to influence instruction
Anti-Leadership Style Evidenced by Least Important Items	**Leadership Frames Associated with Least Important Leadership Items and Percent of Member Statements Supporting the Ranking of at Least One of the Items**	**Rationale for Least Important Leadership Items**	

Collaborative – 7 Leadership Items Distributed – 2 Leadership Items Managerial Tasks	**<u>Managerial tasks</u>** (100% of statements) • Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur (CL) • Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur (CL) • Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly (CL) • Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc… (CL) • Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet (CL) • Do not manage leadership initiatives of others (DL) • Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings (CL) • Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks (DL) **<u>Political</u>** • Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning (CL)	• **<u>Managerial tasks</u>** (85% of statements) - actions that require little to no attention from the factor member are least important • **<u>Political</u>** (15% of statements) - member's have no involvement with voluntary stakeholders	

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Interpretations and Explanations

This section explores possible interpretations and explanations of the results in the preceding chapter. Exploration of possible interpretations and explanations of these results is conducted through examination of similarities and differences within and between leadership profiles.

Results of this study reveal leadership profiles of the Factor A and B groups that can be described as Instructional, and Multi-faceted, respectively. The Instructional profile clearly reflects member perceptions that instructional leadership actions are most important. Factor A members most important items are aligned with the Symbolic frame and Human Resources frame. Instructional profile members perceive that their role responsibilities drive their identification of most important leadership items/actions and that their primary responsibilities are to develop a set of shared beliefs and expectations, to create and communicate an organizational mission, and to influence instruction. As such, actions aligned with these responsibilities are considered as most important. Managerial tasks and support of voluntary membership groups are perceived as least important. Members also perceive that leadership and decision-making belongs primarily to themselves as individuals.

The Multi-faceted profile reflects perceptions that collaborative, instructional, and distributed leadership items/actions are most important. Similar to Instructional profile members, Multi-faceted profile members also perceive that their role responsibilities drive their identification of most important leadership items/actions and members also perceive that their primary responsibility is to influence instruction. Managerial tasks and involvement with

voluntary membership groups are also perceived as least important. However, members in this profile group perceive that there is a knowledge-base fundamental to the factor member's role and efficacy, multi-actor input and decision-making enables the organization to best serve students, creation of organizational values and expectations is fundamental for organizational success, and the members role is to create systems that affect student outcomes. Further, members value involving others in decision-making and leadership roles.

Members of the Instructional leadership profile and Multi-faceted leadership profile also differ demographically in several ways. When comparing groups, members of the Instructional group are primarily principals and assistant principals, while members of the Multi-faceted group represent principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators.

This finding is not surprising and is consistent with research in Chapter II showing that the instructional leadership model has come to exemplify the effective school principal, and has become the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003). Further, collaboration and communication with, and involvement of various stakeholders are identified as important to the work of special education administrators (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin et al., 2009; Crockett et al., 2009, and O'Brien, 2006) as well as "providing and supervising special education and related services, and for ensuring compliance with federal, state and local laws and regulations" (Lashley & Boscardin, 2003, p.30).

Instructional group members represent high school and district level administrators, while Multi-faceted group members represent district level personnel. This finding is considered not considered to reflect alignment of participants with factor groups by level of administrative role as the percentage of participants at each level is similar across factor groups. Also, district and high school level roles account for approximately 2/3 of participants.

The membership of special education administrators within the Instructional leadership profile group and the membership of principals and assistant principals in the Multi-faceted leadership profile group are unexpected. Membership of special education administrators within the Instructional profile group may be explained by the influence of education reform initiatives. Per Bass (1985), Hallinger (2003) and Marks and Printy (2003), accountability for school performance and decision-making remains assigned to those in traditional leadership roles, principals and special education administrators, and because school leaders have the responsibility to address the core function of school personnel by influencing instruction directly, and student learning outcomes indirectly (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003), school leaders operate through mechanisms for providing high quality instruction. Per Barbour and Mourshed (2007), those mechanisms are identified as: 1) setting high expectations for student achievement, 2) monitoring outcomes at the school and student levels, and 3) intervening at the school and student levels. Therefore, when expectations for leaders of special education are focused on achieving the school districts mission and expectations, then special education administrators may be influenced to transform their leadership practice away from the collaborative style to that of instructional leadership. The result then is that principals, assistant principals and special education administrators alike, function under a guiding mission statement in an attempt to use their influence to meet expectations for student achievement. However, those leaders may be acting independently and without the specialized knowledge base and skills necessary to be effective leaders of special education. This influence on leadership practice directly opposes development of multi-actor leadership approaches that are needed to diminish the perception of 'separateness' between general and special education as a whole, (Boscardin, 2004; Boscardin,

2007), and the need for special and general education leaders to comingle knowledge, skill, and expertise in order effectively serve the learning needs of all students (Boscardin, 2007).

The membership of principals and assistant principals within the Multi-faceted leadership profile group may also be due to education reforms that reflect the need for school leaders to be able to understand the connections and dynamics between subject matter, teaching, and learning, and to allow for multiple sources of influence if they are to improve instruction and student outcomes (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; Stein and Nelson, 2003). As such, principals and assistant principals within this profile group may have been influenced by education reforms to focus on the development of strong teachers, and involve them, and others, in the leadership and decision-making within schools (Stein & Nelson; Elmore; Leithwood et al.; Barber and Mourshed).

This interpretation highlights that school and school district attempts to meet demands of education reform initiatives do not necessarily result in the intended outcomes of those reform initiatives. Further study is needed to understand how perceptions of a school district mission and district expectations affect the leadership style of leaders of special education.

Demographically, members of the Instructional group tend to be in their 40's, but this group includes most new administrators and the two youngest administrators. As such members of the Instructional group can also be described as newer leaders, while members of the Multi-faceted group can be described as more experienced leaders. This finding supports research that identifies novice administrators as having a greater tendency to be bureaucratic, and preferring a top-down leadership approach (Schmidt, Kosmoski, & Pollack, 1998). Findings also support research, from the field of business, that older business executives are more open to learning and demonstrate more inclination to work with others than younger executives. (Klein, Astrachan, &

Kossek, 1996). Further investigation is needed to identify factors that can influence the use of multi-actor leadership styles by novice administrators.

Members of the instructional group also represent the largest, lowest achieving, highest needs districts, and also the lowest performing districts on state special education compliance. This finding supports research that suggests smaller school districts with lower populations of high needs students perform better on standardized assessments (NCTAF, 1996; Roza, 2001), and that the smaller the proportion of disadvantaged students in a school, the more capable a school is to engage in effective problem-solving processes (Pallas, Natriello, and McDill, 1989). This finding also supports research in Chapter II that the instructional leader model has become the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003), especially in poor urban communities (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982).

Per research in Chapter II, instructional leaders need to have the ability to understand, recognize, and promote specialized instruction in support of individual learning needs if they are to meet contemporary demands on school leadership (Bays & Crockett, 2007). More specifically, findings support the need for reform initiatives to influence principals' ability to positively influence teaching practice, and achievement of all students (Billingsley, 2004; Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2009). As NCLB levels for this group indicate, the ability of Instructional group members to positively influence student outcomes by influencing instruction appears to be limited despite member perceptions that they are able to do just that. This limited effectiveness may be explained by the leadership profile of Instructional group members, and responses from group members to the post-sort questionnaire. Both show that members of this group highly value leadership items within the human resources and symbolic leadership frames aimed at influencing instruction and establishing a mission and expectations for students and teachers.

