THE RESEARCH BASE

SUPPORTING THE
ELCC STANDARDS

GROUNDING LEADERSHIP PREPARATION
& THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
CONSTITUENT COUNCIL STANDARDS IN
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Michelle D. Young & Hanne Mawhinney, Editors
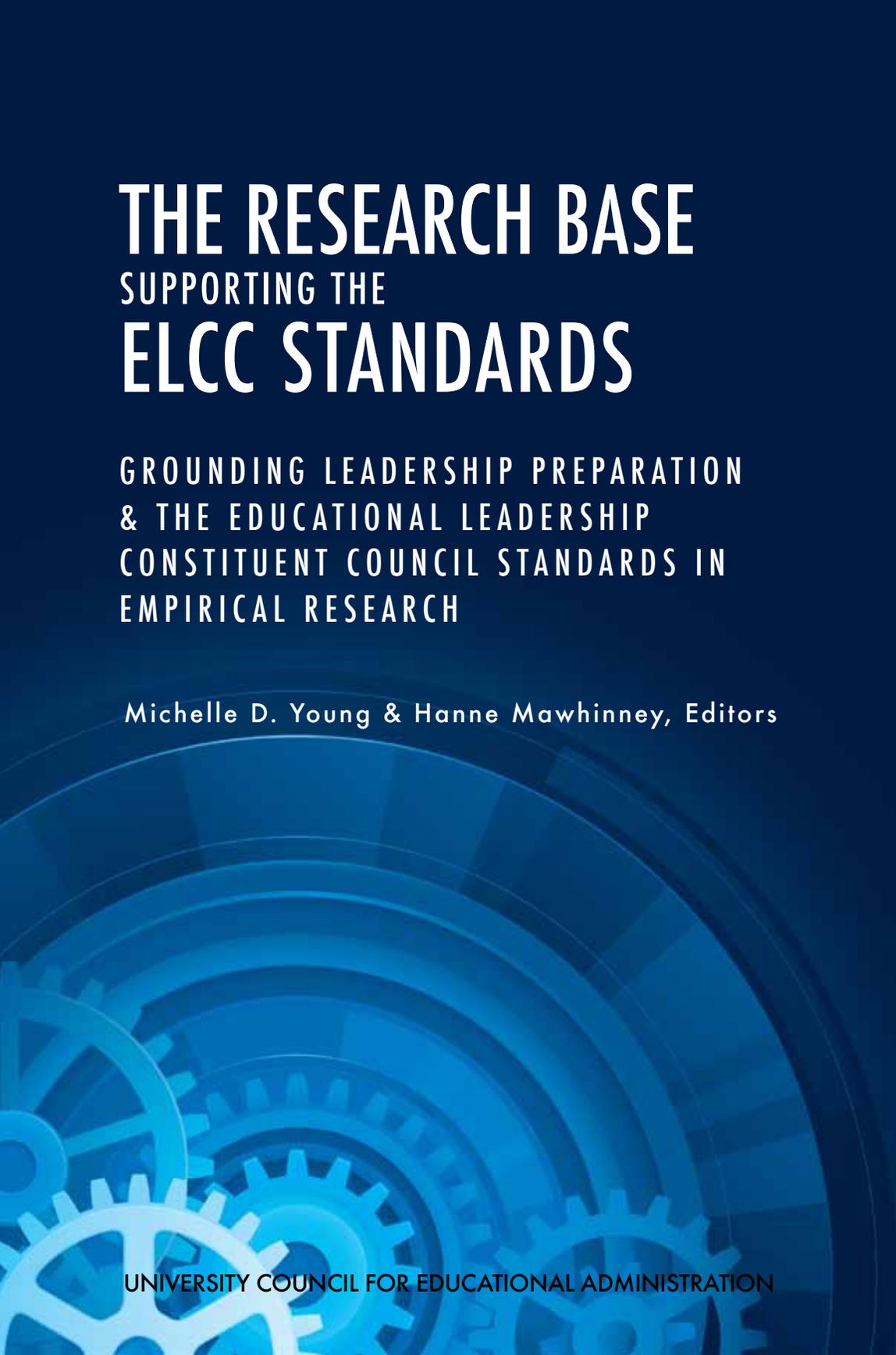
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C o n t e n t s

INTRODUCTION

An important foundation for the knowledge base for the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) 2011 Standards for School Building and District Leadership is the evidence from the empirical, scholarly, craft, and expert studies; literature reviews; reports; and commentaries that informed the formation of the 2008 Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Educational Leadership Policy Standards. That research base highlighted the importance of knowledge of each of the domains of the ELCC standards (ISLLC, 2008). The development of the 2008 ISLLC Educational Leadership Policy Standards, updating the 1996 ISLLC standards, was informed by a body of empirical research and scholarship documenting the fact that "dramatic changes [that] have put education leadership at the forefront of education policy research and debate" (ISLLC, 2008, p. 3). The panel of scholars and experts in educational administration created by the National Policy Board on Educational Administration to support the development of the 2008 ISLLC standards identified a research base composed of "empirical research reports as well as policy analyses, leadership texts, and other resources considered to be 'craft knowledge' and 'sources of authority' in the field" (ISLLC, 2008, p. 7). The majority of this research did not exist when the original standards were published as ISLLC 1996, and neither did the international interest in

standards-based leadership preparation, as the current Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development international activity, Improving School Leadership, has affirmed (Huber, 2004).

The importance of the 2008 ISLLC standard revision efforts was confirmed in two important research reports. A 2006 report for the Wallace Foundation (as cited in ISLLC, 2008) entitled *Leadership for Learning: Making Connections Among State, District and School Policies and Practices* confirmed that among the standards are the core system elements that determine the quality of school leadership. A similar conclusion was reached in the 2007 report by Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, and Orr, which provided empirical evidence confirming the importance of the standard revision efforts. Darling-Hammond et al. found that among the features shared by exemplary pre- and in-service development programs for principals was "a comprehensive and coherent curriculum aligned to state and professional standards, in particular the NCATE/ Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards, which emphasize instructional leadership" (as cited in ISLLC, 2008, p. 10). The ISLLC 2008 developers also found persuasive support for the importance of standard revision efforts in the Wallace Foundation's 2006 report, *Leadership for Learning*, which concluded that "standards that spell out clear expectations about what leaders need to know and to do to improve instruction and learning and that form the basis for holding them accountable for results" are critically important to the development of strong leadership (as cited in ISLLC, 2008, p. 10). Other reviews and analyses provided similar research support for the importance of education leadership standards (Hoyle, 2005a, 2005b). An international review of the literature on standards, leadership theory, and research found that a key challenge in leader preparation is linking standards to practice (Ingvarson, Anderson, Gronn, & Jackson, 2006). Efforts to address this challenge are documented in descriptions of practices that clarify leadership standards (West Ed, 2003).

Some reviews considered in developing the ISLLC 2008 standards explicitly set out to explore commonalities among standards for education leaders. For example, Hoyle, English, and Steffy (1998) found commonalities among standards created by the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), the National Policy Board for Educational Administration, the ISLLC, and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. An important contribution was a crosswalk completed in 2005 for the Education Commission of the States of the different leadership standards developed by five different groups: the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the ELCC, the Southern Regional Education Board, and the Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning. The crosswalk found that all the standards generally fit within several categories of what a highly qualified leader would excel at. The categories included developing and articulating a vision; strategic decision-making and implementation; creating a culture of learning; using

data effectively; understanding curriculum and instruction; engaging all members of the staff; understanding effective management; providing high-quality professional growth opportunities to staff; and communicating effectively and honestly with staff, students, and community members (Anthes, 2005).

The development of the 2008 ISLLC standards was informed by the Wallace Foundation (2007a) report, *A Bridge to School Reform*. The report identified research showing there is a crucial connection between school leadership and the success and achievement of every student. Other reviews of research confirmed the importance this connection (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; J. Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porter, 2007; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Identification by ISLCC 2008 developers of key domains of knowledge required of leaders seeking to impact student learning and achievement was also informed by an extensive review of research conducted in 2004 by Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom, who reported that there was evidence of direct and indirect leadership effects on student learning, and that one way this occurred was when educational leaders set directions by focusing faculty attention on goals and infusing relevant organizational culture with a sense of purpose. The Leithwood et al. (2004) review of research also led the ISLLC developers to conclude that there was "substantial support that effective education leaders can enhance teachers' performance by providing targeted support, modeling best practice, and offering intellectual stimulation" (ISLLC, 2008, p. 9). Analysis of these reviews led ISLLC 2008 developers to formulate grounding assumption that education leaders must have deep knowledge of how their work influences the success of *every* student, an important shift from the focus of the ISLLC 1996 standards on promoting the success of *all* students, to emphasizing *each* student *and all* students.

The commentaries in this document include more recent evidence from empirical, scholarly, craft, and expert studies and literature reviews of the knowledge base for each of the 2011 ELCC Standards for School Building and School Leadership. The commentaries were developed in an effort to provide guidance in specifying the knowledge and skills associated with best practice in school building and district leadership. They are intended to support programmatic efforts to ensure that candidates to gain knowledge of best practice as a specific approach method or procedure derived from research and/or professional consensus. The commentaries are grounded in an understanding that much of school administrative knowledge is built on the "development of skills built up through practice" and "involve[s] an...element of critical judgment as opposed to routinized competencies" (Blumberg, 1989, p. 28). As such, the commentaries highlight research informing craft knowledge that is derived from a foundation of "doing" school administration. It is knowledge gained from application and systematic practice.

Commentaries and Research Support

Building-level standards are meant to be used for advanced programs at the master, specialist, or doctoral level that prepare assistant principals, principals, teacher leaders, curriculum directors, and/or other programs that prepare educational leaders for a school building environment.

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 1

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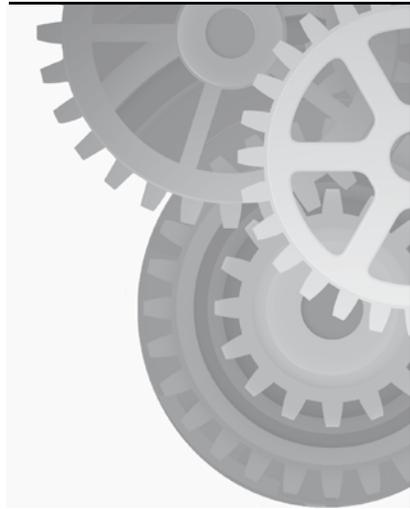
ELCC Building-Level Standard 1.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by collaboratively facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a shared school vision of learning through the collection and use of data to identify school goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and implement school plans to achieve school goals; promotion of continual and sustainable school improvement; and evaluation of school progress and revision of school plans supported by school-based stakeholders.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 1.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 1 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of how to promote the success of students by understanding principles for the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a school vision of learning. Stewardship is a concept of leadership as a servant-leader advanced by Robert Greenleaf (as cited in Frick, 2004), who believed that the best way to lead was by serving. Stewardship involves using foresight, employing power ethically, seeking consensus in group decisions where possible, and envisioning leadership as employing persuasion and building relationships based on trust (Frick, 2004). Education leaders seeking to develop a school vision of learning are aware that a school culture supporting this vision is constructed of a set of "behavioral norms that exemplify the best that a school stands for. It means building an institution in which people believe strongly, with which they identify personally, and to which they gladly render their loyalty" (Razik & Swanson, 2010, p. 123). Education leaders recognize that schools do not have a culture, they *are a culture* "constructed through aesthetic means

and taking aesthetic form" (Samier, 2011, p. 277). The culture of a school consists of thought; language; the use of symbols and images; and such other aspects as visions, missions, logos, trophies, rituals, legends, and important celebrations and ceremonies.

To construct a school culture requires knowledge of the importance of shared school vision, mission, and goals for student success that is documented in the effective schools literature (Clark, Lotto, & Astuto, 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rosenholtz, 1985; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979), and subsequently in the school improvement literature (Chrispeels, 1992; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Kurland, Peretz, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999a, 1999b; J. Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porter, 2007; Powell, Higgins, Aram, & Freed, 2009; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins, Mulford, & Zarins, 2002; Tillman, 2004). A school vision is a public statement that contains four elements: (a) is anchored in a future condition or state; (b) identifies a clear set of conditions that pertain; (c) is devoid of means, methods and "how-tos" but is focused on tangible results; and (d) projects hope, energy, and destination (Kaufman, Herman, & Watters, 1996). The mission of a school is a general statement of the purpose of a school, which usually indicates a desired condition or destination towards which the school or personnel in the school strive to realize or attain through their collective and individualized actions. When vision, mission, and goals are widely shared, student achievement usually increases (Chrispeels, 1992; Harris, 2002; Printy & Marks, 2006; Rutter et al., 1979). This requires conditions of organizational transparency. The concept means that one can "see through" the actions, beliefs, values, and motivations of leaders. It implies being open and forthright about who is proposing what, for what purposes, and to what end. It means that leaders have no hidden agendas and that it is clear in their actions who benefits and who does not from change. Furthermore, it means that school leaders take actions to make sure meetings are open, agendas are announced in advance, participation is invited, and comments and recommendations from all are seriously considered.

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 1 was recognized in the reviews of scholarship informing the development of the ISLLC 2008 standards highlighting the importance of knowledge "facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders" (J. Murphy, 1990). Formation of the ISLLC 2008 Policy Standards also was based on consideration of the importance of knowledge of the theoretical foundations for leadership practice (for example, Blanchard, 2007; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999). Some reviews of scholarship highlighted the importance of knowledge of how to collaboratively develop and implement a shared vision and mission (Clark et al., 1984). The importance of knowledge about how to use evidence and data in decision making was highlighted in reports informing the formation of the ISLLC 2008 Standards (Creighton, 2007; Knapp, Copland, Plecki, & Portin, 2006; Van Houten, 2003). Other reports confirmed the importance of knowledge of creating and

implementing plans to achieve goals of developing quality programs (Clark et al., 1984). Education leaders know that "quality begins with intent" (Deming, 1986, p. 5) and "must be built in at the design stage" (p. 49). A quality program is a well-designed plan to attain ambitious but realistic goals for a school that are pursued in a timely, prudent, and concerted effort over a sustained period of time resulting in the realization of those goals.

ELCC Building-Level 1.1. Candidates understand and can collaboratively develop, articulate, implement, and steward a shared vision of learning for a school.

Commentary and Research Support. The importance of shared school vision, mission, and goals for student success is well documented in the effective schools literature (Clark et al., 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rosenholtz, 1985; Rutter et al., 1979) and subsequently in the school improvement literature (Chrispeels, 1992; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Kurland et al., 2010; Lambert, 1998; Leithwood et al., 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999a, 1999b; J. Murphy et al., 2007; Powell et al., 2009; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins et al., 2002; Tillman, 2004). When vision, mission, and goals are widely shared, student achievement is most likely to increase (Chrispeels, 1992; Harris, 2002; Printy & Marks, 2006; Rutter et al., 1979).

Vision and mission statements vary. Some include a social as well as an academic focus (Chrispeels, 1992; Lightfoot, 1986; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins et al., 2002); some refer to student learning as well as or instead of achievement test scores (Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007; Harris, 2002; Marks & Printy, 2003). Trust extended to students (Printy & Marks, 2006; Rutter et al., 1979; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins & Mulford, 2004; Silins et al., 2002) and to teachers (Harris, 2002; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins et al., 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2009) is reported to be important in moving toward ideals captured in vision and mission statements. Use of various techniques for involving stakeholders in the visioning process has been explored in the research (Chrispeels, 1992; Chance, Copeland, Farris, & Allen, 1994; Short & Greer, 1997). Developing a shared vision and mission requires consensus-building strategies with teachers in particular, but also with other school-based personnel and external stakeholders (Chance et al., 1994; Marks & Printy, 2003; McPike, 1987; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Short & Greer, 1997; Silins & Mulford, 2004; Silins et al., 2002). Sustaining commitment to the vision and mission is enhanced when principals and others communicate them often and sometimes strategically (Short & Greer, 1997) to the appropriate constituencies (Silins & Mulford, 2004; Silins et al., 2002).

Schools are attended by students whose families come from a variety of Western and non-Western cultures. Culture is one of many types of diversity. Diversity also includes socioeconomic status, race and ethnicity, language differences, and various learning styles. Responding positively to diversity and proactively to students' learning needs enables schools to improve student learning and achievement (Casner-Lotto, 1988;

Clark et al., 1984; Delpit, 1992; Gerstl-Pepin, 2006; Kohl, 2007; Rutter et al., 1979; Stedman, 1985; Tillman, 2004). Embracing diversity subsumes understanding schools as interactive social and cultural systems and necessitates cultural competence for school leaders (Aspiazu, Bauer, & Spillett, 1998; Bustamante, Nelson, & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2005). Several studies have noted that establishing a school culture that applauds diversity entails creating a caring community (Gerstl-Pepin, 2006; Harris, 2002; Lightfoot, 1986; J. Murphy, 2005; Silins & Mulford, 2004; Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

ELCC Building-Level 1.2. Candidates understand and can collect and use data to identify school goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and implement plans to achieve school goals.