Also, results show that members least value collaborative leadership items and consider themselves to be 'lone leaders'. As indicated by research in Chapter II, contemporary demands on principals include (a) an ability to understand and recognize good instructional practice, (b) an ability to provide classroom and personnel resources necessary for meeting students' needs, and (c) an ability to recognize the importance of, and use, data and progress monitoring in order to evaluate program effectiveness (DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran & Walther-Thomas, 2004; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas,). Per DiPaola et al. (2004), and Crockett (2002), this will require the collaborative efforts of school leaders, teachers, students, families, and community leaders to inform decision-making that will improve the educational experiences of all students. Therefore, the 'lone' instructional leader disposition of Instructional group members, although focused on improving instruction, developing a mission, and setting high expectations, appears to be too limited due to the lack of involvement by varied stakeholders to allow them to meet contemporary leadership demands aimed at improving outcomes for all students.

Multi-faceted group member actions, on the other hand, as evidenced by their leadership profile are aligned with contemporary demands. Multi-faceted group members value multi-actor leadership, as such, their actions may be considered to result in school cultures in which academic achievement for all students is valued, supported, and realized (DiPaola et al., 2004; Crockett, 2002). As such, further investigation is needed to more broadly understand how leadership style affects instructional effectiveness, student outcomes secondarily, and subsequently, a districts NCLB accountability level.

When considering district performance on the last Coordinated Program Review (CPR), results support research findings that principals, particularly those with little experience within the role are generally unprepared and unskilled in regard to their ability to oversee special

education programs and services (DiPaola et al., 2004). Considering that members of the Instructional group did not highly value actions supporting their knowledge of legal and policy requirements, despite reform initiatives promoting school leaders working understanding of the requirements of NCLB (2001) and IDEA (2004) (DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran & Walther-Thomas, 2004; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas,), it follows that these members would not be able to effectively develop the knowledge and skills of themselves, or staff, to improve compliance with those laws and regulations. Further, because members of the Instructional group least valued actions associated with supporting and involving various stakeholders, their ability to involve stakeholders in the implementation of special education laws and policies knowledge would, necessarily, be limited. This would also negatively affect compliance with laws and regulations and result in poor performance on the CPR.

Multi-faceted group members did value actions supporting their knowledge of legal and policy requirements, and actions associated with supporting multi-actor leadership. As such, it follows that these members would be able to develop their own, or others, knowledge of and compliance with laws and regulations. This would positively affect compliance and result in 'good' performance on the CPR. It is also interesting to note that Multi-faceted group member principals are also, generally, inexperienced in their current roles as all have under 6 years experience and two have under 3 years. As such, principals ability to oversee special education programs and services is not only a function of experience, as indicated by DiPaola et al.(2004) but also appears to be a function of their knowledge of special education laws and regulations. Further study is needed to how leadership style and perceptions of role responsibilities affect a leaders understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements.

It is also interesting to note that the two principals in the study who are licensed as both general and special education administrators are members of the Instructional group and represent high needs, NCLB level 3 and 4 districts with poor performance on the CPR. Both have over 9 years of administrative experience but under 3 years of experience as a principal. Also, one works in a larger district while the other in a small district. This finding provides further support for research indicating that the instructional leader model has become the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003), especially in poor urban communities (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). Also, this finding supports the earlier proposal that education reform initiatives may be influencing a transformation from a collaborative leadership style to an instructional leadership style when the achievement of a school district mission and expectations is perceived as the primary responsibility of a leader of special education.

All participants in this study are white. This result is consistent with the ethnic representation of special education administrators, principals and assistant principals in Massachusetts. Per the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, for the year 2014, 97.2%, 90.6% and 90.5% of those roles, respectively, are comprised of individuals who identify themselves as white.

Lastly, Multi-faceted group members are predominantly female while Instructional group members represent both genders. Research, however, does not indicate that gender influences leader functioning among men and women with relatively similar power (Barry, 2002).

Revision of Leadership Domains

In this section a revision of the *Leadership Domains Identified as Important to the Work of Leaders of Special Education in Serving Students with Disabilities* is proposed. The below

table is a modified version of Table 2.23 of Chapter II. This modified table, Table 5.1 shows the leadership style items associated with each leadership domain and leadership frame for *Characteristic Leader Actions, Depending on Leadership Style, Associated with Leadership Domains Identified as Important to the Work of Leaders of Special Education in Serving Students with Disabilities*. Of the ten instructional leadership items, all can be associated with a domain in the below table. Only 4 of the 17 distributed leadership items, and 8 of the 23 collaborative leadership items however, can be directly associated with a domain in the below table.

Alignment of all ten instructional leadership items with a domain in Table 5.1 is not surprising as an individual leader/decision-maker can act within each domain. As such, as demands on school leaders change, the lone-leader model can change to reflect the areas requiring focus by them.

The four distributed leadership items in Table 5.1 are: 20- Involve all staff in important decision-making, 24-Utilize the expertise of others to help create a common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students, 26-Utilize the expertise of others within the school to support my understanding of, and compliance with, legal and policy requirements, and 27-Utilize the expertise of others within the school to evaluate school programs. Collectively, these items reflect actions of a leader of special education that utilize others for various, but specific, objectives.

The 8 collaborative leadership items in Table 5.1 are: 41- Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve teacher practices, 42- Focus staff/faculty group meeting time on collective learning to improve student outcomes, 44- Provide informational/data resources to staff/faculty group meetings , 45- Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to

identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students, 46- Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice, 47- Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to develop school programs, 48- Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to evaluate school programs, and 49- Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify, and comply with legal and policy requirements. Collectively, these items, save item 46, reflect specific purposes for collaborative work aligned with specific domains. Item 46 aligns directly with the collaboration domain as a leadership practice.

Table 5.1
Alignment of Leadership Items to Table 2.23
(continued onto next page)

Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style					
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**	**Leadership Item**
Symbolic – develop community	**Development of Inclusive Learning Environments** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	**Principal defines an inclusive school mission and goals, and communicates them to personnel (Hallinger, 2005)**	*A common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students is developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)	• **1** • **2** • **3** • *24* • 45
Political – build stakeholder networks and relationships	**Utilize Multi-actor Leadership (Collaboration** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006) **and Distribution of Leadership** (Elmore, 2000; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; MacBeath et al; Ritchie & Woods, 2004; Spillane, 2005))	**Principal engages the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success (NAESP, 2008). Principal empowers personnel to effectively act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007)**	*Principal and other leaders act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007)*	Principal, and leadership groups foster serve as the main decision-making bodies (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004).	• 20 • 46
Human Resource – develop and empower people	**Development of Teachers Capable of Providing High Quality Instruction to All Students** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; O'Brien, 2006)	**Principal is directly involved in classroom practices, promotes professional development (Hallinger, 2005), and provides professional development aligned with school vision, content, and curriculum (Graczewski al., 2009)**	*A culture in which teachers learn from each other, and provide opportunities for continuous professional development are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004).*	Colleagues engage in group learning and problem solving as PLC's (Hord, 2009). Diverse groups engage in learning through the community of practice model (Pugach, 1999).	• **9** • **4** • 41 • 42
Structural - organizational development	**Program Development and Organization** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009;	**Principal defines the program vision and program requirements and coordinates**	*Teachers are encouraged to initiate leadership roles and to take risks; are provided*	Diverse stakeholder groups develop programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995;	• **5** • **10**

Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style					
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**	**Leadership Item**
	Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2006; Stein & Nelson, 2003)	**the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005).**	*material help; and are allowed sufficient freedom to develop and initiate programs (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004).*	Slater, 2004)	• 47
Structural – organizational development	**Evaluation of Educational Programs & Program Outcomes** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006)	**Principal supervises and evaluates instruction, and monitors student progress (Hallinger, 2005).**	*Programs are evaluated via contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources. (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups evaluate programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)	• **6** • **8** • *27* • 48 • 44
Domain area serves as an informational input for actions within each frame	**Law and Policy** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	**Principal possesses expertise around law, and policy, and its implementation (Hallinger, 2003).**	*Understanding of, and compliance with, law and policy requirements are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups develop understanding of, and ensure compliance with, legal and policy requirements (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)	• **7** • *26* • 49

Bold item numbers correspond to instructional leadership items
Italicized item numbers correspond to distributed leadership items
Non-bolded or italicized correspond to collaborative leadership items

The distributed leadership items that are not aligned with specific domain in Table 5.1 were analyzed and categorized to understand their relationship to leadership styles and domains identified as important to the work of leaders of special education. The below table, Table 5.2, shows that the majority of distributed leadership statements can be categorized as actions not associated with specific leadership domains in Table 5.1, but as leader actions to develop and implement a distributed leadership style.