Commentary and Research Support. Data-driven decision making has become a staple in education and educational leadership (Bowers, 2009; Knapp, Copland, & Swinnerton, 2007; Luo, 2008; Moss & Piety, 2007). The importance of collecting and using relevant evidence on which to base decisions that impact student learning has been documented in the effective schools and school improvement research (Chrispeels, 1992; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Kurland et al., 2010; Purkey & Smith, 1983). Evidence must come from multiple sources if it is to be useful for decision making with respect to identifying goals, assessing organizational effectiveness, creating and implementing plans to achieve goals, and promoting organizational learning. Such sources should include standardized test results (Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007; Moss & Piety, 2007); grades from classroom assessments (Bowers, 2009; Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007; Guskey, 2007); observations of teaching (Halverson, Grigg, Prichett, & Thomas, 2005; Moss & Piety, 2007); critical examination by teachers of their practice (Silins et al., 2002); video, instructional artifacts, and student work samples (Moss & Piety, 2007); diagnostic assessments (Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007); survey results (Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007; Halverson et al., 2005); and performances and portfolios (Firestone & Gonzáles, 2007; Guskey, 2007).

School improvement is dependent on organizational learning and necessarily involves collaborative, sustained effort (Cardano, 2002). To reap results, this effort must be informed by evidence (Kurland et al., 2010; Silins et al., 2002). Organizational learning depends on a culture of trust in which problems can be discussed openly and effective solutions can be shared with and accepted by others (D. L. Taylor, 2009). A natural feedback loop is created by organizational learning practices as problems are identified, data are collected, solutions are implemented and evaluated through action research, and the results are disseminated (D. L. Taylor, 2009).

ELCC Building-Level 1.3. Candidates understand and can promote continual and sustainable school improvement.

Commentary and Research Support. The 20th-century history of school reform is checkered. Most reforms failed to bring about substantial change, and most withered, notwithstanding a brief period of initial success (Tharp, 2008). Some of the failure occurred because professional development needed for implementation success was lacking (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1990). The nature of professional development changed in the last part of the last century. Research on both adult learning (Knowles, 1984; Mezirow, 1991) and the effectiveness of staff development contributed to the development of standards that are now available to guide providers in use of effective practices (see the National Staff Development Council website: www.nsdc.org). As a result, professional development has become a vital element of school improvement and sustained change (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Lambert, 1998).

A comprehensive, coherently scaffolded program of professional development that offers quality learning experiences is a building block of successful improvement efforts (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Harris, 2002; Fullan & Pomfret, as cited in Levine & Stark, 1981; Purkey & Smith, 1983). Professional development takes many forms, including the collaborative work of professional learning communities within schools (Hall & Hord, 2006), networking with communities external to the school (Spillane & Thompson, 1997), and similar structures, each of which focuses on improving pedagogy and thereby student learning. These heretofore nontraditional forms of professional development have gained stature, again due in part to effective schools research (Casner-Lotto, 1988; Clark et al., 1984; Levine & Stark, 1981; Little, 1982; Maeroff, 1988; L. Miller, 1988; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Sickler, 1988; Wimpelberg, Teddlie, & Stringfield, 1989; Witte & Walsh, 1990).

Effective schools research explicitly described building teachers' capacity in the context of improved instruction and implicitly described building teachers' leadership capacity. As teacher leadership became a topic of research interest in the 1990s, more researchers (Harris, 2002; Muijs & Harris, 2006; Lambert, 1998, 2003; Printy & Marks, 2006; Silins & Mulford, 2004) examined it as a variable contributing to school improvement and organizational learning. Building teacher leadership capacity is foundational to sustained improvement. Noted in the improvement literature (Lambert, 1998; McLaughlin & March, 1990) is the vulnerability of seemingly successful change efforts to the loss of a few key personnel, especially a supportive principal. Where improvement efforts have become institutionalized and teachers' leadership capacity has been built, reforms are more likely to survive the loss of key individuals (Davidson & Taylor, 1999; Lambert, 1998). As noted, professional development is essential to successful school change. Models of change processes abound (see Kidron & Darwin, 2007, for a review), many substantiated by research. Although the model selected should be consistent with the vision

and mission established for the school, successful change is less dependent on which model is used than it is on the commitment of the principal and teachers to change and the provision of professional development related to the model (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1990). Sustaining the school vision, mission, and improvement efforts is dependent on people as the critical resource (J. Murphy et al., 2007). School leaders who manage human capital well contribute substantially to the success of improvement efforts (Clark et al., 1984; Stedman, 1985).

ELCC Building-Level 1.4. Candidates understand and can evaluate school progress and revise school plans supported by school stakeholders.

Commentary and Research Support. Much is presented above about using data to monitor and evaluate school improvement and its implementation. Multiple sources and types of data allow for a more comprehensive understanding of the effects, strengths, and weaknesses of improvement plans. Periodic formative evaluations are needed to monitor and revise improvement plans to maintain congruence with the vision and mission (Levine & Stark, 1981). To be useful, a culture of trust should be established and the evaluative data used collaboratively and supportively rather than punitively (Fullan, Miles, & Taylor, as cited in Levine & Stark, 1981).

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 2

Margaret Terry Orr
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ELCC Building-Level Standard 2.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning through collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students; creating and evaluating a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular and instructional school program; developing and supervising the instructional and leadership capacity of school staff; and promoting the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning within a school environment.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 2.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 2 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of principles for advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional programs conducive to student learning and staff professional growth. This includes knowledge of the elements of school culture and ways it can be influenced to ensure student success and human development theories, proven learning and motivational theories, and knowledge of how diversity influences the learning process (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, La Pointe, & Orr, 2009; Leithwood, Jantzi, Coffin, & Wilson, 1996). It also includes knowledge of effective leadership practices, including those characterized as instructional leadership, transformational leadership or leading learning, and knowledge of models of change processes (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Heck & Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008; Waters et al., 2003). Transformational leaders are interested in empowering others to transcend organizational constraints and imagine a different future. In contrast, transactional leaders work within system boundaries and

stay within the organized hierarchies of subordination designated within the school or school system.

Standard 2 is informed by research highlighting the importance of knowledge of how to develop motivating student learning environments (Cotton & Savard, 1980; P. K. Murphy & Alexander, 2006). Infusing technology into leadership practices has become a recognized domain of practical knowledge essential to effective instructional leadership (Brooks-Young, 2002, 2004). Standard 2 is also informed by research underscoring the importance of knowledge of curriculum planning. This requires that education leaders be familiar with theories of curriculum. Curriculum theories are narratives that attempt to answer the age-old question, "Which knowledge is of most worth?" According to Wraga (2006), there are three broad types of curriculum theories: (a) philosophical-prescriptive, (b) professional-instrumental, and (c) exegetic-academic. The philosophical-prescriptive approach seeks to determine the most important knowledge by denoting the nature of educational purposes. The most obvious example is the traditional-academic curriculum as described by Mortimer Adler. In the second type of curriculum theory, the approach is to focus on the processes or methods to make decisions about curriculum. The most famous example is that created by Ralph Tyler. The exegetic-academic approach is not aimed at improving curriculum practice but rather is a way of thinking about academic texts or theoretical lenses in viewing curriculum. Education leaders draw from curriculum theories to develop a rigorous and coherent curriculum. They recognize that a curriculum, as an expression of ordered content, should be constructed or developed following an explicit design rather than simply throwing disparate elements together and hoping they fit somehow at the end. It means curriculum construction with forethought to obtain well-considered outcomes where the whole is greater than the parts and not simply the parts clumped together. Education leaders support the expectation that the curriculum will contain the highest or most difficult elements to consider or to acquire in learning by all students.

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 2 was recognized in the empirical evidence, craft knowledge, and theoretical writings that supported the development of ISLLC Standard 2: "promoting the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (ISLLC, 2008, p. 18). Classic theories of motivation (Bandura, 1986; Herzberg, Mauser, & Snyderman, 1959/2004; Maslow, 1954; McClelland, 1961; Vroom, 1964; Weiner, 1986), social control (Glasser, 1986), and goals (Ames, 1992) are foundational sources of knowledge for education leaders seeking to nurture a culture of trust and to motivate faculty and students. There are three levels of educational trust, according to Schmidt (2010). The first level of trust is *predictability*, where individuals can rely on established and predictable behavior. The second level of trust is related to individuals such as leaders who are perceived as being *trustworthy* when they exhibit predictable behavior and are responsive to the needs of staff, parents, and stakeholders. The third level of trust

is *faith*, which consists of emotional security where there is the expectation that leaders and institutions will keep their promises.

Theories of human development (Armstrong, 2007) and evidence found in case studies of how improvements in teaching and learning can be achieved (Schmoker, 2006) confirm that both are essential to effective school leadership. A review of literature by J. Murphy et al. (2007) on learning-centered leadership concluded that instructionally focused leadership paired with leadership processes are required for high-performing schools. Earlier reviews found strong evidence that knowledge of leadership approaches to developing school culture and climate is critically important (C. S. Anderson, 1982). Climate has been compared to the personality of an individual or how a school "feels" when it is experienced holistically. The differing types of climate were "invented" as opposed to "discovered" (Halpin, 1966, pp. 131, 138). More recently Conley (2006) defined climate as "the conditions and shared perceptions of organizational variables thought to affect organizational functioning, such as teacher morale and principal leadership style" (p. 153). Evidence of the importance of applied knowledge of how to create a culture of trust, learning, and high expectations was found in scholarship on the impact that leaders have on building learning communities (Boyd & Hord, 1994). Knowledge of the nature and practices of distributive leadership was identified as essential in a number of scholarly works (Bennett, Wise, Woods, & Harvey, 2003; Seashore Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom & Anderson, 2010). Education leaders strive to create a culture of continuous improvement, recognizing that the quest for improvement should not end with any particular state of accomplishment, but rather involves continuing efforts to attain new or higher levels of attainment with renewed effort.

ELCC Building-Level 2.1. Candidates understand and can sustain a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning through collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students.

Commentary and Research Support. This element stresses the role of school leaders in developing an effective school culture. Candidates should have knowledge of the elements of school culture and ways it can be influenced to ensure student success and human development theories, proven learning and motivational theories, and knowledge of how diversity influences the learning process (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Leithwood et al., 1996). This dimension of leadership has been widely researched over the past 30 years through case study and survey research. An extensive body of research beginning with early effective schools research (Edmonds, 1979) continuing with the most recent, large-scale, multischool research study (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Seashore Louis et al., 2010; Wahlstrom & Seashore Louis, 2008), sought to capture the leader actions that contribute most to a culture that positively influences student learning. Much of the research focused either specifically on culture influencing actions or on those actions among other effective leadership practices. Research has described the

importance of leaders setting high expectations (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999a, 1999b; Leithwood et al., 2004; Marzano et al., 2005) and creating a culture of collaboration and trust among staff and the larger community (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002; Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990; Podsokoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Silins et al., 2002; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Various terms have been used to signify school or organizational culture, including fostering *organizational health* (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) and creating a *culture of care* (Hayes, Christie, Mills, & Lingard, 2004). Findings reported in various reviews of research and large-scale multivariate analyses confirmed that leaders strongly influence student learning by creating and sustaining a culture that sets high expectations and enables teachers and students to learn and work productively. A few studies have tried to differentiate leader practices by comparing similarly challenged schools that have different student outcomes (Brown, Anfara, & Roney, 2004; Watts et al., 2006). Results of these studies similarly underscored the leaders' influence on building a supportive culture around high expectations.

ELCC Building-Level 2.2. Candidates understand and can create and evaluate a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular and instructional school program.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the development of quality curriculum, including (a) using principles and theories of learning, (b) using appropriate instructional techniques, (c) monitoring and evaluating instruction, (d) using data and technology to improve instruction, and (d) allocating resources (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Torrence, 2002; Waters et al., 2003; Weber, 2006); multiple methods of evaluation, accountability systems, data collection, and analysis of data; and program evaluation (B. G. Smith, 1999; Waters et al., 2003). Candidates are able to design comprehensive curriculum development plans; analyze instructional lessons; collaborate with faculty to plan, implement, and evaluate a coordinated and articulated curriculum (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Robinson et al., 2008); use technology to design, monitor, and/or evaluate instructional programs (Waters et al., 2003; Weber, 2006); use standards-based accountability data to improve the quality of teaching and learning; provide feedback using data, assessments, and evaluation methods to improve practice and student achievement (Torrence, 2002); design evaluation systems, make plans based on assessment data, and provide feedback based on data; design, develop, and utilize school assessments for instruction and reporting; interpret information and communicate progress toward vision and goals for educators, the school community, and other stakeholders; use disaggregated data to improve instructional programs (Waters et al., 2003); use effective technology and performance management systems where appropriate to improve classroom instruction; and use technology to monitor, analyze, and evaluate assessment results for accountability reporting and to guide continuous school improvement (Robinson et al., 2008; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001; Waters et al., 2003).

This element combines two primary knowledge and skill areas: knowledge of curriculum and instruction and capacity to work with teachers to improve these, and capacity to use data to evaluate to inform how to improve these. Many of the measures of leadership practices combine these under a more general rubric of focus on instruction or instructional leadership (Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2008; Supovitz, Siridides, & May, 2010; Waters et al., 2003). For example, in an effort to unpack effective leadership practices, Robinson et al. (2008) undertook a meta-analysis of leadership dimensions across 27 studies and found a moderate impact (80 indictors across nine studies) from leadership practices of planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum on student achievement. Waters et al. (2003) identified the correlations in their meta-analyses, finding modest association with measures on knowledge of, participation in, and practice of monitoring and evaluation curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

ELCC Building-Level 2.3. Candidates understand and can develop and supervise the instructional and leadership capacity of school staff.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of supervision strategies that ensure teachers are demonstrating research-based professional practices; individual professional development plans and continuous progress; principles of quality professional development; effective instructional techniques; evaluation of professional development; and systems that promote efficient practices in the management of people, processes, and resources (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Candidates are able to provide feedback to improve teaching and learning (Wildy & Dimmock, 1993); work collaboratively at the building level to improve practice for teaching and learning (Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007); monitor individual professional development and continuous improvement; participate in activities that apply principles of effective instruction to improve instructional practices and curricular materials; design building-level professional growth plans that reflect national professional development standards; use a variety of approaches to improve staff performance (Youngs, 2007; Youngs & King, 2002); and provide and monitor the use of differentiated strategies, materials, and technologies to maximize instructional time (Leithwood et al., 2004; Marzano et al., 2005).

This element combines the development of individual capacity with collective organizational capacity to improve instruction. Whereas the element frames this in terms of time on instruction, the descriptors of practice focus more broadly on effective instructional practices that have been shown to have moderate to strong meditating effects on student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2008; Waters et al., 2003).

ELCC Building-Level 2.4. Candidates understand and can promote the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning in a school environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about technology as pedagogical and administrative tools (Reale-Foley, 2003; Weber, 2006). Candidates are able to support initiatives that utilize technologies for improved teaching and student achievement and use technology for school improvement (R. E. Anderson & Dexter, 2005; L. Flanagan & Jacobson, 2003; Halverson et al., 2005; Isabelle & Lapointe, 2003; Weber, 2006).

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 3

Diana Pounder
University of Central Arkansas
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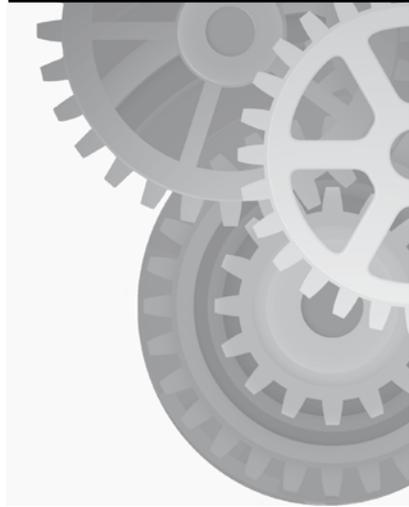
ELCC Building-Level Standard 3.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by ensuring the management of the school organization, operation, and resources through monitoring and evaluating the school management and operational systems; efficiently using human, fiscal, and technological resources in a school environment; promoting and protecting the welfare and safety of school students and staff; developing school capacity for distributed leadership; and ensuring that teacher and organizational time is focused to support high-quality instruction and student learning.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 3.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 3 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of best practices regarding management of a school organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment. This includes knowledge of effective practices of management and leadership that are associated with improved school conditions and subsequent school outcomes (Earthman & Lemasters, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005; Marzano et al., 2005; J. Murphy et al. 2007; Portin, Alejano, Knapp, & Marzolf, 2006; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). School outcomes are the results that accrue from decisions or actions from those responsible for leading a school. The results can be expressed in terms of student learning measures (achievement test scores) or student categorizations such as dropouts, promotions, and graduation rates.

Standard 3 was informed by research confirming the importance of knowledge of human resource issues, including educator work redesign (e.g., Conley, Fauske, & Pounder, 2004; Crow & Pounder, 2000; Gerber, Finn, Achilles, & Boyd-Zaharias, 2001; Pounder, 1998, 1999); educator recruitment and selection (Pounder, 1989; Pounder, Galvin, & Shepard, 2003; Pounder, King, Hausman, & Bowles, 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001); educator induction, mentoring, and professional development (Crow & Matthews, 1998); educator appraisal, supervision, and evaluation (Stronge & Tucker, 2003; P. D. Tucker & Stronge, 2005); and educator compensation (Odden & Kelley, 2002; Pounder, 1988). The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 3 was recognized in research informing the formation of the ISLLC 2008 standards, which also found knowledge of the nature of distributed leadership to be essential (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002). More recently Seashore Louis et al. (2010) found that distribution of leadership to include teachers, parents, and district staff is needed in order to improve student achievement. Distributive leadership is based on the idea that there is a social distribution of tasks associated with leadership in a school, specifically that leadership tasks are spread over a group of people in schools beyond the singular administrator in charge. Distributed leadership approaches neither remove the need for an effective singular leader nor necessarily reduce the work of the leader. Although there are many similarities with democratic leadership, distributed leadership is different from democratic leadership as it accepts power differentials in roles within the schools even as leadership tasks are dispersed (Woods, 2005).

ELCC Building-Level 3.1. Candidates understand and can monitor and evaluate school management and operational systems.

Commentary and Research Support. Much of the early research in the field of educational administration (1960s and 1970s) focused on management functions and operational systems of schools and other educational organizations. Since the 1980s, much more of the literature has focused on instructional leadership functions and leadership for school improvement. Most recently, this leadership (vs. management) focus has narrowed to focus more specifically on leadership behaviors and functions associated with improved student outcomes, most notably student learning. In spite of this transition in educational administration scholarship, effective management of schools is still considered a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for effective schooling, as established in the 1980s effective schools research (Purkey & Smith, 1983). Recent empirical studies, meta-analyses of empirical studies, and reviews of leadership literature have suggested that both effective management and effective leadership are associated with improved school conditions and subsequent school outcomes (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005; Marzano et al., 2005; J. Murphy et al., 2007; Portin et al., 2006). Seashore Louis et al. (2010) concluded that successful school-level leadership involves significant attention to classroom instructional practices and to other issues critical to the health and welfare of schools.

ELCC Building-Level 3.2. Candidates understand and can efficiently use human, fiscal, and technological resources to manage school operations.

Commentary and Research Support. There is a considerable body of empirical literature devoted to issues of resource administration in schools or other educational organizations. These empirical studies are often highly specialized to focus on specific human resource issues, including educator work redesign (e.g., Conley et al., 2004; Crow & Pounder, 2000; Gerber et al., 2001; Pounder, 1998, 1999); educator recruitment and selection (Pounder, 1989; Pounder et al., 2003; Pounder et al., 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001); educator induction, mentoring, and professional development (Crow & Matthews, 1998); educator appraisal, supervision, and evaluation (Stronge & Tucker, 2003; P. D. Tucker & Stronge, 2005); and educator compensation (Odden & Kelley, 2002; Pounder, 1988). Issues of fiscal resource administration are often focused on equity (Card & Payne, 2002; Wenglinsky, 1998), adequacy (Baker & Green, 2008; Grubb, 2007), or productivity issues (Greenwald, Hedges, & Laine, 1996; Monk, 1992). Technological resource research often focuses on better technology utilization, including stronger preparation and development of educators to utilize technology to improve student learning (Collins & Halverson, 2009; Halverson & Collins, 2006; McLeod, 2008). As a result of this diverse array of resource issues, it is difficult to identify literature reviews or meta-analyses that succinctly summarize findings on educational resource administration in general. Literature cited above is but a small sample of literature on resource administration in schools.

ELCC Building-Level 3.3. Candidates understand and can promote school-based policies and procedures that protect the welfare and safety of students and staff within the school.

Commentary and Research Support. Much of the support for Standard 3.3 is grounded in the law and case law precedent rather than from empirical research. However, the effective schools research of the 1980s emphasized the creation of an orderly school environment as one of the critical components of effective schools—a necessary but not sufficient condition for student learning (Purkey & Smith, 1983). Similarly, research by Browne-Ferrigno, Hunt, Allan, and Rowe (2006) found that successful schools have a culture of leadership that supports a safe, orderly environment.

ELCC Building-Level 3.4. Candidates understand and can develop school capacity for distributed leadership.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the meaning of distributed leadership and how to create and sustain it (Day & Leithwood,

2007; Firestone & Martinez, 2009; Gronn, 2002; Harris, 2009; Leithwood, Mascall, & Strauss, 2009; Spillane, 2006; Spillane et al., 2001). Evidence on effective principals has demonstrated the importance of understanding and practicing leadership as a network of relationships rather than "control over processes or outcomes" (Leithwood et al., 2009, p. 7). Research has demonstrated that the principal's practice of distributed leadership can take various forms depending on school characteristics, specific leadership activities, the school's stage of development, resources, and the leader's personal preferences (Leithwood et al., 2007; Portin, 2003; Portin et al., 2009; Spillane et al., 2001). Although research findings are mixed in terms of the effects of distributed leadership on student learning, evidence exists to support the claim that principals' use of distributed leadership contributes to school change, student achievement, and organizational learning (Day & Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2009; Seashore Louis & Marks, 1998; Stoll & Seashore Louis, 2007; Wahlstrom & Seashore Louis, 2008; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Seashore Louis et al. (2010) concluded that leaders should, as a matter of policy and practice, extend significant influence to others in the school community as a foundation for their efforts to improve student achievement.

Candidates are able to identify leadership capabilities of staff at various levels of the school, including teacher leaders and assistant principals (Copland, 2003; Firestone & Martinez, 2009; Gronn, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2009). In addition, effective principals model collaboration skills and are able to authentically involve faculty and staff in decision-making processes (Copland, 2003; Silins et al., 2002; Wahlstrom & Seashore Louis, 2008). Research on principal leadership has demonstrated an indirect, but significant, effect on student learning via the principal's support of teacher collaboration and communication (Supovitz et al., 2010).

ELCC Building-Level 3.5. Candidates understand and can ensure teacher and organizational time focuses on supporting high-quality school instruction and student learning.

Commentary and Research Support. Until recently, most of the research on principals' use of time has consisted of ethnographic studies of a few individuals or self-report studies. A recent study of principal time use (Horng, Klasik, & Loeb, 2010), using methods that blend the strengths of both, found that for most principals almost half of their time was spent in administration or organization management and only 13% on instructional responsibilities. This study also found that increased time spent on organization management (hiring and managing staff and managing budgets) was related to positive school outcomes, including student test performance, as well as teacher and parent satisfaction.

These findings suggest that the time spent on organizational management tasks relates to instructional leadership. Managing and protecting time, setting priorities through

the ethical use of power and political skills, and creating schedules contribute to school order, which is necessary for successful teaching and learning (Marzano et al., 2005; Supovitz, 2002). Research has demonstrated that the principal's ability to use time effectively and to provide time as a resource for teachers is critical to quality instruction and student learning (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005; Morrissey, 2000; Spillane & Seashore Louis, 2002). Effective principals are also able to use power and political skills in ethical ways both inside the school and with external constituents (Crow & Weindling, 2010; Owen, 2006). To exercise power, principals must have the capacity to change their environment in some way or have the capacity to work with and through others to change an organization or a society in specific ways to attain desired goals or outcomes.

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 4

Pamela Tucker
University of Virginia

ELCC Building-Level Standard 4.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources on behalf of the school by collecting and analyzing information pertinent to improvement of the school's educational environment; promoting an understanding, appreciation, and use of the diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources within the school community; building and sustaining positive school relationships with families and caregivers; and cultivating productive school relationships with community partners.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 4.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 4 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of strategies for collaboration with faculty and community members, understanding of diverse community interests and needs, and best practices for mobilizing community resources. In order to develop strategies for collaboration (A. R. Anderson, Christenson, & Sinclair, 2004; Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Blue-Banning, Summers, Frankland, Nelson, & Beegle, 2004; Coalition for Community Schools & Institute for Educational Leadership, 2003; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Harris & Chapman, 2002; Harry, 1992), principals must have knowledge about the collection and analysis of evidence pertinent to the school educational environment (Bustamante et al., 2009; Epstein, 2005; Halverson, 2010; Knapp, Swinnerton, Copland, & Monpas-Huber, 2006; Wayman & Stringfield, 2006) and knowledge of the needs of students, parents, or caregivers (Catsambis, 2002; Christenson, 2004; Fuerstein, 2000; Harris & Chapman, 2002; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Landsman, 2006; Patrikakou & Weissberg,

2000; Reid, Reid, & Peterson, 2005; D. Ryan & Martin, 2000; Seashore Louis & Miles, 1990). Candidates understand that conducting a needs assessment requires gathering information through a process of discovery. This process might involve considering what the community wants the school to do. Needs assessments also involve processes of noting discrepancies between a current state of affairs and a desired state of affairs, as in, "Our current levels of reading achievement are not what we want them to be. What actions must we take to reach the desired levels?"

Research evidence used to support ISLLC 2008 Standard 4 confirmed that education leaders require such knowledge when collaborating with faculty and community members and when responding to diverse community interests and needs and mobilizing community support. Reports on practices in using evidence to inform decision making highlight the importance knowledge of strategies for data-based decision making (Creighton, 2007).

ELCC Building-Level 4.1. Candidates understand and can collaborate with faculty and community members by collecting and analyzing information pertinent to the improvement of the school's educational environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the collection and analysis of data and evidence pertinent to the school educational environment (Bustamante et al., 2009; Epstein, 2005; Halverson, 2010; Knapp, Swinnerton, et al., 2006; Wayman & Stringfield, 2006). The central role of evidence in the assessment and improvement of learning for students has been well documented in the research on effective schools and in subsequent studies on school improvement and school reform (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1992). Although the emphasis has been on use of data within schools to create formative feedback systems for improving instruction and student engagement (Halverson, 2010), evidence also has been used to facilitate the understandings that underpin relationships with families and communities. These purposes include identifying goals for partnerships with families and gauging constructs such as cultural competence (Bustamante et al., 2009; Epstein & Salinas, 2004; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Landsman, 2006; Sanders & Epstein, 2000). Descriptive literature (Epstein et al., 2002; Landsman, 2006) has offered strategies for collection of evidence through regular phone calls to parents, neighborhood bus tours, and home visits. Research on the ways that evidence can be used to enhance the educational environment for constituencies within schools and the communities they serve is limited. However, more targeted studies, for example, on the impact of parent involvement on reading skills (Adler & Fisher, 2001; Edwards, 2003; Fiala & Sheridan, 2003), offer guidance on more targeted ways to engage parents in specific ways to enhance schooling.

Candidates are able to use the appropriate strategies to collect, analyze, and interpret data and evidence pertinent to the school environment and communicate information

about the school to the community (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Halverson, 2010; Knapp, Swinnerton, et al., 2006; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1992; Wayman & Stringfield, 2006). Substantial research supports the importance of data-driven decision making in all aspects of school leadership. How evidence is used to inform the development of partnerships with families and communities is best captured by the strategies used by the National Network of Partnership Schools, which was established in 1996 and has been guided by the work of researchers at Johns Hopkins (Epstein, 2005; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Sanders & Epstein, 2000; Sheldon, 2005).

ELCC Building-Level 4.2. Candidates understand and can mobilize community resources by promoting an understanding, appreciation, and use of diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources within the school community.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates must possess cultural competence and have a basic knowledge of the communities they serve to understand, appreciate, and use the community's diverse cultural, social, and intellectual community resources (Aspiazu et al., 1998; Bustamante et al., 2009; C. Flanagan, Cumsille, Gill, & Gallay, 2007; Franke, Isken, & Parra, 2003; Gaitan, 2004; Harry, 1992; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). Given the growing diversity of students, their families, and communities, cultural competence across a broad spectrum of constituents is viewed as critical to building a welcoming environment for learning in schools and at home.

Cultural competence refers to the ability of a leader to understand his or her own cultural background and values and work successfully with individuals of different cultures without engaging in deficit categorization of them. This capacity is sometimes referred to as engaging in leadership with cross-cultural skills. Limited research suggests that programs can enhance culturally competent practice and that the climate and culture within a school is related to school-wide cultural competence. Increased understanding and appreciation of cultural differences, as well as commonalities, serves as the foundation for "cultural relationships," which are necessary for reciprocity and collaboration within schools and with community entities (Bustamante et al., 2009; Evans, 2007; Gaitan, 2004; Harry, 1992; Nazinga-Johnson, Baker, & Aupperlee, 2009; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). The importance of candidates being able to identify and match diverse community resources to meet the needs of all students has been highlighted by a number of studies looking at outreach with specific student populations (Blue-Banning et al., 2004; Christenson, 2004; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Gaitan, 2004; Leistyna, 2002; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002).

ELCC Building-Level 4.3. Candidates understand and can respond to community interests and needs by building and sustaining positive school relationships with families and caregivers.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the needs of students, parents, or caregivers (Catsambis, 2002; Christenson, 2004; Fuerstein, 2000; Harris & Chapman, 2002; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Landsman, 2006; Patrikakou, & Weissberg, 2000; Reid et al., 2005; D. Ryan & Martin, 2000; Seashore Louis & Miles, 1990). To build trusting relationships with parents and key community members, school leaders must first understand the challenges and pressing issues in the lives of their students and their communities. Based on this knowledge, responsive outreach efforts can be undertaken that build relationships of consequence for caretakers (A. R. Anderson et al., 2004; Blank, Melaville, & Shah, 2003; Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Blue-Banning et al., 2004; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Harris & Chapman, 2002; Harry, 1992). The research has described a wide range of strategies that bring parents into the school for meaningful engagement and dialogue or create events in the community, such as potluck dinners and sporting events, that create a sense of connectedness (e.g., Colombo, 2004). Efforts to engage family members in the learning environment for children and youth have been found to be related to stronger cognitive and emotional outcomes in many research studies, some of which offer compelling longitudinal evidence of impact (Catsambis, 2002; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Fan & Chen, 2001; Fantuzzo, McWayne, Perry, & Childs, 2004; Jeynes, 2005; Mathematica Policy Research & the Center for Children, Youth, and Families, 2001; Reynolds, 1999; Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, & Mann, 2002; Xu, Kushner Benson, Mudrey-Camino, & Steiner, 2010).

To be effective in building positive relationships with families and caregivers, the candidate understands how to build the organizational culture that promotes open communication with families and caregivers (Levin & Fullan, 2008; Miretzky, 2004). Research has indicated that cultural competence is both an individual and organizational skill and must be developed at the building level to influence how students and families respond to engagement efforts (Benson & Martin, 2003; Bustamante et al., 2009; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Griffith, 2001; Pena, 2000; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Steinberg, 1992).

Research has identified factors that help schools develop meaningful partnerships with schools, which include strategies for effective oral and written communication and collaboration with families and caregivers (Berger, 2003; Cairney, 2000; Gordon & Seashore Louis, 2009; Lawson, 2003; McIntyre, Kyle, Miller, & Moore, 2002; Miretsky, 2004; Pena, 2000; Porterfield & Carnes, 2008; Smrekar & Cohen-Vogal, 2001). These partnerships are related to higher levels of family involvement in student learning at home and school (Durlak et al., 2007; Epstein, 2005; Sheldon, 2005; Sheldon & Van Voorhis, 2004; B. M. Taylor & Pearson, 2004).

Candidates are able to assess the needs of students, parents, or caregivers; articulate a vision of school leadership characterized by respect for children and their families; apply oral and written communication and collaboration strategies to develop school relationships with families and caregivers; and involve families and caregivers in decision making about their children's education (Epstein, 2005; Gordon & Seashore Louis, 2009;

Jacobson, Brooks, Giles, Johnson, & Ylimaki, 2007; Miretzky, 2004). The research on the National Network of Partnership Schools provides the best evidence of how these elements work together to ensure better learning outcomes for students (Epstein, 2005; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Sanders & Epstein, 2000; Sheldon, 2005).

ELCC Building-Level 4.4. Candidates understand and can respond to community interests and needs by building and sustaining productive school relationships with community partners.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the needs of school community partners, the school organizational culture that promotes open communication with community partners, and school strategies for effective oral and written communication and collaboration to develop and sustain productive relations with community partners (Cairney, 2000; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002; Hiatt-Michael, 2006; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2002; Leistyna, 2002; Levin & Fullan, 2008; Miretzky, 2004; H. B. Price, 2008; Sanders, 2001, 2009; Sanders & Harvey, 2002; Sheldon, 2005; Sheldon, Epstein, & Galindo, 2010; Sommerville & McDonald, 2002; Warren, Hong, Rubin, & Uy, 2009). As educators recognize the broader set of variables that influence student success in schools, there is a greater interest in collaborating with community partners to serve a wide range of medical, emotional, and social needs of students, sometimes within full-service community schools (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2002; Trivette & Thompson-Drew, 2003). In addition, after-school programs are opportunities for collaboration with community resources (Cairney, 2000; Leistyna, 2002; H. B. Price, 2008). Finally, candidates are able to assess the needs of school community partners, articulate a vision of school leadership characterized by respect for community partners, and apply oral and written communication and collaboration strategies to develop school relationships with community partners (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2002; Levin & Fullan, 2008; Warren et al., 2009).

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 5

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University Council for Educational Administration

ELCC Building-Level Standard 5.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner to ensure a school system of accountability for every student's academic and social success by modeling school principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior as related to their roles within the school; safeguarding the values of democracy, equity, and diversity within the school; evaluating the potential moral and legal consequences of decision making in the school; and promoting social justice within the school to ensure that individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 5.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 5 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of how to act with integrity and fairness and to engage in ethical practice. Ethical practice refers to the concept that the implementation of leadership actions not only must conform to adherence to the laws of the state and regulations concerning fidelity to the spirit of such laws but also must rest on moral principles of justice and fairness. Ethical practice rests on the moral principles of building goodness and community grounded in a collective commitment to the pursuit of truth and truthfulness in operations and personal interactions with others. Education leaders engaging in ethical practice have knowledge of democratic values, equity, and diversity (Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Hess, 1993; Lopez, 2006; Papa & Fortune, 2002; Rollow & Bryk, 1993; Rusch, 1998; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001).