The 15 collaborative items that are not part of Table 5.1 were also analyzed and categorized to understand their relationship to domains identified as important to the work of leaders of special education. The below table, Table 5.3, shows that the majority of collaborative leadership statements can also be categorized as actions not associated with specific leadership domains in Table 5.1, but as leader actions to develop and implement a collaborative leadership style.

In both tables leadership items are categorized into four areas: Preparing, Enabling, Enacting, and Monitoring and Evaluating. The Preparing category includes leadership items that must be enacted in order to allow for individuals or groups to emerge as potential leaders. Next, the Enabling category includes actions that enable or empower individuals or groups to assume a leadership role. The third category, Enacting, includes actions that support individual or group functioning as leaders. Lastly, the Monitoring and Evaluating category includes actions that validate and manage the leadership initiatives of individuals or groups.

Table 5.2
Distributed Statements Not Part of Table 5.1
(continued onto next page)

Actions to develop and implement a distributed leadership style	Actions	Leadership Item #

Preparing	• Respect the views of others • Identify leadership potential in people • Train people for leadership • Encourage and value innovative ideas from all members of the school • Leadership roles are extended to pupils	11 14 15 19 21
Enabling	• Motivate people to initiate leadership actions • Allow sufficient freedom for others within the school to initiate and implement leadership initiatives	17 25
Enacting	• Formally and strategically assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals • Facilitate individual leadership performance • Provide material help in support of leadership initiatives of others • Involve all staff in important decision-making	12 16 18 20
Monitoring and Evaluating	• Control and manage the performance of individuals assigned with leadership tasks • Do not manage leadership initiatives of others. • Provide advice and feedback to those taking on leadership roles	13 22 23

Table 5.3
Collaborative Statements Not Part of Table 5.1
(continued onto next page)

Actions to develop and implement a collaborative leadership style	Actions	Leadership Item #
Preparing	• Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning • Support student involvement within voluntary membership groups • Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups • Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups	28 29 30 31
Enabling	• Help voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization • Support voluntary membership groups formation and work within areas of organizational need • Supply resources to voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc • Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet	35 36 32 33
Enacting Collaborative Leadership	• Share decision-making with staff/faculty groups • Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly • Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur • Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur • Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings • Collaborate with diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources • Foster and utilize diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of my leadership practice	38 37 39 40 43 50 46
Monitoring and	• Acknowledge voluntary membership groups contributions to the	34

Evaluating Collaborative Leadership	organization	

Inspection of both tables reveals that items in each category of each table may be adjusted to fit in the same categories of the other table. For example, in the Monitoring and Evaluating category of Table 5.3 there is only one item. Further, that single item appears insufficient for the task monitoring and evaluating the work of a collaborative group, but if it read *Acknowledge individual leadership contributions to the organization,* it would fit into Table 5.2. Accordingly, items in the Monitoring category of Table 5.2 can be adjusted to fit into table 5.3. This implies that two more comprehensive tables can be created with leadership items that, essentially, become tuned to a specific leadership style. Even further, a single table can be created that includes all items tuned to each leadership style. For example, *Acknowledge voluntary membership groups contributions to the organization,* and the revised *Acknowledge individual leadership contributions to the organization* can be tuned to Acknowledge individual and voluntary membership groups contributions to the organization. Table 5.4 includes those tuned statements.

Table 5.4
Synthesis of Tables 5.2 & 5.3
(continued onto next page)

Actions to develop and implement a multi-actor leadership style	Actions
Preparing	• Respect the views of others and groups • Identify leadership potential in people and groups • Train people and groups for leadership • Encourage and value innovative ideas from all members of, and groups within the school • Leadership roles are extended to pupils • Encourage the formation of voluntary membership groups that I do not lead or manage, which are open to members having joint interests in teaching and learning

	• Support student involvement within voluntary membership groups • Support parents involvement within voluntary membership groups • Support involvement of stakeholders from outside the organization within voluntary membership groups
Enabling	• Motivate people and groups to initiate leadership actions • Help individuals and voluntary membership groups articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization • Allow sufficient freedom for others, and groups within the school to initiate and implement leadership initiatives • Support individual and voluntary membership groups formation and work within areas of organizational need • Supply resources to individuals and voluntary membership groups such as meeting space, technology, etc • Allot time for voluntary membership groups to meet
Enacting	• Formally and strategically assign leadership responsibilities to capable individuals, and groups • Facilitate individual and group leadership performance • Provide material help in support of leadership initiatives of others and groups • Share decision-making with individuals and staff/faculty groups • Require staff/faculty groups to meet regularly • Decide on the time for staff/faculty group meetings to occur • Decide on the place for staff/faculty group meetings to occur • Define the purpose for staff/faculty group meetings • Collaborate with individuals and diverse stakeholder groups to identify and allocate resources
Monitoring and Evaluating	• Control and manage the performance of individuals and groups assigned with leadership tasks • Do not manage leadership initiatives of others or groups. • Provide advice and feedback to those individuals and groups taking on leadership roles • Acknowledge individual and voluntary membership groups contributions to the organization

Table 5.4 now includes leader actions that enable the leader to develop and implement multi-actor leadership, that is, leadership by individuals and/or groups. Re-inspection of Table 5.1 then, reveals that no domain exists for which to align these items. Therefore, the table may be considered to be limited in its ability to capture leadership domains necessary for enabling leaders of special education to meet contemporary demands. As such, the revision of the Utilize Multi-actor Leadership domain to include a development component is proposed. The new domain is revised as *Develop and Utilize Multi-actor leadership.* This revision makes three

things explicit: 1) the association of each leadership item, via a tuned item, with a leadership domain, 2), the actions that support development of distributed and collaborative leadership and 3) the idea that development of multi-actor leadership is a necessary component of the work of a contemporary leader of special education. Table 5.5, below, is the revised table.

Initial consideration of effects of a Development of Multi-actor Leadership domain immediately results in consideration for the possibility of 'run-away' leadership. That is, the idea that the enabling of individuals and groups to not only assume leadership roles but to foster leadership in other individuals and groups leads to an over abundance of leaders who may not be acting in a cohesive and coordinated manner. Such a result would be detrimental to an organization. Instead, inspection of Table 5.4 shows that there exist items/actions reflecting the ability of an individual leader to manage the growth and functioning of leadership within the school or district. For example, the requirement that individuals receive leadership training before assuming formally acknowledged leadership roles will allow leaders to manage the pace and quality of individuals assuming leadership roles. Assisting individuals and groups to articulate and recognize their strategic value to the organization, assignment of formal and strategic leadership responsibilities to capable individuals and groups, and facilitation of individual and group leadership performance can provide focus and direction to individuals and groups and enable coherent and coordinated initiatives and interactions. Lastly, control and management of individual and group leadership initiatives, along with provision of advice and feedback to those individuals and groups allows a leader to monitor the fidelity and effectiveness of individual and group leadership initiatives and to influence the that work.

In sum, the Development and Utilization of Multi-actor Leadership domain reflects a way for leaders of special education to distribute leadership, to enable collaborative leadership, and to

foster leadership throughout a school or district. Leadership development items/actions not only support leadership development but also allow leaders of special education to manage and coordinate leadership efforts of individuals and collaborative groups. As such, the addition of a Development of Multi-actor Leadership domain appears to be a necessary change that can assist leaders of special education in meeting contemporary leadership demands.

Table 5.5
Revised Table 2.23
(continued onto next page)

Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style				
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**
Symbolic – develop community	**Development of Inclusive Learning Environments** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	**Principal defines an inclusive school mission and goals, and communicates them to personnel (Hallinger, 2005)**	*A common set of values, and norms around serving the learning needs of all students is developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups identify cultural norms and expectations for serving learning needs of all students (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)
Political – build stakeholder networks and relationships	**Development and Utilization of Multi-actor Leadership (Collaboration** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006) **and Distribution of Leadership** (Elmore, 2000; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; MacBeath et al; Ritchie & Woods, 2004; Spillane, 2005))	**Principal engages in actions to develop and implement multi-actor leadership (see actions is Table DC). Principal fosters and utilizes diverse stakeholder relationships as a main component of their leadership practice and engages the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success (NAESP, 2008). Principal also empowers personnel to effectively act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007) and involves all staff in important decision-making.**	*Leaders of special education and other individual leaders engage in actions to develop and implement multi-actor leadership* (see actions is Table DC). *Leaders of special education and other individual leaders act in leadership roles (Bennett, et al., 2003; Ritchie & Woods, 2007)*	Leaders of special education, and leadership groups engage in actions to develop and implement multi-actor leadership (see actions is Table DC). Leadership groups serve as the main decision-making bodies (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004).
Human Resource – develop and empower people	**Development of Teachers Capable of Providing High Quality Instruction to All Students** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; O'Brien, 2006)	**Principal is directly involved in classroom practices, promotes professional development (Hallinger, 2005), and provides professional development aligned with school vision, content, and curriculum (Graczewski al., 2009)**	*A culture in which teachers learn from each other, and provide opportunities for continuous professional development are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004).*	Colleagues engage in group learning and problem solving as PLC's (Hord, 2009). Diverse groups engage in learning through the community of practice model (Pugach, 1999).
Structural - organizational	**Program Development and Organization** (Billingsley et al.,	**Principal defines the program vision and program requirements and coordinates**	*Teachers are encouraged to initiate leadership roles and to*	Diverse stakeholder groups develop programs (Pugach &

Actions Within Each Leadership Domain Area Through Each Style				
Leadership Frame	**Leader of Special Education Domain Areas**	**Instructional**	**Distributed**	**Collaborative**
development	unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; Elmore, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2006; Stein & Nelson, 2003)	**the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005).**	*take risks; are provided material help; and are allowed sufficient freedom to develop and initiate programs (Bennett et al, 2003; MacBeath et al., 2004, Ritchie & Woods, 2004).*	Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)
Structural – organizational development	**Evaluation of Educational Programs & Program Outcomes** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; DiPaola et al., 2004; O'Brien, 2006)	**Principal supervises and evaluates instruction, and monitors student progress (Hallinger, 2005).**	*Programs are evaluated via contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources. (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups evaluate programs (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)
Domain area serves as an informational input for actions within each frame	**Law and Policy** (Billingsley et al., unpublished; Boscardin, et al., 2009; Crockett, 2002; Crockett, et al., 2009; DiPaola et al., 2004)	**Principal possesses expertise around law, and policy, and its implementation (Hallinger, 2003).**	*Understanding of, and compliance with, law and policy requirements are developed though contributions of expertise and leadership from a variety of sources (Bennett et al, 2003; Elmore, 2000).*	Diverse stakeholder groups develop understanding of, and ensure compliance with, legal and policy requirements (Pugach & Johnson, 1995; Slater, 2004)

Limitations

The nature of a Q sort methodology results in several limitations. First, results are not reflective of a general population (Barata, 2007). For this study only items reflective of instructional, distributed, and collaborative leadership styles are used to create sort items. As a result, participant ratings of items as most to least important are relative to this limited set of items. Second, the sorting of items into a quasi-normal distribution pattern forces participants to limit the amount of items within each ranking column or category (Barata, 2007). As a result, participants who wish to create skewed distribution patterns were not able to do so. Third, participants are limited to the items within the study. Consequently, participants cannot express opinions or include items that are not part of the provided items (Bracken & Fischel, 2006; Cosman-Ross & Hiatt-Michael, 2005). Fourth, participants in the study are not randomly chosen. As such, results are representative of those participants willing to participate in the study. Further, random selection of participants would likely result in the omission of perspectives obtained in this study (Barata, 2007; Brown, 1980; Provost, Boscardin, & Wells, 2010). Fifth, perspectives are limited to only principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators. The addition of leaders such as Directors, and Superintendents may have resulted in perspectives not obtained in this study.

Strengths of this study include that it can be easily replicated across settings and participants. Also, the size of both the Q sample and the number of participants are sufficient for identifying factors and making comparisons. Further, as ready-made leadership statements representing three leadership styles are utilized, variations of the study can be conducted with combinations of two of the styles. Lastly, the methodology allows for both quantitative and qualitative data collection,

analysis and interpretation. Thus allowing for insight into the perceptions that lead to the sorting of statements.

Conclusions

Results of this study reveal leadership profiles of the Factor A and B groups that can be described as Instructional, and Multi-faceted, respectively. The Instructional leadership profile clearly reflects member perceptions that instructional leadership actions are most important. Instructional profile members perceive that their role responsibilities drive their identification of most important leadership items/action and that their primary responsibilities are to develop a set of shared beliefs and expectations, to create and communicate an organizational mission, and to influence instruction. Group members value actions in the Symbolic and Human Resources frames as specific actions aligned with these responsibilities are considered as most important. Managerial tasks and support of voluntary membership groups are perceived as least important. Members also perceive that leadership and decision-making belongs primarily to themselves as individuals.

The Multi-faceted leadership profile reflects perceptions that collaborative, instructional, and distributed leadership items/actions are most important. Similar to Instructional profile members, Multi-faceted profile members also perceive that their role responsibilities drive their identification of most important leadership items/actions and members also perceive that their primary responsibility is to influence instruction. Managerial tasks and involvement with voluntary membership groups are also perceived as least important. However, members in this profile group perceive that there is a knowledge-base fundamental to the factor member's role and efficacy, multi-actor input and decision-making enables the organization to best serve students, creation of organizational values and expectations is fundamental for organizational

success, and the members' role is to create systems that affect student outcomes. Further, members value involving others in decision-making and leadership roles.

Members of the Instructional leadership profile and Multi-faceted leadership profile differ demographically in several ways. When comparing groups, members of the Multi-faceted group may be considered more experienced while members of the Instructional group may be considered less experienced and younger. This finding supports research that identifies novice administrators as having a greater tendency to be bureaucratic, and preferring top-down leadership approach (Schmidt, Kosmoski, & Pollack, 1998) and that older business executives are more open to learning and demonstrate more inclination to work with others than younger executives. (Klein, Astrachan, & Kossek, 1996). Lastly, members of the instructional group represent the largest, lowest achieving, highest needs districts, and also the lowest performing districts on state special education compliance. This finding supports research that suggests smaller school districts with lower populations of high needs students perform better on standardized assessments (NCTAF, 1996; Roza, 2001), and that the smaller the proportion of disadvantaged students in a school, the more capable a school is to engage in effective problem-solving processes (Pallas, Natriello, and McDill, 1989). This finding also supports research in Chapter II that the instructional leader model has become the 'model of choice' for principal development (Hallinger, 2003), especially in poor urban communities (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982).

Based on study findings, a revision to the leadership domains identified as important to the work of leaders of special education is proposed. More specifically, the addition of a Development of Multi-actor Leadership domain is proposed. Attention to and functioning within the proposed domain allows for development of both distributed and collaborative leadership,

and increased development of leadership that may still be managed. As such, inclusion of this domain results in a more comprehensive understanding of leader functions that better enables leaders of special education to meet contemporary demands.