Candidates' knowledge of diversity is based on (a) the recognition that schools in a democracy serve a broad range of goals and purposes and that these are sometimes

at cross-purposes; (b) the recognition that the children coming to school do not all have the same family, ethnic, racial, or religious upbringing or perceptions; and (c) the valuing of cultural, ethnic, and racial difference as opposed to insisting that the values of some are promoted while differences in others are negated, undervalued, or devalued. While a celebration of difference is often recognized in schools, the concept of *diversity* is more complicated and complex than mere recognition. It also means confronting the privileges some children have compared to others who are different and working to creating understanding and ways to confront the inequities involved (Lopez, 2006).

Standard 5 was informed by research confirming that education leaders must have knowledge about current ethical and moral issues facing education, government, and business and their consequences (Beck, 1994; Brennan & Brennan, 1988; Evers, 1985; Englert, 1993; Grundy, 1993; Lakomski, 1987; Militello, Schimmel, & Eberwein, 2009; Nevin, 1979; J. Smith & Blase, 1991) and knowledge about the relationship between social justice, school culture, and student achievement (Aspiazu et al., 1998; Bustamante et al., 2009; C. Flanagan et al., 2007; Franke et al., 2003; Gaitan, 2004; Harry, 1992; Papa & Fortune, 2002; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). Fundamentally, social justice means *fairness*, and it represents a perspective in regard to how "fundamental rights and duties are assigned and on the economic opportunities and social conditions" that are established "in various sectors of society," including but not limited to schools (Rawls, 1971, p. 7).

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 5 was recognized in research on practices that promote social justice identified as important in the 2008 ISLLC Policy Standards. Support for the importance of this knowledge was informed by scholarship on practices of inclusive leadership (J. Ryan, 2006) and leadership for diversity (Tillman, 2004). If candidates are to model principles of self-awareness and ethical behavior, they must be aware of the importance of reflective practice (Sparks, 2005). Reflective practice is the means by which practitioners gain a greater sense of self-awareness and perception regarding their beliefs, values, motivations, and actions in relationship to desired goals or administrative decisions, which subsequently define their performance and serve as the focus for improvement over time. Some theoretical and practice-focused commentaries also have noted the critical need for candidates to have knowledge of the moral and legal consequences of decision making (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Mawhinney, 2003; Cambron, McCarthy, & Thomas, 2004; Papalwis, 2004; Stefkovich, 2006; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008).

ELCC Building-Level 5.1. Candidates understand and can act with integrity and fairness to ensure a school system of accountability for every student's academic and social success.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of federal, state, and local legal/policy guidance to create operational definitions of accountability, equity, and social justice (Leithwood, Steinbach, & Jantzi, 2002; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003). The leaders' knowledge of policy is also connected their capacity to facilitate teachers' understanding of policy and its connection to equity and social justice (Burch, Theoharis, & Rauscher, 2010; Marks & Nance, 2007; Prawat, 1991; Reitzug, 1994), as well as their ability to effectively implement the policy (Burch & Spillane, 2003; Spillane, 2004). Candidates are able to plan, implement, and evaluate policies, procedures, and practices within the school that support students' academic and social successes (Burch et al., 2010; Bustamante et al., 2009; Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Halverson, 2010; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Knapp, Copland, et al., 2006; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lord & Maher, 1993; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Portin, Schneider, DeArmond, & Gundlach, 2003; Reitzug, 1994; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharis, 2007; Wayman & Stringfield, 2006; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). The importance of a leader's ability to use multiple sources of data in the assessment of student learning and in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of school programs and policies has been well documented in the research on effective schools and in subsequent studies on school improvement and school reform (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1992; Spillane et al., 2001).

ELCC Building-Level 5.2. Candidates understand and can model principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior as related to their roles within the school.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the legal and professional organizations' information to understand the basic tenets of ethical behavior; the relationship between ethical behavior, building culture, and student achievement; and the effect of ethical behavior on one's own leadership (Beckner, 2004; Begley, 2006; Brennan & Brennan, 1988; Bustamante et al., 2009; Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; McGough, 2003; Webster, 1994; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). Although the research literature does not specifically refer to information provided by professional organizations, it does emphasize the importance of understanding and having a set of ethical principles (Beckner, 2004; Begley, 2006; Brennan & Brennan, 1988). Candidates are able to formulate a school-level leadership platform grounded in ethical standards and practices and analyze decisions in terms of established ethical standards (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Bush, 2008; Huefner, 1994; Stöcklin, 2010; A. Walker & Shuangye, 2007; Wegenke, 2000). The empirical basis for developing a leadership platform grounded in ethical standards is underdeveloped. Moreover, the majority of studies that specifically stress the importance of having a

leadership platform are from outside of the United States (e.g., Bush, 2008; Huefner, 1994; Stöcklin, 2010; A. Walker & Shuangye, 2007). However, research that emphasizes the importance of formulating a vision or plan for the school that is grounded in a leader's ethical principals is more common in the United States and is linked to literature on building school capacity and leading change (Beck, 1994; Beckner, 2004; Begley, 2006; Browne-Ferrigno, 2003).

ELCC Building-Level 5.3. Candidates understand and can safeguard the values of democracy, equity, and diversity within the school.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of democratic values, equity, and diversity (Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Hess, 1993; Papa & Fortune, 2002; Rollow & Bryk, 1993; Rusch, 1998; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharis, 2007). Moreover, school leaders play a pivotal role in shaping meaning; fostering understanding; and promoting the values of democracy, equity, and diversity in their organizations through communication, symbols, structures, and routines (R. Cooper, 1996; Meyer, 1984; Strike, 1993). Candidates are able to develop, implement, and evaluate a professional development plan for a school that clearly addresses democratic values, equity, and diversity (Burch et al., 2010; Theoharis, 2007; Webster, 1994). Although much of the research on the leader's role vis-à-vis professional development (e.g., Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; J. Murphy & Seashore Louis, 1994) casts it as supportive, the leader is considered critical in the development of professional learning communities that support teacher growth (Fine, 1994; Seashore Louis & Kruse, 1995; Seashore Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996; Talbert, 1996). Furthermore, research has indicated that leaders who model democratic values and equity can develop such values and educational practice that serve the needs of diverse students among their staff members (Corson, 1995; Perry & Fraser, 1993; Rusch, 1998).

ELCC Building-Level 5.4. Candidates understand and can evaluate the potential moral and legal consequences of decision making in the school.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about current ethical and moral issues facing education, government, and business and their consequences (Beck, 1994; Brennan & Brennan, 1988; Englert, 1993; Evers, 1985; Grundy, 1993; Lakomski, 1987; Militello et al., 2009; Nevin, 1979; J. Smith & Blase, 1991). Of the various moral and legal issues used as the focus of research in this area, special education was most common (e.g., Brennan & Brennan, 1988; Harry, 1992; Nevin, 1979; Rebore, 1979; Van Horn, Burrello, & DeClue, 1992; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). Candidates are able to formulate sound solutions to educational dilemmas across a range of content areas in educational leadership (Duke & Salmonowicz, 2010; Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Kaplan & Owings, 2001;

Leithwood & Steinbach, 1992; Militello et al., 2009; Portin et al., 2003; Rebore, 1979; Roche, 1999). Although the majority of research on decision making emphasizes the importance of leaders using multiple data sources (e.g., Leithwood & Steinbach, 1992), a large body of research also emphasizes the importance of considering the potential consequences of different strategies and actions. Within this literature, it has been argued that principals understand the ethics and fairness of issues involved and the costly consequences for falling short, even as they support raising academic standards (Duke & Salmonowicz, 2010; Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Kaplan & Owings, 2001; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1992; Militello et al., 2009; Portin et al., 2003; Roche, 1999).

ELCC Building-Level 5.5. Candidates understand and can promote social justice within the school to ensure that individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the relationship between social justice, school culture, and student achievement (Aspiazu et al., 1998; Bustamante et al., 2009; C. Flanagan et al., 2007; Franke et al., 2003; Gaitan, 2004; Harry, 1992; Papa & Fortune, 2002; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharis, 2007; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). Given the growing diversity of students, their families, and communities, the ability to understand the relationship between social justice, school culture, and student achievement and to practice inclusive leadership is critical (Baptiste, 1999; Deering, 1996; Katz, 1999; Miron, 1997; Reed, 1978; Sather, 1999; Shakeshaft, 1993; E. W. Walker, 1999; Winfield, Johnson, & Manning, 1993). Increased understanding and appreciation of cultural differences, as well as commonalities, serve as the foundation for reciprocity and collaboration (Bustamante et al., 2009; Evans, 2007; Gaitan, 2004; Harry, 1992; Nazinga-Johnson et al., 2009; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). Candidates are able to develop and evaluate school policies, programs, and practices that ensure social justice, equity, confidentiality, acceptance, and respect between and among students and faculty and that support student achievement (Burch et al., 2010; Nevin, 1979; Papa & Fortune, 2002; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003). Research has demonstrated that principals play essential roles in creating organizational and policy conditions that influence how teachers teach and are supported when adopting new practices (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Burch & Spillane, 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1992) as well as in providing teacher learning opportunities, the use of physical and human resources, and the design of instructional systems in improving instruction for underserved populations (Stainback, Stainback, & Forest, 1989; Theoharis, 2007; Van Horn et al., 1992). The literature also emphasized the importance of leaders promoting such ability among their teaching staff (Reitzug, 1994).

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 6

Hanne Mawhinney
University of Maryland

ELCC Building-Level Standard 6.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context through advocating for school students, families, and caregivers; acting to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning in a school environment; and anticipating and assessing emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt school-based leadership strategies.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 6.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 6 confirms that a building-level education leader must have knowledge of how to respond to and influence the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context within a school and district. This includes knowledge of policies, laws, and regulations enacted by state, local, and federal authorities (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; B. S. Cooper, Fusarelli, & Randall, 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Hanson, 2003; Heck, 2004; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Hoy & Miskel, 2004; Hoyle et al., 1998; Leithwood, 1999; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2007; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; J. Murphy, 1990; J. Murphy et al., 2007; M. Murphy, Martin, & Muth, 1997; Razik & Swanson, 2001; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008); knowledge of how to improve the social opportunities of students, particularly in contexts where issues of student marginalization demand proactive leadership (J. S. Brooks, Jean-Marie, Normore, & Hodgins, 2007; Brown, 2004; Frattura & Capper, 2007; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall & Oliva, 2006; McKenzie et al., 2008; J. Murphy & Datnow, 2003; Theoharis, 2007); and knowledge of how culturally responsive educational leadership can positively

influence academic achievement and student engagement (Banks & McGee-Banks, 2004; L. Johnson, 2003, 2006; Juettner, 2003; Klingner et al., 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Riehl, 2000; Skrla, Scheurich, Garcia, & Nolly, 2004). The widespread recognition in the practice and policy community that education leaders must be prepared to understand, respond to, and influence the political, social, economic, legal and cultural context of education provided an important impetus for the formation of this domain of the ISLLC standards (see, for example, Hoyle's 2007 description of leadership practices in visioning). An important focus on mindful practices influenced the formation of the ISLLC 2008 standards. The focus is reflected in craft and practice scholarship on knowledge of "habits of the mind" that are "characteristics of what intelligent people do when they are confronted with problems, the resolutions to which are not immediately apparent" (Costa & Kallick, 2008, p. 15).

Standard 6 was informed by scholarship that called attention to the need for education leaders at both district and school levels to know about and respond to the social, political, and economic contexts of schooling (see J. Murphy, 2005). It was also informed by evidence from empirical and analytic scholarship and accounts of best practice. The analysis of these sources led to the identification of three important domains of knowledge and associated skills of leadership that must be developed by school and district leaders if they are to effectively address the socioeconomic and political challenges of leading 21st-century schools: (a) skills in advocacy for children, families, and caregivers to improve social opportunities; (b) skills in influencing local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning; and (c) skills in the assessment, analysis, and anticipation of emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt leadership strategies. All three skill domains reflect a new focus on the importance of proactive leadership of schools and districts. This proactive turn in both school and district leadership is informed by empirical research and craft knowledge confirming the importance of proactive leadership skills, commitment to exercising influence, and engagement in advocacy in furthering educational change and reform.

ELCC Building-Level 6.1. Candidates understand and can advocate for school students, families, and caregivers.

Commentary and Research Support. That principals must have knowledge of policies, laws, and regulations enacted by state, local, and federal authorities has been a foundational principle in defining the responsibilities of the role (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Hanson, 2003; Heck, 2004; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Hoy & Miskel, 2004; Hoyle et al., 1998; Leithwood, 1999; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2007; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; J. Murphy, 1990; J. Murphy et al., 2007; M. Murphy et al., 1997; Razik & Swanson, 2001; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). In this context candidates must be knowledgeable about students' civil liberties (Torres & Stefkovich, 2009).

In recent years scholars of policy have argued that "the logic of standards-based reform has become a fundamental part of the architecture of policy and governance in American education" in ways that "represent a fundamental shift in the relationship between policy and institutional practice" (Elmore, 2000, p. 4; see also Desimone, 2006; Forte, 2010). The importance of this shift became evident in findings of studies that examined principals' experiences in implementing state responses to the No Child Left Behind Act (McQuillan & Salomon-Fernandez, 2008; J. Murphy, Beck, Knapp, & Portin, 2003; Powell et al., 2009). After the passage of the legislation, state departments of education across the United States began creating or modifying school accountability systems to meet the No Child Left Behind Act guidelines. Given the law's provisions and the growing number of schools not meeting performance targets, the number of state interventions in low-performing schools increased, and researchers found that principals of those schools had to develop detailed understanding of the state policies, while also struggling to address frustration and the erosion of trust among teachers (Blasé, 2002; Conley & Glasman, 2008; Malen, Croninger, Muncey, & Redmond-Jones, 2002; Malen & Rice, 2004; McQuillan & Salomon-Fernandez, 2008; Mintrop, 2004; Rice & Malen, 2003; Schoen & Fusarelli, 2008; Timperley & Robinson, 1998). In this context researchers found that preoccupation with meeting student assessment targets and raising test scores was an important influence on principals of rural schools in terms of their educational vision for the future and the need for professional development (Powell et al., 2009; see also B. S. Cooper, Ehrensal, & Bromme, 2005; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Marks & Nance, 2007). These studies suggested that candidates must have detailed knowledge of how accountability policies and regulations guide efforts to improve educational opportunities for students (Daly, 2009; Datnow & Castellano, 2001; Kirst, 2009; Lee & Wong, 2004; Mintrop & MacLellan, 2002; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009; Mintrop & Trujillo, 2007).

There is also empirical evidence that principals are critically important in efforts at education reform that seek to improve the social opportunities of students, particularly in contexts where issues of student marginalization demand proactive leadership (J. S. Brooks et al., 2007; Brown, 2004; Frattura & Capper, 2007; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall & Oliva, 2006; McKenzie et al., 2008; J. Murphy & Datnow, 2003; Theoharis, 2007). In a series of articles reporting on a study of schools where traditionally marginalized students are thriving, Theoharis (2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010) found that principals' daily practices of advocacy for children were informed by their analyses of the complex causes of marginalization. Like other researchers (Lyman & Villani, 2002; Riester, Pursch, & Skrla, 2002; Scheurich, 1998; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Skrla et al., 2004), Theorharis (2010) found that principals' advocacy practices were informed by analyses of student demographic and accountability data, awareness of complex causes of marginalization, and concern for equity. These and other researchers found that principals enacted their advocacy for marginalized families by purposefully reaching out to involve families and by creating partnerships with community agencies (Mitra, Movit, & Frick, 2008; Scheurich, 1998; Theorharis, 2010; Wagstaff & Gallagher, 1990). Similarly, research revealed the importance of proactive support for students

and their families by principals in the success of implementing high school and college collaborative programs that provide traditionally underserved high school students with opportunities to receive college credit (White-Smith & White, 2009). Principals who practice an expanded approach to advocacy take into account the differences in the schooling experiences of marginalized students (Ares & Buendia, 2007) and create opportunities for discussions of those differences (Shields, 2004; Shields, Larocque, & Oberg, 2002). Research also suggests that engaging in advocacy to address issues of equity and marginalization requires that principals challenge traditional managerial-oriented views of the role and the various resistances and barriers to equity-oriented reforms (Bogotch, 2002; Brown, 2004; Dantley, 2002; Dantley & Tillman, 2006; Furman & Gruenewald, 2004; R. G. Johnson, 2009; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall & Ward, 2004; Rapp, 2002; Theoharis, 2008a).

ELCC Building-Level 6.2. Candidates understand and can act to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning in a school environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Commentaries on the context of schooling confirm that administrators must assume different mindsets if public schools are to remain viable and functional (Crow & Weindling, 2010). They must be aware of that federal and state courts hand down decisions that have the potential to affect schools and school districts (B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Lunenburg & Orienstein, 2007; Seyfarth, 2008; R. E. Smith, 2009). Candidates should have an understanding of the U.S. Constitution and the Bills of Rights as well as state constitutions and statutes. They should understand the legal rights of teachers and students and should be aware of current legal issues and their potential impact on schools (Cambron et al., 2004; Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Stefkovich, 2006; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008).

Changing demographics resulting in heterogeneous communities, the diversity of community values, and the finite resources available to meet the infinite desires of a demanding constituency have created the necessity for political acumen on the part of local educational leaders (C. W. Cooper, 2009; J. Murphy, 2000; Owen, 2006; Piltch & Fredericks, 2005; Searby & Williams, 2007). Empirical studies have confirmed that activist principals use knowledge of social, political, and economic contexts to develop political clarity, political capacity, political collaboration, and an ethic of risk (Feuerstein, 2001; Hoffman, 2009). Practice-informed case studies developed to support school leadership preparation confirmed the importance of such knowledge (Gause, 2008). In this paradoxical, unstable, and ethically polarized era, such case studies must help candidates develop capacities for ethical leadership (Mawhinney, 2003; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2005; Tooms, 2004).