Limitations of the study include the non-random selection of participants and limited participant types and sort items. These limitations result in limited perceptions from selected leadership roles and confinement of items within a given rating structure. Strengths include the replicability of the study, its sample and item size and ability to be used to investigate perceptions of varied combinations of studied leadership styles.

Finally, this study identifies differences in demographics and perceptions of leaders of special education that align with instructional and multi-actor leadership styles. Education reform initiatives call for leaders to utilize multi-actor leadership styles to enable educators to meet the needs of all students. However, education reforms may be able to influence leaders, depending on the leader's perception of their role responsibilities, to adopt a 'lone leader' or multi-faceted leadership style. Further study is needed to better understand how perceptions of role responsibility influence leadership style so that leaders of special education can transform their leadership style from that of a 'lone leader' to a multi-actor style.

APPENDIX

INSTRUMENTATION

Q Methodology Participant Consent Form

Thank you for your consideration for participating in this study. Your participation supports the researchers work in completing his dissertation and is much appreciated. Your time and input will be used to help the researcher to better understand how components of distributed and collaborative leadership are valued by special education leaders. For this study special education leaders are defined as those administrators, principals, assistant principals, and special education administrators, within schools who can formally influence special education practice. Better understanding of special education leaders' perceptions of the value of these leadership styles can be used to both inform and improve leadership practice within schools.

What will happen during the study: For this study you are asked sort a set of distributed and collaborative leadership statements developed from the education leadership literature. You are also asked to complete pre-sort and post-sort questionnaires. Completion of these tasks should take 50-60 minutes. The post-sort portion of the session will be video and audio recorded.

Who to go to with questions: If you have any questions or concerns regarding your participation in this study, please contact the Principal Investigator listed below.

Protection of Participants Privacy: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and, should you choose to participate in this study, you agree to allow the researcher to utilize any and all information that you provide. Information that will not be utilized in this study includes: your name, the name of the school in which you work, and the name of the district in which you work. Personally identifying information utilized in the study will be replaced with code numbers. The coding key, which links individuals with code numbers, will be maintained in a secure location, and will be destroyed when the study is completed. No one other than the Principal Investigator will have access to this information.

Risks and discomforts: There are no identified inherent risks associated to participants in this study. Participants, however, may become more familiar with distributed and collaborative leadership behaviors.

Your rights: You have the right to withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. There are no incentives offered to individuals, nor consequences of any kind for individuals who participate in the study, decline to participate, or withdraw from participation.

Sincerely,
Adam Garand, CAGS, Principal Investigator
413-262-8915
agarand@ educ.umass.edu

Consent to Participate in the Leadership Study

I have had the opportunity to review information regarding the special education leadership study and my participation within the study. Further, I have had the opportunity to review the consent form, and ask questions regarding the study. My questions have been answered. I understand that my consent is required to allow my participation in the study.

*** Please keep the first two pages of this form for your records and return one copy of the signed consent and assent forms in the envelop provided.**

*** Please indicate whether you do or do not wish to participate in this project by checking your choice on this form, signing, and returning it in the envelope provided.**

❒ I agree / ❒ I do not agree (please check one) to participate in the study.

Participant's Signature _____ Date _____

Participants Printed Name _____

Q Sort Materials and Instructions

Provided Materials:
Pre-sort Questionnaire
Q Sort Grid
50 statement cards
Post-sort Questionnaire

Instructions:

1. Please complete the Pre-sort Questionnaire and return it.

2. The Sort

   You are asked to distribute the 50 statement cards provided to you into the shape of your Q Sort Grid. Cards are written to complete an 'I' statement describing an action that you may, or may not, identify as important to your work as a leader of special education. Least important statements are placed into the -5 column and most important statement are placed into the +5 column. Statements placed into the 0 column are neutral in importance. As you read through and place the cards into the pattern you may find that you wish to change card positions. You may do so until you feel that all the cards are placed according to your viewpoint. After all cards are in their final place, record the number of each card on the corresponding position within the gray area of the Q Sort Grid below. Once you have completed filling out the Q Sort Grid please complete the Post-sort Questionnaire.

3. Please complete the Post-sort Questionnaire.

Pre-Sort Questionnaire
Participant Background Information

Category	Participant Information
Age	❒ 20 – 29 ❒ 30 – 39 ❒ 40 – 49 ❒ 50 – 59 ❒ 60 – 69 ❒ 70 – 79
Ethnicity	❒ African American ❒ Asian ❒ Hispanic ❒ Native American ❒ White ❒ Native Hawaiian, Pacific Islander ❒ Multi-Race, Non-Hispanic
Gender	❒ Male ❒ Female
Current Administrative Position	❒ Principal ❒ Assistant Principal ❒ Special Education Administrator
Number of Years in Current Position	❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21
Total Number of Years of Administrative Experience	❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21
Other Academic Licenses Held and Number of Years Working Under Each License	❒ General Education Teacher ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21,❒ >21 ❒ Special Education Teacher ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21,❒ >21 ❒ Principal/Assistant Principal ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Special Education Administrator ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Superintendent/Assistant Superintendent ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21 ❒ Related Service Provider ❒ 0 to 3, ❒ 3 to 6, ❒ 6 to 9, ❒ 9 to 12, ❒ 12 to 15, ❒ 15 to 18, ❒ 18 to 21, ❒ >21

Highest Education Level Attained	❒ Master's Degree ❒ Master's Degree +30 ❒ Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS) ❒ Ed.D. or Ph.D.

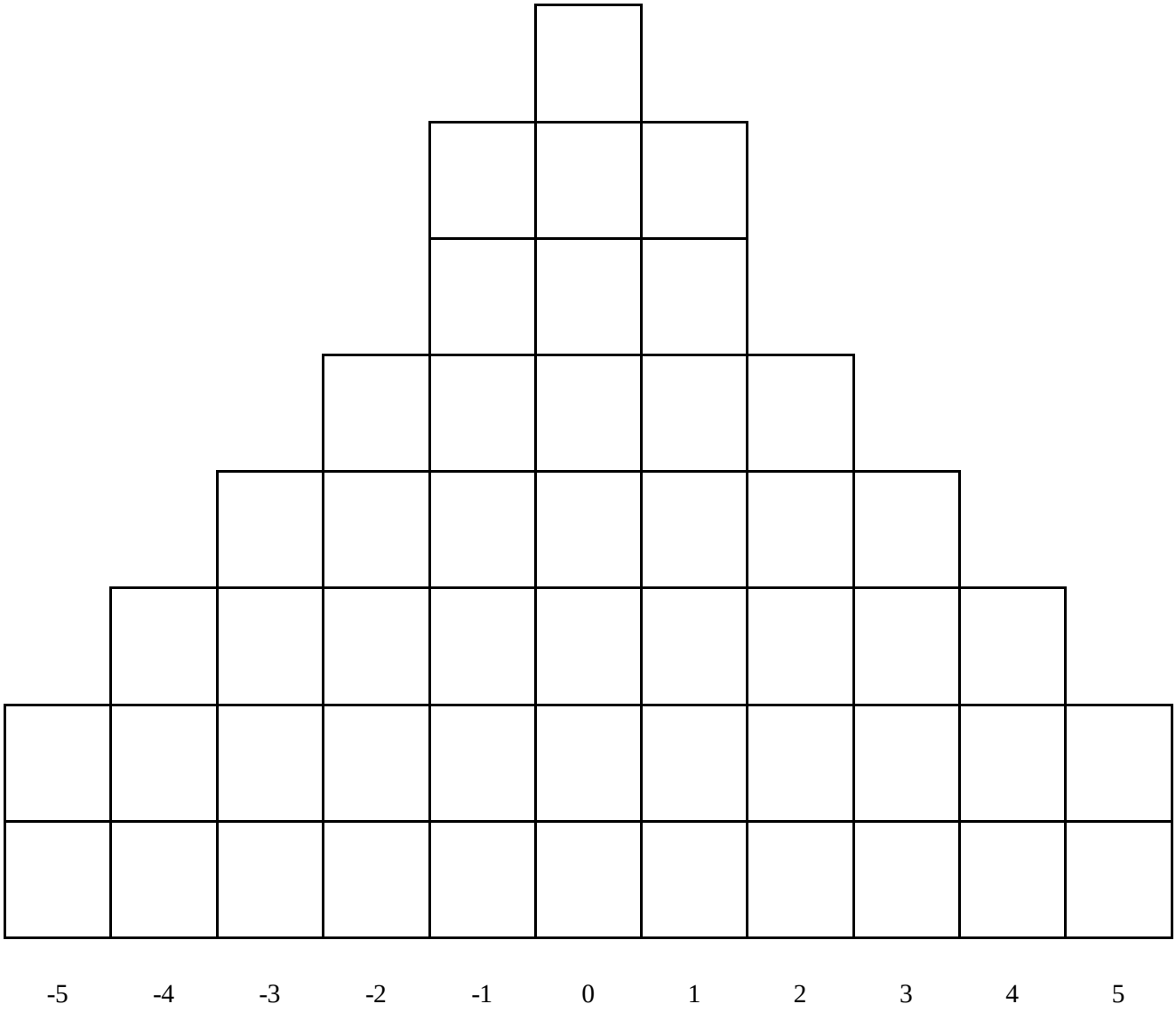


Figure 9

Q Sort Grid.

Post-Sort Questionnaire
NAME:_____

Leadership Behaviors Important to Your Work as a Special Education leader Follow-up Questionnaire

1) Briefly describe what went into your choices of statements that are "most important to my work as a leader of special education? (+5's). Please list the number of at least one statement in the +5 column and your reason(s) for placing it there.

2) Briefly describe what went into your choices of statements that are "least important to my work as a leader of special education? (-5's). Please list the number of at least statement in the -5 column and your reason(s) for placing it there.

3) Describe how you arrived at your choices for the most important statements (those in +5 column).

4) Describe how you arrived at your choices for the least important statements (those in -4 column).

5) If there were specific statements that you had difficulty placing, please list the number of the statements and describe your dilemma.

6) What other issues/thoughts emerged for you while sorting the cards?

7) What factor(s), e.g., time, resources, your own knowledge, your skills, and/or your dispositions, contributed most to the sorting through the leadership statements? Please give specific examples for each if applicable.

District Background Information

Category	District Information
District Enrollment	❒ < 1,000 ❒ 1000 ≤ 4,000 ❒ > 4,000
Total School Enrollment	❒ 0 to 1,000, ❒ 1,000 to 2,000, ❒ 2,000 to 3,000, ❒ 3,000 to 4,000 ❒ 4,000 to 5,000, ❒ 5,000 to 6,000, ❒ 6,000 to 7,000, ❒ 7,000 to 8,000 ❒ 8,000 to 9,000, ❒ 9,000 to 10,000, ❒ 10,000 to 11,000, ❒ 11,000 to 12,000, ❒ 12,000 to 13,000, ❒ 13,000 to 14,000, ❒ 14,000 to 15,000, ❒ 15,000 to 16,000, ❒ 16,000 to 17,000, ❒ 17,000 to 18,000, ❒ 18,000 to 19,000, ❒ 19,000 to 20,000, ❒ > 20,000
Percent of Students Identified as Special Education Within the School	❒ 0 to 10% ❒ 10% to 20% ❒ 20% to 30% ❒ 30% to 47%
Grades Served Within the School	❒ K, ❒ 1, ❒ 2, ❒ 3, ❒ 4, ❒ 5, ❒ 6, ❒ 7, ❒ 8, ❒ 9, ❒ 10, ❒ 11, ❒ 12
NCLB Accountability Status of the School	❒ II1/2-S: Identified for Improvement - Subgroups only (Year 1 or 2) ❒ II1/2-A: Identified for Improvement (Year 1 or 2) ❒ CA-S: Identified for Corrective Action - Subgroups only ❒ CA-A: Identified for Corrective Action ❒ RST1/2-S: Identified for Restructuring - Subgroups only (Year 1 or 2) ❒ RST1/2: Identified for Restructuring (Year 1 or 2) ❒ UR: Under Review
% of Core Academic Classes Taught by Teachers Who are Highly Qualified	❒ ≤ 90% ❒ 90% to 98% ❒ 98% to 100% ❒ 100%
Percent of Students Identified as Free or Reduced Lunch Within the School	❒ ≤ 10%, ❒ 10% to 20%, ❒ 20% to 30%, ❒ 30% to 40%, ❒ 40% to 50%, ❒ 50% to 60%, ❒ 60% to 70%, ❒ 70% to 80%, ❒ ≥ 80%
Coordinated Program Review Findings	Special Education Program Areas Receiving a Commendable Rating: Special Education Program Areas Requiring Corrective Action:

REFERENCES

Abdi, H. (2003). Factor Rotations in Factor Analyses in Lewis-Beck M., Bryman, A., Futing T. (Eds.) (2003). Encyclopedia of Social Sciences Research Methods. Thousand Oaks (CA): Sage.

Abdi, H. & Williams, L., (2010). Principal Component Analysis. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Statistics,* 2(4), 433-459.

Aitken, 1988. Stephenson's Q Methodology: A Unique Tool for Research and Instruction. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Communication Association.

Alignment of IDEA and NCLB . (2007, February 2). Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education -- Office of Special Education Programs website: http://www.ideapartnership.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1344&oseppage=1.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2002). *Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X).* Redwood City, CA: Mindgarden.

Barber, M., & Mourshed, M. (2007). *How the world's best performing systems came out on top*. London: McKinsey & Co.

Barth, R. (1990). *Improving Schools from Within.* San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990 [a]). *Bass & Stodgill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 9–32.

Bays, D., & Crockett, J. (2007). Investigating Instructional Leadership for Special Education. *Exceptionality, 15*(3), 143–161.

Bennett, N., Wise, C., & Woods, P. & Harvey, J. A. (2003), *Distributed leadership*. Summary of a literature review carried out for the National College for School Leadership (NCSL).

Billingsley, B. (2004, September/October). Promoting Teacher Quality and Retention in Special Education. *Journal of Learning Disabilities,* 37(5), 370-376.

Billingsley, Boscardin, & Lashley. (n.d.). *Expanding the Leadership Framework: An Alternate View of Professional Standards*. Unpublished.

Blanchard, H., & Johnson, S. (1985). *The one-minute manager*. Berkeley, CA: Berkeley Publishing Co.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (2003). *Reframing Leadership*. In Reframing Organizations (Third Edition ed., pp. 334-365). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Boscardin, M. L. (2004). Transforming administration to support science in the schoolhouse for students with disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 37*, 262–269.

Boscardin, M. L. (2007). What is Special about Special Education Administration? Considerations for School Leadership. *Exceptionality*, *15*(3), 189-200.

Boscardin, M., McCarthy, & E., Delgado, R. (2009, September). An Integrated Research-Based Approach to Creating Standards for Special Education Leadership. *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, 22(2).

Bridges, E. (1982). Research on the school administrator: the state-of-the-art, 1967–1980. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(3), 12–33.

Brown,(1980). Political subjectivity: Applications of Q methodology in political science. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Brown, S., 1991. AA Primer on Q Methodology,@ Operant Subjectivity, 16, 91-138.

Bryk, A., & Schneider, B. (2002). *Trust in schools.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Buysse, V., Sparkman, K., & Wesley, P. (2003). *Communities of Practice: Connecting What We Know With What We Do*. Council for Exceptional Children 69(3).

Campbell, 1995. Investigating Structures Underlying Relationships When Variables are Not the Focus: Q Technique and Other Techniques. Paper presented at that annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA, April 18-22, 1995.

Conley, D., & Goldman, P. (1994). Facilitative Leadership: How principals lead without dominating. Eugene, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council.