There is broad support in scholarship and research that principals play a critical role in creating schools that are responsive to the growing heterogeneity of students and more inclusive and responsive to the diverse needs of all students. Most broadly, a growing body of research and scholarship provides evidence that culturally responsive educational leadership positively influences academic achievement and students' engagement with the school environment (Banks & McGee-Banks, 2004; L. Johnson, 2003; Juettner, 2003; Klingner et al., 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Riehl, 2000; Skrla et al., 2004). More specifically, research has shown that principals supporting inclusion of students with disabilities are committed to the principles of diversity, social justice, and equity (K. Brooks, Adams, & Morita-Mullaney, 2010; Mayrowetz & Weinstein, 1999; Reitzug, 1994; Riehl, 2000; Salisbury, 2006; Salisbury & McGregor, 2002). Principals' commitments to these principles influence orientations to advocacy to promote equitable learning opportunities and success for students with disabilities requiring action beyond compliance with less restrictive environment provisions of the 1997 Amendments to the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (Salisbury, 2006). Researchers have reported similar commitments are important influences on principals' support for effective supports for English language learners (K. Brooks et al., 2010). Research suggested that candidates must develop skills in public policy advocacy, networking, organizing, community development, and scholarship (Hoffman, 2009).

ELCC Building-Level 6.3. Candidates understand and can anticipate and assess emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt school-based leadership strategies.

Commentary and Research Support. There is widespread recognition that school building leaders must be prepared to anticipate future trends that can affect schools (Copland, 2000; Hodgkinson, 2003; B. L. Johnson & Fauske, 2000; Mawhinney, 2010; Mitchell & Boyd, 1998). It is now well recognized that technological developments demand the attention of principals (R. E. Anderson & Dexter, 2005; Brooks-Young, 2002, 2004; Gooden, 2005; Nance, 2003). Some trends are predictable and can be addressed using modes of strategic planning (R. E. Smith, 2009). For example, some researchers have suggested that as part of their approach to strategic human resources planning, principals must engage in external scanning, considering national demographic trends, populations projections, ethnic diversity, issues associated with provisions for special education, responses that may be required to violence, and school choice (Evans, 2007; R. E. Smith, 2009). Strategic planning has been called "practical dreaming" (Kaufman et al., 1996, p. 49). Strategic planning is a formalized process in which, among other considerations, strategy delineation should be controlled and become a conscious process of thought, strategies should be unique and the most appropriate ones selected by a process of creative design, and strategies must be made explicit and accountability delineated in the process for implementation (see Mintzberg, 1994, pp. 36–90). Researchers also have pointed out that anticipating future issues arising from the complexities associated with what many view as an unstable era of war, terrorism,

natural disasters, and other conditions of turbulence raises ethical dilemmas that require candidates to have knowledge of ethical descriptors of practice associated with principles of justice, critique, and care (Begley & Johansson, 2003; Shapiro & Gross, 2008).

Although scholars have long recognized that principals must know about leadership theories (Nystrand, 1981), it is only recently that knowledge of three contemporary theoretical perspectives (transactional, transformational, and distributed) has been perceived as essential (D. D. Marsh, 2000). It is agreed that principals should understand the strengths and limitations of transactional approaches (English, 2003; Shields, 2005) and transformational models (Brown, 2006; Freidman, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2009; Somech, 2005), and the challenges of distributive approaches (Bennett et al., 2003; Gronn, 2000; Harris, 2004, 2007; MacBeath, 2005; Maxcy & Nguyen, 2006; Mayrowetz, 2008; J. Murphy, Smylie, Mayorowetz, & Seashore Louis, 2009; Printy & Marks, 2004; Scribner, Sawyer, Watson, & Myers, 2007; Spillane, 2006). Many scholars now argue that in order to address complex environments, candidates must have knowledge of emerging leadership theories (Marks & Printy, 2003; Moolenaar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010; Shields, 2010; Tooms, Lugg, & Bogotch, 2010; Ylimaki, 2006). For example, a mounting body of research suggests that culturally responsive educational leadership positively influences academic achievement and students' engagement with the school environment (Banks & McGee-Banks, 2004; L. Johnson, 2003; Juettner, 2003; Klingner et al., 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Riehl, 2000; Shields, 2005; Skrla et al., 2004).

Scholarship on educational change supports the critical importance for candidates to have knowledge of how to anticipate trends (Fullan, 2001, 2002; Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006; Hoyle, 2007; Huber, 2004). Based on his extensive study of change leadership, Fullan (2002) concluded, "Only principals who are equipped to handle a complex, rapidly changing environment can implement the reforms that lead to sustained improvement in student achievement" (p. 16). Other researchers have found that the current landscape of change requires leaders to be flexible, skilled, and "'versed in a variety of approaches to address unique problems inherent in the multiple contexts in which school leadership finds itself" (Friedman, 2004, p. 206). In this context, there is widespread understanding informed by practice that candidates must learn "how to conscientiously and accurately keep a finger on the pulse of the community to discern the changing tides of favor and disfavor, the covert criticisms, and the coalescing groups with a single agenda" (Owen, 2007, p. 47). The realities of 21st-century global interdependence require that schools effectively and appropriately respond to diverse groups in schools and communities while preparing students for positive interactions with people who are culturally different (Banks, 2008, 2009; J. S. Brooks & Normore, 2010; Foster, 2004; Mawhinney, 2008, 2009, 2010).

ELCC BUILDING-LEVEL STANDARD 7

Margaret Terry Orr
Bank Street College

ELCC Building-Level Standard 7.0

A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student through a substantial and sustained educational leadership internship experience that has school-based field experiences and clinical internship practice within a school setting and is monitored by a qualified, on-site mentor.

Research Support for ELCC Building-Level Standard 7.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 7 confirms the importance of a substantial and sustained educational leadership internship experience that has school-based field experiences and clinical internship practice within a school setting, monitored by a qualified on-site mentor. The theory and research on the importance of an internship and the nature of highly effective internships date back to the early work on experiential learning (Dewey, 1986) and its promotion as a highly effective means of adult learning (Kolb, 1984; Mezirow, 1991). Internships are widely used in professional education generally (LaPlant, 1988). More current work in the field has stressed the full-time, job-embedded internship as the ideal (Barnett, Copland, & Shoho, 2009).

Much of the research on internships has focused on what typically occurs (Barnett et al., 2009; Copeland, 2004; McKerrow, 1998). This is mixed with case study research on innovative models (Cordeiro & Sloan, 1996; Ellis, 2002; Jones, 1999; Mercado, 2002; Milstein & Kruger, 1997) and conceptualizations of more robust approaches (Frye, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005; Milstein, Bobroff, & Restine, 1991; Straut & Calabrese, 1999). Limited research has compared the effects of conventional and exemplary preparation,

but the results suggest that principals either report (Franklin, 2006; Mercado, 2002) or demonstrate (Orr & Orphanos, 2011) better leadership practices when they have had longer, more full-time internships.

Many of the internship elements and descriptors of practice in Standard 7 parallel the research findings from Danforth Foundation funded innovations in leadership preparation in the early 1990s. Comparative case study analyses yielded strong conclusions about the nature of high-quality internships (Milstein & Kruger, 1997). They identified the critical components of field experience that have the greatest value and potential impact:

- Sufficient time on task (frequency and regularity of work across school year and day, exposure to and engagement in relevant and realistic range of site responsibilities, and support of effective mentor practitioners);
- Relationship with mentors who have demonstrated skills and have been trained as mentors, including a focus on appropriate modeling and reflection;
- Multiple and alternative internship experiences to support diverse clinical training (e.g., medical rotation model);
- Reflective seminars to support interns' analysis and integration of learning;
- Field supervision, typically not given much consideration or focus within larger internship process; and
- Program coordination by educators who can link district and university programs and model professional development and learning.

ELCC Building-Level 7.1. Substantial Field and Clinical Internship Experience: The program provides significant field experiences and clinical internship practice for candidates within a school environment to synthesize and apply the content knowledge and develop professional skills identified in the other Educational Leadership Building-Level Program Standards through authentic, school-based leadership experiences.

Commentary and Research Support. Research on the quality of internships has shown that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to have an internship (89% vs. 72%) and to report that their internship gave them responsibilities for leading, facilitating, and making decisions typical of an educational leader (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). The degree of internship quality was based on three measures: (a) having had responsibilities for leading, facilitating, and making decisions typical of an educational leader; (b) being able to develop an educational leader's perspective on school improvement; and (c) having an excellent internship that was a learning experience for becoming a principal. Further analysis of a subgroup of these principals showed that the degree of internship quality, based on those three measures, accounted for the extent to which principals learned about leadership, which in turn influenced their use of effective leadership practices and school improvement (Orr

& Orphanos, 2011). Not directly addressed in the standard elements, but implied in the stress on complexity and authenticity, is the field's emphasis on the role of the internship in socializing the candidate to the principalship (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004) and transforming the candidate's perspectives (Osterman & Fishbein, 2001).

ELCC Building-Level 7.2. Sustained Internship Experience: Candidates are provided a six-month, concentrated (9–12 hours per week) internship that includes field experiences within a school-based environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Based on reviews of research on internships, educational experts have argued that ideally the internship is full time and job embedded (Barnett et al., 2009; Carr, Chenoweth, & Ruhl, 2003). Research on the quality of internships showed that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to have longer internships (50% longer on average), averaging a full year (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Other research on program practices showed that programs vary widely in the length of candidates' internship experiences and in whether they are released from teaching (some or all the time) for their internship work (Orr, 2011). A comparison of 17 programs in 13 institutions showed that 90% of the candidates had internships (ranging from 56–100%), 37% had full or partial release time for their internship work (ranging from 16–100%), and candidates rated the quality of their internship as good on average (4.0 on 5-point scale), ranging from mixed to highly effective (Orr, 2011).

ELCC Building-Level 7.3. Qualified On-Site Mentor: An on-site school mentor who has demonstrated experience as an educational leader within a school and is selected collaboratively by the intern and program faculty with training by the supervising institution.

Commentary and Research Support. Research on the quality of internships showed that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to report that in their internship they were closely supervised and assisted by knowledgeable school leaders and were regularly evaluated by program faculty (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Other research showed the importance of high-quality mentoring on participant outcomes in both corporate and educational settings (Sosik, Lee, & Bouquillon, 2005).

There is limited work on mentor training for school leader internships but a common emphasis on the role of mentors and the importance of training for quality field experience (Wallace Foundation, 2007b). There is modest evidence of the importance and influence of selecting and preparing mentors on internship experience and graduate

outcomes (Cordeiro & Sloan, 1996; Ellis, 2002; Geismer, Morris, & Lieberman, 2000) and on the supervisory relationship between on-site mentors and supervising faculty for quality internship experiences (Busch, 2003).

There is no research on the benefits of earning course credit for internship experiences. Yet, many experts advocate for universities to manage these more rigorously, facilitate greater connections between coursework and field work, and provide better quality oversight (Barnett et al., 2009; Milstein et al., 1991; Milstein & Kruger, 1997).

PART 2

2011 ELCC DISTRICT-LEVEL STANDARDS

Commentaries and Research Support

District-level standards are meant to be used for advanced programs at the master, specialist, or doctoral level that prepare assistant superintendents, superintendents, curriculum directors, and supervisors and/or other programs that prepare educational leaders for a school district environment

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 1

Dianne Taylor

Louisiana State University
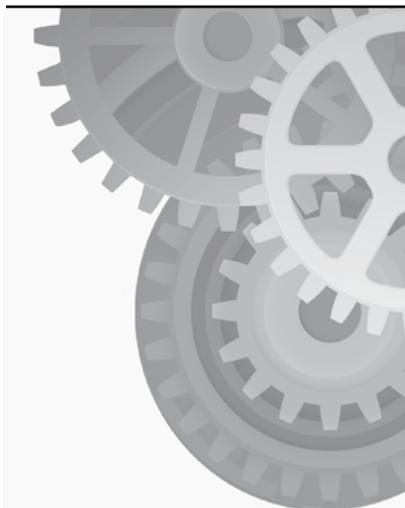
ELCC District Standard 1.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a shared district vision of learning through the collection and use of data to identify district goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and implement district plans to achieve district goals; promotion of continual and sustainable district improvement; and evaluation of district progress and revision of district plans supported by district stakeholders.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 1.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 1 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of how to promote the success of every student by understanding principles for the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a district vision of learning. Stewardship is a concept advanced by Robert Greenleaf (as cited in Frick, 2004), who believed that the best way to lead was by serving. Stewardship involves using foresight, employing power ethically, seeking consensus in group decisions where possible, and envisioning leadership as employing persuasion and building relationships based on trust (Frick, 2004).

To exercise stewardship, candidates must have knowledge of how to develop a broadly shared vision and mission to guide district decisions and to support change at the school level (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Honig, Copland, Rainey, Lorton, & Newton, 2010; King, 2004; Kissinger, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007; Levine & Stark, 1981; Seashore Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1990; Pajak & Glickman, 1989; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Spillane & Thompson, 1997; Togneri & Anderson, as

cited in King, 2004; Wimpelberg et al., 1989) and knowledge of how to develop trust as a requisite variable in shared visioning and school improvement (Casner-Lotto, 1989; Honig et al., 2010; Louis & Kruse, as cited in Firestone & González, 2007; Spillane & Thompson, 1997). A district vision is a public statement containing four elements: (a) it is anchored in a future condition or state; (b) it identifies a clear set of conditions that pertain; (c) it is devoid of means, methods, and "how-tos" but is focused on tangible results; and (d) it projects hope, energy, and destination (Kaufman et al., 1996, p. 49). The mission of a district is a general statement indicating a desired condition or destination towards which the district or personnel in the district strive to realize or attain through their collective and individualized actions.

Candidates must also know how to use evidence to inform district decisions, particularly as decisions related to learning become standard practice (see Fullan, 1985; Hoyle et al., 1998; Knapp et al., 2007; Pajak & Glickman, 1989). Candidates must have knowledge of the importance of professional development to building the organizational capacity needed to support continuous and sustainable district improvement realized at the school level by teachers and principals (Clark et al., 1984; College of Alberta School Superintendents, 2009; Cuban, 1983; Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Honig et al., 2010; Hoyle et al., 1998; King, 2004; Kissinger, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007; Levine & Stark, 1981; McLaughlin, 1990; Pajak & Glickman, 1989; Pink, 1986; Rorrer, Skrla, & Scheurich, 2008; Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

Formation of Standard 1 was based on consideration of the importance of knowledge of the theoretical foundations for leadership practice (for example, Blanchard, 2007; Ulrich et al., 1999). Some reviews of scholarship highlighted the importance of knowledge of how to collaboratively develop and implement a shared vision and mission (Clark et al., 1984). The importance of knowledge about how to use evidence in decision making was highlighted in reports informing the formation of the ISLLC 2008 Standards (Creighton, 2007; Knapp, Copland, et al., 2006; Van Houten, 2003).

Other reports confirmed the importance of knowledge of creating and implementing plans to achieve goals of developing quality programs (Clark et al., 1984). Education leaders know that "quality begins with intent" (Deming, 1986, p. 5) and "must be built in at the design stage" (p. 49). A quality program is a well-designed plan to attain ambitious but realistic goals for a school that are pursued in a timely, prudent, and con-certed effort over a sustained period of time resulting in the realization of those goals.

ELCC District 1.1. Candidates understand and can collaboratively develop, articu-late, implement, and steward a shared district vision of learning for a school district.

Commentary and Research Support. Districts are more successful when a broadly shared vision and mission exist and both are used to guide district decisions

(Kissinger, 2007; Togneri & Anderson, as cited in King, 2004). Fullan and Miles (1992) noted that district leaders are responsible for setting an improvement agenda and supporting change at the school level. *Support* is an operative word (Honig et al., 2010; King, 2004; Kissinger, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007; Levine & Stark, 1981; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1990; Pajak & Glickman, 1989; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Spillane & Thompson, 1997; Wimpelberg et al., 1989) and can include removing bureaucratic obstacles that obstruct school-based improvement efforts (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Hoyle et al., 1998) and changing the district's orientation from one of monitoring schools to one of providing service to schools (Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Honig et al., 2010). In distinguishing between districts focused on accountability and those focused on organizational learning, Firestone and González (2007) reported that vision statements for the former emphasized improving student achievement on standardized tests, whereas vision statements for the latter emphasized improving student learning and classroom instruction.

To provide district-wide coherence regarding vision and mission, the development of the district vision precedes and provides a framework for vision development at the school level. Support for and the sustainability of a district vision is enhanced when consensus building is structured and community input is sought in framing the vision (Chance et al., 1994; Pajak & Glickman, 1989). The more broadly the net is cast to reflect the diversity of parents and community members, the more likely people are to feel ownership of and commitment to the vision (Chance et al., 1994; Hoyle et al., 1998). According to Chance et al. (1994), the process of establishing the vision and building consensus through that process is more important than the wording of the vision itself. Trust among district leaders, school personnel, and the larger community is a requisite variable in shared visioning, school improvement (Casner-Lotto, 1989; Honig et al., 2010; Louis & Kruse, as cited in Firestone & González, 2007; Spillane & Thompson, 1997), and educators' acceptance of evaluation outcomes (Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007). Absent trust, suspicion and tension reign (Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

The superintendent's role involves designing, implementing, and supporting the district vision and mission (Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Pajak & Glickman, 1989). Effective superintendents communicate the vision and mission to multiple constituencies (Chance et al., 1994; Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Honig et al., 2010; Jacobson, as cited in Rorrer et al., 2008; King, 2004; Knapp et al., 2007; Lambert, 2004) and enact both by establishing procedures that keep the vision alive across the district and within individual schools (Chance et al., 1994; Lambert 2003), such as using the vision and mission to guide hiring processes (Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

ELCC District 1.2. Candidates understand and can collect and use data to identify district goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and implement district plans to achieve district goals.