Connor, L.E. (1961), *Administration of special education programs*. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications.

Copeland, M. A. (Winter, 2003). Leadership of Inquiry: Building and Sustaining Capacity for School Improvement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 25(4), Special Issue on Educational Leadership, 375-395.

Crockett, J. (2002). Special Education's Role in Preparing Responsive Leaders for Inclusive Schools. *Remedial and Special Education*, 23(3), 157-168.

Crockett, J. (2004). Taking Stock of Science in the Schoolhouse: Four Ideas to Foster Effective Instruction. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 37*(3), 189-199. Retrieved from Academic Search Premier database.

Crockett, J., Becker, M., & Quinn, D. (2009, September). Reviewing the Knowledge Base of Special Education Leadership and Administration from 1970-2009. *Journal of Special Education Leadership,* 22(2).

Day, C., & Leithwood, K. (2008), *Successful School Principalship: International Perspectives,* Dordrecht, Springer.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K.D. (1999). *Shaping school culture: The heart of leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

DiPaola, M., Tschannen-Moran, M., & Walther-Thomas, C. (2004). School Principals and Special Education: Creating the Context for Academic Success. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 37*(1).

DiPaola, M., & Walther-Thomas, C. (2003, February). *Principals and Special Education: The Critical Role of School Leaders*. Prepared for the Center on Personnel Studies in Special Education and the National Clearinghouse for Professions in Special Education.

DuFour, R. & Eaker, R. (1998). *Professional learning communities at work: Best practices for enhancing student achievement.* Bloomington, IA: National Education Service.

DuFour, R. (2004). Schools as Learning Communities. *Educational Leadership,* 61(8).

Eagly, A, Johannesen-Schmidt, M., & Van Engen, M. (2003). Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles: A Meta-Analysis Comparing Women and Men Northwestern University, Psychological Bulletin, 129(4), 569–591.

Eilers, A., & Camacho, A. (2007). School Culture Change in the Making: Leadership Factors That Matter, *Urban Education*, 42(6).

Elmore, R. (2000, Winter). *Building a New Structure For School Leadership*. The Albert Shanker Institute, Retrieved December 17, 2009 from http://74.125.155.132/scholar?q=cache:h3a57GfLvAUJ:scholar.google.com/+school+leadership&hl=en&as_sdt=2000.

Emihovich, C. & Battaglia, C. (2000). Creating cultures for collaborative inquiry: new challenges for school leaders. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 3(3), 225- 238.

Fact Sheet: The Race to the Top | The White House. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/fact-sheet-race-top.

Fields, D. & Herold, D. (August 1997). Using the Leadership Practices Inventory to measure transformational and transactional leadership, Educational and Psychological Measurement, 57(4), pp. 569(11).

Finkenbinder, R. (1981*). Special Education Administration and Supervision: The State of the Art, The Journal of Special Education,* 15(4).

Finn, J.D. (1989). Withdrawing from school. *Review of Educational Research, 59*(2), 117–143.

Forgnone, C., & Collings, G. (1975). State Certification in Special Education Endorsement. *Journal of Special Education, 9*(1), Retrieved from Academic Search Premier database.

Fullan, M. (2009). Large-scale Reform Comes of Age. *Journal of Educational Change, 10*, 101-113.

Gerber, M, (1996). Reforming Special Education: 'Beyond Inclusion.' In C. Christiensen & F. Rizvi (Eds.) *Disability and the dilemmas of education and justice* (pp.156-174). Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Gezi, K., (1990). The role of leadership in inner-city schools, *Educational Research Quarterly*, 12(4), 4-11.

Hall, G., & Hord, S. (n.d.). The Literature: Leadership for Change. In D. Duke (Ed.), *SUNY series in educational leadership: Change in Schools: Facilitating the Process* (pp. 21-52). Original work published 1987) Retrieved from http://site.ebrary.com/lib/umassa/docDetail.action?docID=10022524.

Hallinger, P & Heck, R, (1996a). *The principal's role in school effectiveness: An assessment of methodological progress, 1980-1995*. In K Leithwood & P Hallinger (eds), International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration, 723-83, Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Hallinger, P & Heck, R, (1996b). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980±1995, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5-44.

Hallinger, P & Heck, R, (1998). Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness: 1980-1995, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, **9**, 157-91.

Hallinger, P., (2000). *A review of two decades of research on the principalship using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, Washington.

Hallinger, P., (2005). Instructional Leadership and the School Principal: A Passing Fancy that Refuses to Fade Away, *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4, 1–20.

Hallinger, P., (November 2003). Leading Educational Change: reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3).

Halverson, R., (2003). Systems of practice: How leaders use artifacts to create professional community in schools. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 11(37).Retrieved [10/23/2209] from http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v11n37/.

Harris, A., (2004). Distributed leadership and school improvement: leading or misleading?. *Educational, Management, Administration and Leadership,* 32(1), 11- 24.

Hord, S. (2009). Professional Learning Communities. *Journal of Staff Development* 30(1).

Hord, S. & Hirsch, S., (2008). Making the Promise a reality in A.M. Blankstein, P.D. Houston, & R.W. Cole (Eds.) *Sustaining Professional Learning Communities,* Thousand Oaks CA: Corwin Press.

Howell, J.W., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 78, 891–902.

Hoy, W., & Miskel, C. (2001). *Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Pratice* (6th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw Hill Higher Education. (Original work published 1978).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004, 20 U.S.C. § 1400 (2004), http://idea.ed.gov/explore/view/p/%2Croot%2Cstatute%2C.

Jackson, D., (2000). The school improvement journey: perspectives on leadership. *School Leadership & Management,* 20(1), 61–78.

Janson, C., Militello, M., & Kosine, N. (2007). Four views of the professional school counselor and principal relationship: A Q methodology study. Professional School Counselor.

Johnson, B., (2004). Local school micropolitical agency: An antidote to new managerialism. *School Leadership and Management,* 24, 267–286.

Judge, T. & Piccolo, R., (2004). Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Meta-Analytic Test of Their Relative Validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 89(5), 755–768.

Katsiyannis, A. (1994). *Individuals with disabilities: The school principal and Section 504*. NASSP Bulletin, *78*(565), 6–10.

Kauffman, J. M. (1999). Commentary: Today's special education and its messages for tomorrow. *The Journal of Special Education, 32,* 244–254.

Kerlinger, 1979. Behavioral Research: A Conceptual Approach. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Kerlinger, 1986. Foundations of Behavioral Research (3rd. ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Knuth, R. (November 2004). The Negative Uses of Power. *Principal Leadership,* 5(3), 44-49. Retrieved November 27, 2009, from Wilson Education Abstracts. (Document ID: 736926661).

Lambert, L. (2002). A framework for shared leadership. *Educational Leadership,* 37-40.

Lashley, C., & Boscardin, M.L. (2003). *Special Education Administration at a Crossroads: Availability, Licensure, and Preparation of Special Education Administrators.* (COPSSEE Document No 1B-8). FL: University of Florida, Center on Personnel Studies in Special Education.

leader. (n.d.). *The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fourth Edition.* Retrieved November 26, 2009, from Dictionary.com website.

leadership. (2009). In *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*. Retrieved November 22, 2009, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/LEADERSHIP.

leadership. (n.d.). *The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fourth Edition*. Retrieved November 22, 2009, from Dictionary.com website: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/leadership.

Leithwood, K. (February 1992).The Move Toward Transformational Leadership, *Educational Leadership,* 49(5), 8-12.

Leithwood, K. (October 1993). *Contributions of Transformational Leadership to School Restructuring* (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration).

Leithwood K., Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins (February 2008). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership. *School Leadership and Management, 28*(1), 27-42.

Leithwood, K., and Jantzi, D. (1999). The relative effects of principal and teacher sources of leadership on student engagement with school. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 35, 679–706.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D.(September 2005). A Review of Transformational School Leadership Research 1996-2005. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4(3), 177-199.