Commentary and Research Support. Using evidence to inform district decisions, particularly as decisions relate to learning, has become standard practice (see Fullan, 1985; Hoyle et al., 1998; Knapp et al., 2007; Pajak & Glickman, 1989). Evidence is used to inform vision and mission development, establish district goals, select or develop improvement initiatives, and make revisions to each as needed. Whereas Knapp et al. (2007) acknowledged that data-driven decision making is part of the parlance associated with accountability, they preferred the term "data-informed," arguing that wisely made educational decisions are not "single-mindedly 'driven'" by data but involve the interpretation of evidence informed by "core values and insights" (p. 76). To guide decisions that impact student learning, multiple sources of data (Knapp et al., 2007) collected at various points in time (Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007) provide the most accurate evidence.

To augment district effectiveness regarding student learning and the implementation of the mission, vision, and goals, monitoring and evaluation are needed (Fullan, 1985; Hoyle et al., 1998; King, 2004; Knapp et al., 2007; Levine & Stark, 1981; Pajak & Glickman, 1989; Stringfield, Reynolds, & Schaffer, 2008). In larger districts, district leaders may be unaware of specific conditions at individual schools but can overcome this lacuna through collaboration with school-level personnel.

District leaders can help school-based personnel analyze evidence and conduct root cause analyses about hypothesized causes of problems that emerge from the analysis. When root cause analyses are not used, solutions are likely to be wrongheaded (Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007; D. L. Taylor, 2009). Effective districts use various kinds of evidence (e.g., quantitative and qualitative; Stringfield et al., 2008) collected at different points in time (e.g., periodic walkthroughs of schools and classrooms, annual test scores, document analysis; Honig et al., 2010; Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007) and analyzed in multiple ways (e.g., triangulation, disaggregation, group comparisons, item analyses, or longitudinal analyses; Firestone & González, 2007; Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007). Where districts do not have in-house experts to analyze data, contracted external experts can be used (Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007). Empirical evidence regarding involving community members in using data to assess district decisions or programs was reported but not extensively discussed by Ikemoto and Marsh (2007).

ELCC District 1.3. Candidates understand and can promote continual and sustainable district improvement.

Commentary and Research Support. Research clearly has established the importance of professional development to building the organizational capacity needed to support continuous and sustainable district improvement realized at the school level, that is, by teachers and principals (Clark et al., 1984; Cuban, 1983; Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Honig et al., 2010; Hoyle et al., 1998; King, 2004; Kissinger, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007; Levine & Stark, 1981; McLaughlin, 1990; Pajak & Glickman, 1989; Pink, 1986;

Rorrer et al., 2008; Spillane & Thompson, 1997). Building such capacity is particularly needed when transformational change is undertaken at the district level (Honig et al., 2010; Spillane & Thompson, 1997). Professional development, both formal and informal, is the fulcrum for capacity building and is needed at all levels within the district. Professional development can be targeted and district wide, even in large districts (for example, targeting the district-wide establishment of professional learning communities), and at the same time can support school needs (Hallinger & Edwards, 1992; Honig et al., 2010). Building leaders benefit from professional development designed to augment their instructional knowledge. However, providing such learning opportunities is often overlooked by districts (Barnes, Camburn, Sanders, & Sebastian, 2010; Togneri, as cited in King, 2004), despite its importance to enacting and sustaining the district vision, mission, and improvement initiatives (Fullan, 1985; Hoyle et al., 1998; Kissinger, 2007).

Necessary to sustained improvement is the sustained commitment from district administrators (Spillane & Thompson, 1997). Where a strong, district-wide commitment to the vision and mission exists, superintendents can use the vision and mission to mold state and sometimes federal policies to preclude the interruption or dilution of local improvement initiatives that would otherwise result (Rorrer et al., 2008). District leaders are also instrumental in aligning the district vision, mission, goals, and resources with those at each school. Among the most important resources a district has are people and time. Implicit in resource alignment is how human resources are used (Honig et al., 2010; Lambert, 2003; Rorrer et al., 2008; Schlechty, 1988; Spillane & Thompson, 1997) and how present capacities of individuals are valued and supported (Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

ELCC District 1.4. Candidates understand and can evaluate district progress and revise district plans supported by district stakeholders.

Commentary and Research Support. Districts vary in size and therefore in the number and responsibilities of district leaders. Larger districts usually have the needed staff to monitor implementation supportively and to formative evaluations. Smaller districts may need to hire outside experts (Honig et al., 2010; Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007; Pink, 1986) if financial resources exist (Spillane & Thompson, 1997). Seldom are substantive change initiatives undertaken that do not require revision (Cook, 2001; Honig et al., 2010); therefore, district leaders need to be able develop plans to monitor program implementation and assess their effectiveness in the context of the district vision and mission (Hoyle et al., 1998; Stringfield et al., 2008).

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 2

Margaret Terry Orr
Bank Street College

ELCC District Standard 2.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by sustaining a district culture conducive to collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students; creating and evaluating a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular and instructional district program; developing and supervising the instructional and leadership capacity across the district; and promoting the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning within the district.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 2.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 2 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of principles for advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a district culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth. Earlier reviews found strong evidence that knowledge of leadership approaches to developing school culture and climate is critically important (C. S. Anderson, 1982). This is supported by more recent scholarship confirming that candidates must have knowledge of the elements of district culture and ways it can be influenced to develop school culture and to ensure student success. Culture is constructed from a set of "behavioral norms that exemplify the best that a district stands for. It means building an institution in which people believe strongly, with which they identify personally, and to which they gladly render their loyalty" (Razik & Swanson, 2010, p. 123). Education leaders recognize that districts do not have a culture; they *are a culture* "constructed through aesthetic means and taking aesthetic form" (Samier, 2011, p. 277). The culture of a district consists of thought; language; the use of symbols and images; and such other

aspects as visions, missions, logos, trophies, rituals, legends, and important celebrations and ceremonies. Candidates must also understand the relationship of culture to climate. Climate has been compared to the personality of an individual or how a district "feels" when it is experienced holistically. The differing types of climate were "invented" as opposed to "discovered" (Halpin, 1966, pp. 131, 138). More recently, Conley (2006) defined climate as "the conditions and shared perceptions of organizational variables thought to affect organizational functioning, such as teacher morale and principal leadership style" (p. 153).

To develop a district culture and climate supportive of enhanced student learning requires knowledge of creating conditions of organizational transparency. The concept means that one can "see through" the actions, beliefs, values, and motivations of leaders. It implies being open and forthright about who is proposing what, for what purposes, and to what ends. It means that leaders have no hidden agendas and that it is clear in their actions who benefits and who does not from change. Furthermore, it means that district leaders take actions to make sure meetings are open, agendas are announced in advance, participation is invited, and comments and recommendations from all are seriously considered.

Research on the role of district-level educational leaders in developing a district culture and instructional program is fairly recent. Much of the historical research has focused on districts as the context for principals' work or narrowly on the superintendent's role, but not on the role of district leaders more generally. A growing body of research, however, shows that when district leaders align and focus their work in all these areas, they have a strongly positive effect on student learning (Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Togneri & Anderson, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006). The research confirms that candidates must have knowledge of how to align and focus work on student learning (Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Seashore Louis et al., 2010; Togneri & Anderson, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006). This requires understanding of knowledge of human development theories, proven learning, and motivational theories and of how diversity influences the learning process (Glass, Bjork, & Bruner, 2000; Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; Orr, 2006; Resnick & Glennan, 2003; Wallace, 1994). Candidates for district-level leadership must know how to develop motivating student learning environments (Cotton & Savard, 1980; P. K. Murphy & Alexander, 2006). Theories of human development (Armstrong, 2007) and evidence found in case studies of how improvements in teaching and learning can be achieved (Schmoker, 2006) confirm that both are essential to effective education leadership. A review of literature by J. Murphy et al. (2006) on learning-centered leadership concluded that instructionally focused leadership paired with leadership processes are required for high-performing schools and districts.

Infusing technology into leadership practices has become a recognized domain of practical knowledge essential to effective instructional leadership (Brooks-Young, 2002,

2004).   Central to instructional leadership is knowledge of curriculum planning. This requires that candidates be familiar with theories of curriculum. Curriculum theories are narratives that attempt to answer the age-old question, "Which knowledge is of most worth?" According to Wraga (2006), there are three broad types of curriculum theories: (a) philosophical-prescriptive, (b) professional-instrumental, and, (c) exegetic-academic. The philosophical-prescriptive approach seeks to determine the most important knowledge by denoting the nature of educational purposes. The most obvious example is the traditional-academic curriculum as described by Mortimer Adler. In the second type of curriculum theory, the approach is to focus on the processes or methods to make decisions about curriculum. The most famous example is that created by Ralph Tyler. The exegetic-academic approach is not aimed at improving curriculum practice, but rather is a way of thinking about academic texts or theoretical lenses in viewing curriculum. Education leaders draw from curriculum theories to develop a rigorous and coherent curriculum. They recognize that a curriculum, as an expression of ordered content, should be constructed or developed following an explicit design, rather than simply throwing disparate elements together and hoping they fit somehow at the end. It means curriculum construction with forethought to obtain well-considered outcomes, where the whole is greater than the parts and not simply the parts clumped together. Education leaders support the expectation that the curriculum will contain the highest or most difficult elements to consider or to acquire in learning by all students.

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 2 was recognized in the empirical evidence, craft knowledge, and theoretical writings that supported the development of ISLLC's Standard 2 (ISLLC, 2008, p. 18) "promoting the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (see J. Murphy, 1990). Classic theories of motivation (Bandura, 1986; Herzberg et al., 1959/2004; Maslow, 1954; McClelland, 1961; Vroom, 1964; Weiner, 1986), social control (Glasser, 1986), and goals (Ames, 1992) are foundational sources of knowledge for candidates seeking to nurture a culture of trust and to motivate faculty and students. There are three levels of educational trust, according to Schmidt (2010). The first level of trust is *predictability*, where individuals can rely on established and predictable behavior. The second level of trust is related to individuals such as leaders who are perceived as being *trustworthy* when they exhibit predictable behavior and are responsive to the needs of staff, parents, and stakeholders. The third level of trust is *faith*, which consists of emotional security, where there is the expectation that leaders and institutions will keep their promises. Evidence of the importance of applied knowledge of how to create a culture of trust, learning, and high expectations was found in scholarship on the impact that leaders have on building learning communities (Boyd & Hord, 1994). Knowledge of the nature and practices of distributive leadership was identified as essential in a number of scholarly works (Bennett et al., 2003).

Finally, much of the research on what candidates know (and need to know) about the role and effects of district-level leadership is reflected in survey research about challenges facing the superintendency (Farkas, Johnson, Duffett, & Foleno, 2001; Glass et al., 2000) and findings from meta-analyses and case study research on how district leadership matters to school improvement (Leithwood et al., 2004; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Togneri & Anderson, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006). This research confirms that candidates must know how to create a culture of continuous improvement, recognizing that the quest for improvement should not end with any particular state of accomplishment, but rather involves continuing efforts to attain new or higher levels of attainment with renewed effort.

ELCC District 2.1. Candidates understand and can advocate, nurture, and sustain a district culture and instructional program conducive to student learning through collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the elements of district culture and ways it can be influenced to ensure student success; the ways district culture influences school culture; and the ways human development theories, proven learning and motivational theories, and knowledge of diversity influence the learning process (Glass et al., 2000; Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; Orr, 2006; Resnick & Glennan, 2002; Wallace, 1994). Candidates are able to work collaboratively with others (school board, the community, etc.) to accomplish district improvement goals (J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1988; Rorrer et al., 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006); lead change and collaboration that improves district practices and student outcomes (Cohen & Ball, 1999; Hightower, 2002; Leithwood & Prestine, 2002; Resnick & Glennan, 2002; Togneri & Anderson, 2003); incorporate cultural competence in development of programs, curriculum, and instruction (Bustamante et al., 2009); recognize, celebrate, and incorporate diversity in policies, programs, and practices; apply human development theory, proven learning and motivational theories, and the influences of diversity to the learning process (Cohen & Ball, 1999; Wallace, 1994); use learning management systems to support personalized learning (Snyder, 2002); develop district-wide comprehensive programs that meet the diverse learning needs and interests of students and school personnel (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Massell & Goertz, 2002; Snipes, Doolittle, & Herlihy, 2002; Togneri & Anderson, 2003); and promote equity, fairness, and respect among school board members, administrators, faculty, parents, students, and the community (J. A. Marsh, 2002; Plecki et al., 2009; Rorrer et al., 2008; Shannon & Bylsma, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

Several researchers have reported on ways that districts can best strengthen their organizational and leadership practices to improve schools. Waters and Marzano (2006) synthesized available research to identify four district-leader practices that most contributed to district improvement and performance: (a) establishing nonnegotiable

goals for instruction and achievement, (b) monitoring these goals, (c) providing sufficient resources, and (d) decentralizing authority to principals while holding them accountable. Other researchers identified systemic strategies and practices to support urban district reform. These strategies include (a) developing systemic coherence, (b) redefining the role of the principal, (c) taking a systems perspective, and (d) supporting leadership development (Madda, Halverson, & Gomez, 2007). These researchers concluded that districts that pursued coherence through their reform-initiative design processes created better alignment and support and were more likely to achieve successful implementation of those initiatives at the school level. McLaughlin and Talbert (2002), using survey and case study research, found that reforming districts requires a focus on the whole system as the unit of change. Other multiple-case-study research suggested district leaders seeking to enhance student learning outcomes should undertake district-wide reform in five areas that require (a) redefining the role of principals, (b) focusing on instructional leadership, (c) delegating responsibility, (d) using data to guide instructional decisions, and (e) supporting the professional development of teachers (Honig et al., 2010; Resnick & Glennan, 2002; Togneri & Anderson, 2003).

ELCC District 2.2. Candidates understand and can create and evaluate a comprehensive, rigorous, and coherent curricular and instructional district program.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the development of quality curriculum, including knowledge of (a) principles and theories of learning, (b) appropriate instructional techniques, and (d) monitoring and evaluating instruction (Leithwood et al., 2004; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1986); the use of benchmarks, indicators, research methods, technology, and information systems to assess alignment of the curriculum; the acquirement and allocation of resources (Waters & Marzano, 2006); multiple methods of evaluation, accountability systems, data collection, and analysis of data (Kowalski, 2009); and program evaluation (Farkas et al., 2001; Glass et al., 2000; Leithwood et al., 2004). Candidates are able to use data to analyze the state of district curriculum and instruction (Massell & Goertz, 2002); provide district resources to support quality curriculum and instruction (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Plecki et al., 2009; Rorrer et al., 2008; Stein & D'Amico, 2002; Waters & Marzano, 2006); use technology to monitor and improve curriculum and instruction; align curriculum and instruction with assessment (Resnick & Glennan, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006); design evaluation systems, make district plans based on assessment data, and provide feedback based on data (Plecki et al., 2009; Waters & Marzano, 2006); use technology to profile student and personnel performance in a district and analyze differences among subgroups (Plecki et al., 2009); design, develop, and utilize district assessments for instruction and reporting (Plecki et al., 2009; Togneri & Anderson, 2003); interpret information and communicate progress toward vision and goals for educators, the district community, and other stakeholders (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995); use disaggregated data to improve instructional programs within the district (Plecki et al., 2009);

use effective technology and performance management systems where appropriate to improve instructional programs within the district (Snyder, 2002); and use technology to monitor, analyze, and evaluate assessment results for accountability reporting and to guide continuous district improvement (Plecki et al., 2009).

ELCC District 2.3. Candidates understand and can develop and supervise the instructional and leadership capacity across the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of standards for high-quality teacher, principal, and district practice; principles of quality professional development; leadership theories; change processes; evaluation of change and professional development; and district systems that promote efficient practices in the management of people, processes, and resources (Glass et al., 2000; Leithwood et al., 2004; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1988; Plecki et al., 2009). Candidates are able to provide feedback to improve district teaching and learning; work collaboratively at the district level to improve practice (Massell & Goertz, 2002; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002); monitor professional development and continuous improvement programs (Corcoran, Fuhrman, & Belcher, 2001; Massell & Goertz, 2002; Plecki et al., 2009; Stein & D'Amico, 2002); facilitate leadership through development activities that focus on growth and student learning (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Plecki et al., 2009; Resnick & Glennan, 2003); design district-level professional growth plans that reflect national professional development standards (Campbell, DeArmond, & Schumwinger, 2004; Massell & Goertz, 2002); use a variety of approaches to improve staff performance (Firestone, Mangin, Martinez, & Polovsky, 2005; Massell & Goertz, 2002; Odden & Kelly, 2008; Stein & D'Amico, 2002); and develop district systems for efficient management of policies, procedures, and practices to optimize instructional time (Miles & Frank, 2008; J. Murphy & Hallinger, 1988; Snyder, 2002; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

ELCC District 2.4. Candidates understand and can promote the most effective and appropriate district technologies to support teaching and learning within the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about technology as pedagogical and administrative tools (Zoeller, 2002). Candidates are able to use and promote technology to enrich district curriculum and instruction, monitor instructional practices, and provide assistance to administrators; and use technology for district improvement (Campbell et al., 2004; Plecki et al., 2009; Snyder, 2002).

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 3

Diana Pounder
University of Central Arkansas
Gary Crow
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ELCC District Standard 3.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by ensuring the management of the district's organization, operation, and resources through monitoring and evaluating district management and operational systems; efficiently using human, fiscal, and technological resources within the district; promoting district-level policies and procedures that protect the welfare and safety of students and staff across the district; developing district capacity for distributed leadership; and ensuring that district time focuses on high-quality instruction and student learning.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 3.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 3 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of best practices regarding management of a district organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment. This includes knowledge of how to create systemic management and operations, organize educational improvement efforts, coordinate accountability systems, and create policy coherence that influences school outcomes and student learning (Earthman & Lemasters, 2004; Honig, 2010; Rorrer et al., 2008; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). School outcomes are the results accruing from decisions or actions from those responsible for leading a school. The results can be expressed in terms of student learning measures (achievement test scores) or student categorizations such as dropouts, promotions, and graduation rates. In order to improve school outcomes, candidates must gain knowledge of the importance of creating systems that focus school personnel and other resources on common goals and create processes that facilitate effective teaching and learning

(Earthman & Lemasters, 2009; Firestone & Martinez, 2009; Seashore Louis et al., 2010; Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 3 was recognized in research informing the formation of the ISLLC 2008 standards, which also found knowledge of the nature of distributed leadership to be essential (Goleman et al., 2002). Distributive leadership is based on the idea that there is a social distribution of tasks associated with leadership, specifically that leadership tasks are spread over a group of people in schools beyond the singular administrator in charge. Distributed leadership approaches neither remove the need for an effective singular leader nor necessarily reduce the work of the leader. Although there are many similarities with democratic leadership, distributed leadership is different from democratic leadership as it accepts power differentials in roles within the schools even as leadership tasks are dispersed (Woods, 2005).

ELCC District 3.1. Candidates understand and can monitor and evaluate district management and operational systems.

Commentary and Research Support. For many years, researchers and others largely dismissed the role of district administrators in school improvement efforts and student outcomes. However, more recent research has revealed the potency of effective district-level leadership in creating systemic management and operations, organized educational improvement efforts, coordinated accountability systems, and policy coherence that influence school outcomes and student learning (Brandon, Morrow & Schmold, 2011; Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood, 2008; Rorrer et al., 2008). District leaders can particularly play an important role in creating systems that focus school personnel and other resources on common goals and creating processes that facilitate effective teaching and learning (Earthman & Lemasters, 2004; Firestone & Martinez, 2009; Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Seashore Louis et al. (2010) concluded from their investigation of links to student achievement that productive forms of distributed leadership in schools create new challenges for principals, and without sustained encouragement and support from district leaders they are unlikely to become common practice.

ELCC District 3.2. Candidates understand and can efficiently use human, fiscal, and technological resources within the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Resource administration (e.g., human resource administration functions, fiscal management, and technology utilization) can be highly centralized at the district level or highly decentralized among schools within a district—or typically some combination of the two. Thus, the research support for

district-level resource administration is largely the same as the research support for building-level resource administration. Seashore Louis et al. (2010) underlined the importance of district leadership in ensuring coordination and coherence in support for schools across different organizational units at the district level.

ELCC District 3.3. Candidates understand and can promote district-level policies and procedures that protect the welfare and safety of students and staff across the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Although school-level leaders are often the "first responders" to a school safety or security incident, it is the district leaders who bear much of the responsibility for proactively developing health, safety, and security policies; procedural guidelines; and interventions for all schools, school personnel, and students within a district. Given some of the more dramatic school violence, health, and crisis management incidents occurring in schools over the past decade, more scholarship has emerged emphasizing the role of district leadership in preparing for or preventing health, safety, and security crises. For example, Knox and Roberts (2005) summarized literature on crisis intervention and management and articulated specific responsibilities at the school, district, and community levels for effective health and safety crisis prevention, intervention, and management. Further, research on school safety and security is becoming more rigorous and conceptually grounded as researchers develop this knowledge base (e.g., Mayer & Furlong, 2010).

ELCC District 3.4. Candidates understand and can develop district capacity for distributed leadership.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the meaning of distributed leadership and how to create and sustain it (Harris, 2009; Leithwood et al., 2009; Seashore Louis et al., 2010; Spillane, 2006; Spillane et al., 2001). Although most of the research on distributed leadership has focused on the school level, recent research at the district level suggests that district administrators play a significant role in supporting distributed leadership by building the capacity of principals, teachers, and central office staff through such actions as aligning curriculum, instruction, and assessment; creating policy coherence; maintaining an equity focus; and reorienting the organization (Rorrer et al., 2008; Sipple & Killeen, 2004). More specifically, research has demonstrated that districts support teacher leadership through monitoring, procuring, and distributing resources; providing professional development; and developing appropriate curriculum mandates (Firestone & Martinez, 2009; Gigante, 2006). Seashore Louis et al. (2010) concluded that student learning is enhanced when district leaders use distributed leadership support to help create a stronger sense of stability in the improvement agenda for the school and district.

Candidates are able to identify leadership capabilities of staff at various levels of the district. Evidence suggests that effective district administrators view the school and district relationship as a partnership and have the skills to include all district office units to support school reform efforts toward improving teaching and learning (Honig et al., 2010). Effective district administrators model collaboration skills and authentically involve district and school personnel in decision-making processes. In their meta-analysis of research on district leadership, Waters and Marzano (2006) found that among those leadership responsibilities significantly related to an increase in student achievement is collaborative goal setting, where superintendents involve all relevant stakeholders, including board members, district office staff, and building-level administrators in establishing nonnegotiable goals related to achievement and instruction. Similarly, Seashore Louis et al. (2010) reported that schools benefit from coordinated support of district leaders provided in relation to district goals and based on shared understandings of school improvement plans and needs.

ELCC District 3.5. Candidates understand and can ensure that district time focuses on supporting high-quality school instruction and student learning.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about how to manage personal managerial and leadership responsibilities, manage time and priorities, and create and manage district schedules. Candidates are also able to use power and political skills in ethical ways, serve as a role model for effective management and leadership, write district policies that protect instructional time and schedules, and develop a master schedule for the district. To exercise power, district leaders must have the capacity to change their environment in some way or have the capacity to work with and through others to change an organization or a society in specific ways to attain desired goals or outcomes.

Districts impact the complexity of school leaders' management responsibilities and the potential for distracting them from instructional efforts and agendas. Effective district administrators, however, are also a source for supporting school leaders' efforts and efficacy toward instructional leadership by creating district support systems that protect principals' time, provide role models for being instructional leaders and effective managers, and focus priorities on school-based instructional leadership (Earthman & Lemasters, 2004; Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Portin et al., 2009; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). These effective district administrators also ensure that teacher and organizational time is focused on quality instruction and student learning by setting priorities that align goals for achievement and instruction; finding necessary resources such as time, money, personnel, and materials; modeling an understanding of instructional design; and developing the types of political skills necessary to align the work of boards and the commitment of the community with nonnegotiable goals for achievement and instruction (Waters & Marzano, 2006). Seashore Louis et al. (2010)

confirmed the importance of district leadership in providing a wide range of intensive opportunities for teachers and school-level leaders to develop the capacities they need to accomplish the district's student-learning agenda.

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 4

Pamela Tucker
University of Virginia
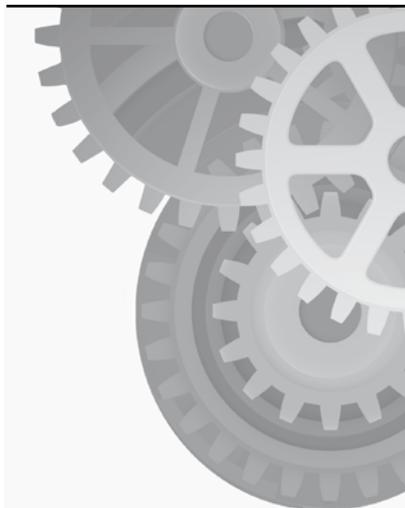
ELCC District Standard 4.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources for the district by collecting and analyzing information pertinent to improvement of the district's educational environment; promoting an understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources throughout the district; building and sustaining positive district relationships with families and caregivers; and cultivating productive district relationships with community partners.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 4.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 4 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of (a) district strategies for collaboration with faculty, families, and caregivers and district community partners; (b) diverse community interests and needs; and (c) best practice for mobilizing district community resources. Candidates must have knowledge about (a) the collection and analysis of evidence pertinent to the district educational environment (Bulkley, Christman, Goertz, & Lawrence, 2010; Sanders, 2008); (b) the use of appropriate strategies to collect, analyze, and interpret evidence pertinent to the district environment; and (c) how to communicate information about the district to the community (Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Madda et al., 2007; Sanders, 2008). Candidates understand that conducting a needs assessment requires gathering information through a process of *discovery*. This process might involve considering what the community wants the school to do. Needs assessments also involves processes of noting *discrepancies* between a current state of affairs and a desired state of affairs, as

in, "our current levels of reading achievement are not what we want them to be. What actions must we take to reach the desired levels?"

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 4 was recognized in research showing that education leaders require such knowledge when collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing the community. Reports on practices in using evidence to inform decision making highlighted the importance knowledge of strategies for data-based decision making (Creighton, 2007).

ELCC District 4.1. Candidates understand and can collaborate with faculty and community members by collecting and analyzing information pertinent to the improvement of the district's educational environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the collection and analysis of data and evidence pertinent to the district's educational environment (Bulkley et al., 2010; Sanders, 2008). They are able to use the appropriate strategies to collect, analyze, and interpret data and evidence pertinent to the district environment and to communicate information about the district to the community (Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Madda et al., 2007; Sanders, 2008; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). Although there are few empirical studies on the use of evidence by districts to communicate with the community, there is evidence from case studies, particularly on the National Network of Partnership Schools, supporting the value of fully understanding the community served by a school district (Epstein, 2005; Koschoreck, 2001; Sanders, 2008); Sanders & Epstein, 2000). Studies such as one by Madda et al., (2007) on the development and dissemination of student achievement reports are beginning to explore the complexity of coordinating district initiatives with reform efforts in local schools. The need for coherence in goals and design of tools to support local implementation of new practices is clear. The use of evidence to drive improvement efforts must be coordinated among leaders in the central office and at the building level through authentic partnerships (Honig et al., 2010; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). Seashore Louis et al. (2010) underscored the importance of district leadership in providing assistance for teachers and school-level leaders in accessing, interpreting, and making use of evidence for their decisions about teaching and learning.

ELCC District 4.2. Candidates understand and can mobilize community resources by promoting understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources throughout the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of cultural competence and diverse cultural, social, and intellectual community resources. Cultural

competence refers to the ability of a leader to understand his or her own cultural background and values and work successfully with individuals of different cultures without engaging in deficit categorization of them. This capacity is sometimes referred to as engaging in leadership with cross-cultural skills. Candidates are able to identify and use diverse community resources to improve district programs and meet the needs of all students. The empirical basis for this knowledge of community resources and the skill to use this knowledge to enhance education is richly developed at the building level but is largely absent at the district level (Crowson, 1998). The importance of district leadership for encouraging community outreach, communication, and engagement, however, is strongly advocated in the literature (Epstein et al., 2009; Hoyle, Bjork, Collier, & Glass, 2005; Knapp et al., 2003; Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Sanders et al., 2009), but there is a need for studies that examine the effectiveness and appropriateness of various strategies based on the needs and values of different contexts.

ELCC District 4.3. Candidates understand and can respond to community interests and needs by building and sustaining positive district relationships with families and caregivers.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the needs of students, parents, or caregivers; the organizational culture that promotes open communication with families and caregivers; and the strategies for effective oral and written communication and collaboration with families and caregivers. Little research has been conducted on the practices of superintendents' work in building positive relationships with families and their effectiveness (Crowson, 1998), but there is ample guidance on the important role they play in establishing goals for family engagement, facilitating communication with families and communities, and creating structures and mechanisms to support engagement (Epstein et al., 2009; Hoyle et al., 2005; Kowalski, 2004, 2006; Sanders, 2008, 2009). The actual development of ongoing relationships with families, however, is often done by school leaders (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009; Crowson, 1998; Kowalski, 2004) and parent liaisons (Howland, Anderson, Smiley, & Abbott, 2006; Sanders, 2008). Due to multiple factors, including more site-based management and decentralization, school leadership has assumed more responsibility for engagement with families and caregivers (Crowson, 1998; Epstein et al., 2005).

Candidates are able to assess the needs of students, parents, or caregivers; articulate a vision of district leadership characterized by respect for children and their families; apply oral and written communication and collaboration strategies to develop district relationships with families and caregivers; and involve families and caregivers in decision making about their children's education (Hoyle et al., 2005; Kowalski, 2006; Kronley & Handley, 2003).

ELCC District 4.4. Candidates understand and can respond to community interests and needs by building and sustaining productive district relationships with community partners.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the needs of district community partners, the district organizational culture that promotes open communication with community partners, and district strategies for effective oral and written communication and collaboration to develop and sustain productive relations with community partners (Honig et al., 2010; Hoyle et al., 2005; Kowalski, 2006; Kronley & Handley, 2003). Contrary to the traditional pathway of influence, there is some literature on the role of schools in the revitalization of communities that surround them and the different approaches that can be taken to school and community collaboration to support urban education reform (Crowson, 1998; Warren, 2008).

Candidates are able to assess the needs of district community partners, articulate a vision of district leadership characterized by respect for community partners, and apply oral and written communication and collaboration strategies to develop district relationships with community partners. Communication with internal and external partners is considered integral to the stewardship of central office transformation efforts to improve teaching and learning (Honig et al., 2010). Guidance exists on the importance of district-level leaders developing relationships with board members, the media, parents, community-based leaders, and state legislators (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2008; Epstein et al., 2009; Honig et al., 2010; Hoyle et al., 2005; Knapp et al., 2003; Kowalski, 2006; Kronley & Handley, 2003), but little empirical research exists on the nature of these relationships, their impact on district activities, or the relationship to school-based partnerships. The best evidence available, which comes from the National Network of Partnership Schools (Sanders, 2009), indicated that support by district leadership and school board members was critical to program viability of the various partnerships developed by each of the schools.

ELCC DISTRICT-LEVEL STANDARD 5

Michelle D. Young

University of Virginia

University Council for Educational Administration

ELCC District Standard 5.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity and fairness and in an ethical manner to ensure a district system of accountability for every student's academic and social success by modeling district principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior as related to their roles within the district; safeguarding the values of democracy, equity, and diversity within the district; evaluating the potential moral and legal consequences of decision making in the district; and promoting social justice within the district to ensure individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 5.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 5 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of how to act with integrity and fairness and how to engage in ethical practice. Ethical practice refers to the concept that the implementation of leadership actions not only must adhere to the laws of the state and regulations concerning fidelity to the spirit of such laws, but also must rest on moral principles of justice and fairness. Ethical practice rests on the moral principles of building goodness and community grounded in a collective commitment to the pursuit of truth and truthfulness in operations and personal interactions with others. In order to engage in ethical practice, candidates must have knowledge of federal, state, and local legal/policy guidance to create operational definitions of accountability, equity, and social justice (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Rorrer et al., 2008; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar,

2008). Candidates understand that fundamentally social justice means *fairness* and it represents a perspective in regard to how "fundamental rights and duties are assigned and on the economic opportunities and social conditions," which are established "in various sectors of society," including but not limited to schools (Rawls, 1971, p. 7).

Candidates must also have knowledge of (a) how to effectively implement policy (Bulkley et al., 2010; Bush, 2008; Center for Educational Leadership, 2007; Honig et al., 2010; Spillane, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006); (b) how to formulate sound solutions to educational dilemmas across a range of content areas in educational leadership (Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Langlois, 2004; J. Smith & Blase, 1991); and (c) the relationship between social justice, district culture, and student achievement (Koschoreck, 2001; Lopez, 2003; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Stringfield, Datnow, Ross, & Snively, 1998; Theoharris, 2001; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002).

The importance of the knowledge presented in evidence supporting Standard 5 was recognized in research on practices that promote social justice identified as important supports for the 2008 ISLLC Policy Standards. Support for the importance of this knowledge was informed by scholarship on practices of inclusive leadership (J. Ryan, 2006) and leadership for diversity (Tillman, 2004). Candidates' knowledge of diversity is based on (a) the recognition that schools in a democracy serve a broad range of goals and purposes and that these are sometimes at cross-purposes; (b) the recognition that the children coming to school do not all have the same family, ethnic, racial, or religious upbringing or perceptions; and (c) the valuing of cultural, ethnic, and racial difference, as opposed to insisting that the values of some are promoted while differences in other are negated, undervalued, or devalued. Whereas a celebration of difference is often recognized in schools, the concept of *diversity* is more complicated and complex than mere recognition. It also means confronting the privileges some children have compared to others who are different and working to creating understanding and ways to confront the inequities involved (Lopez, 2006).