Leithwood, K., and Jantzi, D., (2006). Transformational school leadership for large-scale reform: Effects on students, teachers, and their classroom practices. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* 17(2), pp. 201-227.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., (August 2008*).* Linking Leadership to Student Learning: The Contributions of Leader Efficacy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44, 496 originally published online. DOI: 10.1177/0013161X08321501.

Leithwood, K. , Seashore Louis, K. , Anderson, S. , & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). How leadership influences student learning. The Wallace Foundation.

Leithwood K., & Mascall B., (2008). Collective Leadership Effects on Student Achievement. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44, 529.

Leithwood, K., Mascall, B., Strauss,T., Sacks, R., Memon, N., & Yashkina, A. (2007). *Distributing leadership to make schools smarter*. University of Toronto, OISE.

Leithwood, K., & Riehl, C. (2003). *What we know about successful school Leadership*. Philadelphia, PA: Laboratory for Student Success, Temple University.

Leithwood, K., and Riehl, C., (2005). What Do We Already Know about Educational Leadership. In W. A. Firestone & C. Riehl (Eds.), *A new agenda: Directions for research on Educational Leadership* (pp. 12-27). New York, New York: Teachers College Press.

Lezotte, L. (2001). *Revolutionary and Evolutionary: The Effective Schools Movement*. Effective Schools Products, Ltd., 2001. Okemos, Mich.

Lowe, K., Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, N., (1996). Effectiveness Correlates of Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Meta-Analytic Review of the MLQ Literature, *Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 385-425.

Lucas, S. & Valentine, J. (2002). Transformational Leadership: Principals, Leadership Teams, and School Culture. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA, April 1-5, 2002.

MacBeath, G., Oduro, K., & Waterhouse, J. (July 2004). Distributed Leadership in Action: a study of current practice in schools. Sponsored by NCSL, University of Cambridge in collaboration with the Eastern Leadership Centre.

MacGregor Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*. New York : Harper & Row.

Marks, H. & Printy, S. (2003). Principal Leadership and School Performance: An Integration of Transformational and Instructional Leadership, *Educational Administration Quarterly, 39.*

Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). School Leadership that Works: From Research to Results. Alexandria, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Mayrowetz, D. (2008). Making Sense of Distributed Leadership: Exploring the Multiple Usages of the Concept in the Field, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44.

Merriam, S. ((1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Militello, M., & Janson, C. (2008). Socially-focused, situationally-driven practice: A study of distributed leadership practices among school principals and counselors. Journal of School Leadership, 17(4), 409-441.

Mosley, J. (2010). *Perceptions of Principal Attributes in the Era of Accountability* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.

National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), (2008). *Leading Learning Communities: Standards for What Principals Should Know and Be Able To Do. Executive Summary. Second Edition*. National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP). 1615 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 (2001), http://www.ed.gov/nclb/overview/intro/4pillars.html.

O'Brien, P. (2006). *"They know who I am"- Leadership capabilities in special education*. New South Wales, Australia: Premiers Special Education Scholarship, sponsored by Anika Foundation.

Printy, S., (2008). *Leadership for Teacher Learning: A Community of Practice Perspective*, Educational Administration Quarterly (44).

Provost, Boscardin & Wells, (2009). Perceptions of Principal Leadership Behaviors in Massachusetts in the Era of Education Reform. Journal of School Leadership, 20(5), 532-60

Pugach, M., & Johnson, L. (1995). *Collaborative Practitioners, Collaborative Schools*. Love Publishing Company, Denver, CO.

Race to the Top Fund. (2010). Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education website: http://www2.ed.gov/programs/racetothetop/index.html.

Race to the Top Program Executive Summary. (2009, November). Retrieved from U.S. Department of Education website: http://www2.ed.gov/programs/racetothetop/executive-summary.pdf.

Reitzug, U & Patterson, J, (1998). I'm not going to lose you!: Empowerment through caring in an urban principal's practice with pupils. *Urban Education*, 33(2), 150-81.

Ritchie, R., & Woods, P. (2007). Degrees of distribution: towards an understanding of variations in the nature of distributed leadership in schools. *School Leadership and Management*, 27(4), 363-381.

Robinson, V., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. (2008). The Impact of Leadership on Student Outcomes: An Analysis of the Differential Effects of Leadership Types, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44, 635.

Rowe, A. J., & Mason, R. O. (1987). *Managing with style*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Scheurich, J. J., (1998). Highly successful and loving, public elementary schools populated mainly by low-SES children of color: Core beliefs and cultural characteristics. *Urban Education*, 33(4), 451-91.

PQMethod Manual. (2012, December). Retrieved August 16, 2013, from PQ Method Manual website: http://Schmolck.org/qmethod/pqmanual.htm

Sergiovanni, T. (2000). *The lifeworld of leadership: Creating culture, community, and personal meaning in our schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sigford, J. (2006). Introduction. In *The Effective School Leader's Guide to Management* (pp. 4-5). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Slater, L. (2004). Collaboration: A Framework for School Improvement, International *Electronic Journal for Leadership in Learning*, 8.

Southworth, G., (2002). Instructional Leadership in Schools: reflections and empirical evidence, *School Leadership & Management*, 22(1), 73–91.

Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J.B. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 30, 23–28.

Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2004). Towards a Theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(1), 3-34.

Spillane, J. P., (Winter 2005). Distributed Leadership, The Educational Forum. A publication of Kappa Delta Pi.

Stainton, Rogers, R. (1995). Q methodology. London: Sage

Swanson, H. L., & Deshler, D. (2003). Instructing adolescents with learning disabilities: Converting a meta-analysis to practice. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 36, 124–135.

Thurlow, M., & Thompson, S. (1999, November). District and State Standards and Assessments, Building an Inclusive Accountability System. *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, 12(2).

Timperley, H., (2005). Distributed leadership: Developing theory from practice. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 37*(4), 395-420.

Van Exel NJA, Gjalt de Graaf. Q methodology: A sneak preview. 2005 [available from www.jobvanexel.nl]

Walther-Thomas, C., & DiPaola, M. F. (2003). What instructional leaders need to know about special education. In W. Owings & L. Kaplan, *Best practices, best thinking, and emerging issues in school leadership*, 125-136.

Waters, T., Marzano, R., & McNulty, B. (2003). *Balanced Leadership: What 30 Years of Research Tells Us About the Effect of Leadership on Student Achievement*. Denver, Mid-continent research for Education and Learning.

Webb, K. (2007). Motivating Peak Performance: Leadership Behaviors that Stimulate Employee Motivation and Performance. *Christian Higher Education*, 6, 53–71.

Wenger, E., (June 1998). *Communities of Practice, Learning as a Social System*. Published in the "Systems Thinker".

Wheeler, D., & LaRocco, D. (2009, September). Special Education Administrators: Who and What Helps Buffer Job-Related Stress?, *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, 22(2).

Williams, J. P. (2000). Foreword. In R. Gersten, E. P. Schiller, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), *Contemporary special education research: Syntheses of the knowledge base on critical instructional issues* (pp. vii–viii). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Williams, R. (2006). Leadership for School Reform: Do Principal Decision-Making Styles Reflect a Collaborative Approach. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 53.

Wood, Tataryn, and Gorsuch (1996, *Psychological Methods, 1*, 354-365)

Yell, M. L. (2006). *The Law and Special Education* (Second ed., pp. 69-74). Upper Saddle River, NJ & Columbus, OH: Pearson.

Ylimaki, Rose M. (2007). Instructional Leadership in Challenging US Schools, ISEA, 35(3).

Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in Organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zigmond, N. (1997). Educating students with disabilities: The future of special education. In J.W. Lloyd, E.J. Kameenui, & D. Chard (Eds.), *Issues in educating students with disabilities* (pp.377-390). Mawah, NJ: Erlbaum.