Observations by education experts have affirmed the importance of knowledge of reflective practices for education leaders if they are to model principles of self-awareness and ethical behavior (Sparks, 2005). Reflective practice is the means by which practitioners gain a greater sense of self-awareness and perception regarding their beliefs, values, motivations, and actions in relationship to desired goals or administrative decisions that subsequently define their performance and serve as the focus for improvement over time. Theoretical and practice-focused commentaries noted the need for candidates for district leadership to have knowledge of the moral and legal consequences of decision making (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Papalwis, 2004; Mawhinney, 2005; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008).

ELCC District 5.1. Candidates understand and can act with integrity and fairness to ensure a district system of accountability for every student's academic and social success.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of federal, state, and local legal/policy guidance to create operational definitions of accountability, equity, and social justice (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Rorrer et al., 2008; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). The importance of district leaders' knowledge of policy also is connected to their ability to facilitate their leadership team's understanding of policy and its connection to equity and social justice (Scheurich & Skrla, 2003), as well as their ability to effectively implement the policy (Bulkley et al., 2010; Bush, 2008; Center for Educational Leadership, 2007; Honig et al., 2010; Spillane, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

Candidates are able to plan, implement, and evaluate policies, procedures, and practices within the district that support equity and students' academic and social successes (Bulkley et al., 2010; Bush, 2008; Center for Educational Leadership, 2007; Hoyle & Collier, 2006; Koschoreck, 2001; Leithwood, Steinbach, & Raun, 1993; Lopez, 2003; Lord & Maher, 1993; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002). They are able to use appropriate strategies to collect, analyze, and interpret evidence on school and student performance, needs, and communities and to use that information to develop district policies, programs, and practices designed to support equitable, appropriate, and excellent educational opportunities for all students (Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Madda et al., 2007; Spillane, 2004; Stringfield et al., 1998; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Studies also have made clear that coherence in program goals, design, and implementation is essential for supporting local implementation of new practices (Rorrer et al., 2008; Spillane, 2004; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Limited research, such as Madda et al.'s (2007) on the development and dissemination of student achievement reports, has elucidated the complexity of coordinating district initiatives with reform efforts in local schools. The use of evidence to drive improvement efforts must be coordinated among leaders in the central office and at the building level (Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 1993).

ELCC District 5.2. Candidates understand and can model principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior as related to their roles within the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of the legal and professional organizations' information to understand the basic tenants of ethical behavior; the relationship between ethical behavior, district culture, and student achievement; and the effect of ethical behavior on one's own leadership (Chouhoud

& Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). Whereas scholarship frequently has asserted the importance of leaders affiliating with and accessing the knowledge of professional associations (Hoyle et al., 2005; Kowalski, 2003), little empirical research has examined this issue directly. However, research has indicated that educational leaders need to have a basic understanding of ethics to inform their work (Beckner, 2004; Evers, 1985; Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Meyer, 1984; J. Smith & Blase, 1991), particularly work that involves complex decision making (Langlois, 2004). Candidates are able to formulate a district-level leadership platform grounded in ethical standards and practices and to analyze decisions in terms of established ethical standards. The empirical basis for developing a district-level leadership platform grounded in ethical standards, like at the building-level, is underdeveloped. However, empirical research does support the idea that district leaders should understand and work from a personal or professional code of ethics (Hoyle et al., 2005; Knapp et al., 2003; Kowalski, 2003, 2006). There is a need for research that examines the relationship between district leaders' ethical codes and practices and the effectiveness and appropriateness of their leadership practices on student achievement in a variety of contexts.

ELCC District 5.3. Candidates understand and can safeguard the values of democracy, equity, and diversity within the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge of democratic values, equity, and diversity (Lopez, 2003; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Theoharris, 2001). Candidates are able to develop, implement, and evaluate district policies and procedures that support democratic values, equitable practices, and a respect for diversity district wide (Koschoreck, 2001). Little research has been conducted on the practices of superintendents' work in building democratic communities, but there is research on the important role they play in establishing fostering district culture (Meyer, 1984; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001). Furthermore, research has indicated that district leaders' understanding of equity influences their planning and decision making (Lopez, 2003; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2001), making knowledge development around equity and diversity particularly important. It appears that district leaders' understanding of equity is connected to their ability to facilitate their leadership team's understanding of policy and its connection to equity and social justice (Scheurich & Skrla, 2003) as well as their ability to effectively implement the policy (Bulkley et al., 2010; Bush, 2008; Center for Educational Leadership, 2007; Honig et al., 2010; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002; Stringfield et al., 1998).

ELCC District 5.4. Candidates understand and can evaluate the potential moral and legal consequences of decision making in the district.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about current ethical and moral issues facing education, government, and business and their consequences. While scholarship does suggest that district leaders stay informed of current events and their impact on their schools, community, and the education field in general (Beck, 1994; Evers, 1985; J. Smith & Blase, 1991), there is little empirical research that ties this level of knowledge to effective practice. That said, research focused on district-level decision making emphasizes the importance of gathering and analyzing data from a variety of perspectives and modeling possible outcomes, prior to making a decision (Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Hoyle & Collier, 2006; Koschoreck, 2001; Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Langlois, 2004; Madda et al., 2007; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Candidates are able to formulate sound solutions to educational dilemmas across a range of content areas in educational leadership (Gross & Shapiro, 2004; Langlois, 2004; J. Smith & Blase, 1991). Leithwood et al. (1993) noted that district leaders' problem solving and decision making can be improved when undertaken within a group context. Moreover, communication is considered integral to the stewardship of district-led reform efforts (Honig et al., 2010).

ELCC District 5.5. Candidates understand and can promote social justice within the district to ensure individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling.

Commentary and Research Support. Candidates have knowledge about the relationship between social justice, district culture, and student achievement (Koschoreck, 2001; Lopez, 2003; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Stringfield et al., 1998; Theoharris, 2001; C. M. Tucker & Herman, 2002). The research in this area stresses the importance of district leaders understanding the culture and needs of the communities and students they serve (Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Madda et al., 2007; Sanders, 2008). Candidates are able to develop and evaluate district policies, programs, and practices that ensure social justice, equity, confidentiality, acceptance, and respect between and among students and faculty that support student achievement (Bulkley et al., 2010; Center for Educational Leadership, 2007; Lopez, 2003; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2002). They are able to use appropriate strategies to collect, analyze, and interpret data on school and student performance, needs, and communities and to use that information to develop district policies, programs, and practices designed to support equitable, appropriate, and excellent educational opportunities for all students (Hoyle & Collier, 2006; Kowalski, 2003, 2006; Koschoreck, 2001; Madda et al., 2007; Spillane, 2004; Stringfield et al., 1998; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Studies also have made clear that coherence in program goals, design, and implementation is essential for supporting local implementation of new practices (Rorrer et al., 2008). Research also has emphasized that improvement efforts must be coordinated among leaders in the central district office and at the building level (Honig et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 1993).

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 6

Hanne Mawhinney
University of Maryland

ELCC District Standard 6.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context within the district through advocating for district students, families, and caregivers; acting to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning; and anticipating and assessing emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt district-level leadership strategies.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 6.0

Evidence presented in support of Standard 6 confirms that a district-level education leader must have knowledge of how to respond to and influence the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context within a district. This includes knowledge of (a) policies, laws, and regulations enacted by state, local, and federal authorities that affect school districts (B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Fowler, 2000; Kowalski, 2006; Mawhinney, 2008; Resnick & Glennan, 2003; Rorrer et al., 2008; Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Stringfield et al., 1998); (b) key concepts in school law and current legal issues that could impact the district (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Seyfarth, 2008; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008); and (c) teachers' and students' rights (Cambron et al., 2004; Stefkovich, 2006). It also includes knowledge of how to apply policies consistently and fairly across districts. Candidates must gain knowledge of the fair and consistent application of policies focused on (a) accountability (Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Firestone, 2009; Rorrer et al., 2008),

(b) budgeting (Bird, Wang, & Murray, 2009; P. A. Johnson & Ingle, 2009; Rodosky & Munoz, 2009; Slosson, 2000), (c) special education (Russo & Osborne, 2008c), and (d) legal issues (Cambron et al., 2004). Candidates must also have knowledge of how to respond to the changing cultural context of the district (Bolman & Deal, 2002; Falmer, 2009; Fullan, 2005; Glass et al., 2000; Lytle, 2009; J. A. Marsh, 2002; Mawhinney, 2010; Rorrer et al., 2008; Searby & Williams, 2007).

The widespread recognition in the practice and policy community that district-level education leaders must be prepared to understand, respond to, and influence the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context of education provided an important impetus for the formation of this domain of the ISLLC standards. The ISLLC standards were also informed by craft and practice scholarship on the importance of knowledge of "habits of the mind" that are "characteristics of what intelligent people do when they are confronted with problems, the resolutions to which are not immediately apparent" (Costa & Kallick, 2008, p. 15).

ELCC District 6.1. Candidates understand and can advocate for district students, families, and caregivers.

Commentary and Research Support. One of the functions of school boards is to adopt policies in accordance with state and federal legislation and the decisions that are handed down almost weekly by federal and state courts (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Hoy & Miskel, 2004; Kowalski, 2006; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Rorrer et al., 2008; Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). In addition, school districts are typically involved in a number of major litigation areas (Alexander & Alexander, 2005; Kowalski, 2006). As a result, it is important for candidates for school district leadership to have knowledge of key concepts in school law and be familiar with current legal issues that could impact districts (Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Seyfarth, 2008; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). They should also be familiar with teachers' and students' rights (Cambron et al., 2004; Stefkovich, 2006).

Scholarship on school district leadership confirms that the superintendent plays the pivotal role in the political organization of a school district as the key person who has the positional authority to access the power domains of the board of education, central office staff, principals, teacher associations, parental groups, community groups, and local and state governmental structures (B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Fowler, 2000; Farkus, Johnson, Duffett, & Foleno, 2001; Hoy & Miskel, 2004; Kronley & Handley, 2003; Kowalski, 2006; Orr, 2006; J. A. Marsh, 2002; Mawhinney, 2008; Mawhinney,

Haas, & Wood, 2005; Sanders, 2009). S. M. Johnson (1996) identified three aspects of district leadership in fulfilling this role: political, managerial, and instructional. All three aspects require knowledge of policies, laws, and regulations enacted by state, local, and federal authorities that affect school districts (B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Fowler, 2000; Kowalski, 2006; Mawhinney, 2008; Resnick & Glennan, 2003; Rorrer et al., 2008; Sipple & Killeen, 2004; Stringfield et al., 1998). It is hardly surprising that researchers have found that ever-multiplying job responsibilities associated with environmental, political, organizational, and personal factors (contexts) affect the job performance of district leaders (Glass et al., 2000; Firestone, 2009). Research underscores the particularly important influence of the political context on district leadership (Kowalski, Petersen, & Fusarelli, 2005; Kronley & Handley, 2003).

Putting knowledge of policies and laws to the service of district constituents is viewed as central to effective district leadership practice (Cunningham & Corderio, 2009; Lunenburg & Orenstein, 2007; Sanders, 2009). Researchers have reported on the importance of leadership skills in applying policies consistently and fairly across the district, whether they focused on accountability (Firestone, 2009; Rorrer et al., 2008; Sipple & Killeen, 2004), budgeting (Bird et al., 2009; P. A. Johnson & Ingle, 2009; Rodosky & Munoz, 2009; Slosson, 2000), special education (Russo & Osborne, 2008), or legal issues (Cambron et al., 2004; Chouhoud & Zirkel, 2008; Gavin & Zirkel, 2008; Holler & Zirkel, 2008; Lupini & Zirkel, 2003; Zirkel, 1997; Zirkel & Clark, 2008; Zirkel & D'Angelo, 2002; Zirkel & Gischlar, 2008). For example, research has confirmed that school district leaders are responsible for serving as spokespersons for their districts when questions have arisen over who should pay for public education and at what level. Similarly, studies have confirmed that candidates for district leadership must understand how to represent the interests of the district, taking into account the new economic, political, and legal context in which school levies are determined (P. A. Johnson & Ingle, 2009), while also leading the district in budget ideation, adoption, and execution (Bird et al., 2009).

Researchers have reported that the constantly increasing financial burden on local school districts coupled with the simultaneous increase in state control and accountability pressures resulted in challenges to the traditional notion of local control and placed additional political demands on school district leaders (Brimley & Garfield, 2005; Mawhinney, 2008). The accountability measures in the No Child Left Behind Act were one example of federal and state influences on school district leadership (Hickey, 2006; Honig et al., 2010; Koschoreck, 2001; Mawhinney et al., 2005; Rodosky & Munoz, 2009; Rorrer et al., 2008). Other researchers found that questions of the equity and adequacy in funding required that school district leaders be knowledgeable about and actively engaged in debates in both courtrooms and local political arenas (Falmer, 2009; McFadden, 2006; Quo, 2006). In this context, it is not surprising that researchers found that the playing field of school finance provided school district leaders with unique opportunities to exert effective leadership and to build trust among stakeholders by engaging in fair and open budgeting processes (Bird et al., 2009; Slosson, 2000). Similarly, scholars

studying the results of the reauthorization of the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act in 2004 reported that this law and its regulations have "generated more litigation than any other education law" (Russo & Osborne, 2008, p. viii), underscoring how critically important it was that school district leaders be able to apply special education law and policy consistently, fairly, and ethically.

These examples underscore why proactive engagement and advocacy for children are described as cornerstones of district leadership in commentaries on best practice (Pascopella, 2009; Reeves, 2009; Sanders, 2009). Accounts of advocacy efforts by district leaders suggest that candidates must learn how to promote community change by collecting, analyzing, and producing evidence to inform the decision making on the part of community service agencies that offer programs to children and youths (Rodosky & Munoz, 2009).

ELCC District 6.2. Candidates understand and can act to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning in a district environment.

Commentary and Research Support. That district leaders face increasingly complex environments that demand political skills is well documented in commentaries on the role (Kamler, 2009; Kowalski et al., 2005). The intersections of influences of the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural contexts of school districts are complex and often give rise to highly charged but commonplace conflicts that permeate the work of school district leaders (Marshall & Gerstel-Pepin, 2005; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003). Empirical research and analytic scholarship (Bolman & Deal, 2002; Fullan, 2005; Glass et al., 2000; J. A. Marsh, 2002; Rorrer et al., 2008), as well as commentaries on practices (Falmer, 2009; Lytle, 2009; Searby & Williams, 2007), have confirmed that candidates must understand the influence of the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural contexts. Commentators underscore the value of efforts by candidates for district leadership to "learn the context" of their districts (Lytle, 2009) and to understand differences in local district accommodations to larger political, social, and economic contexts (Duffy, 2006; Farmer, 2009). For example, decisions by the Supreme Court on politically charged issues such as prayer in school or teaching of evolution may lead to politically charged issues that district leaders must address when responding to local educational politics (Spring, 2005). Although value-laden conflicts can occur over reading materials in libraries, student dress codes, codes of conduct, and a host of other issues, the conflicts facing school district leaders are also highly contextualized, influenced by varying political opinions that exist in a local community (B. S. Cooper et al., 2004; Farmer, 2009; Hentschke, Nayfack, & Wohlstetter, 2009; Kowalski, 2004, 2006; Lytle, 2009). Similarly, research suggests that the behaviors and associated operating processes (strategies and tactics for execution) used by superintendents in smaller districts appear to be remarkably distinct from what superintendents do (or are expected to do) in very large urban school districts (Hentschke et al., 2009).

In this context candidates for district leadership must learn to exercise varying form of influence and power to make changes in their districts (T. N. Miller, Salsberry, & Devin, 2009). For example, research suggests that effective rural district leadership requires political competency including interpersonal and communication skills to form alliances, coalitions, and partnerships in order to develop proactive solutions to emerging conflicts (Falmer, 2009; Searby & Williams, 2007). Such political skills have been found to be critical in working with school boards (W. J. Price, 2001) and other district stakeholders. Research suggests that district leaders access evidence to gain informational power and then use it as a basis to connect with stakeholder groups to make decisions, thus increasing their referent power (T. N. Miller et al., 2009). Case studies drawn from documented problems of practices and developed to foster understanding of issues facing school districts underscore the need for candidates for district leadership to develop political prowess (Gause, 2008; McConnell & Rorrer, 2009).

ELCC District 6.3. Candidates understand and can anticipate and assess emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt district-level leadership strategies.

Commentary and Research Support. Analytic scholarship and commentaries on best practices highlight the importance of candidates for district leadership learning how to address emerging issues. Anticipating sources of support and resistance around emerging issues should inform strategies for networking and alliance formation (Falmer, 2009; Searby & Williams, 2007). Best-practice commentaries have reported, "A gradual transformation occurs in which the school leader moves away from seeing political forces as obstructions to progress and toward visualizing political forces as integral stakeholders in the local educational process whose contributions are essential in the quest to achieve organizational objectives" (Falmer, 2009, p. 32).

Craft knowledge in district leadership suggests that capacity to anticipate future issues is a critically important skill. Theoretical support is provided in Fullan's (2005) exploration of sustainable leadership, which requires systems thinking to promote sustainable change by (a) leading with a driving conceptualization and moral purpose; (b) building capacity, especially laterally; (c) advocating a commitment to ongoing learning; and (d) developing external partners. Sustainable leadership is based on proactive anticipatory actions, also requiring that leaders take time to analyze and reflect on what is going on in the district (Rodosky & Munoz, 2009; Searby & Williams, 2007).

Recognition of the importance of assessment and analysis led researchers to explore the effectiveness of a model of leadership that combined strategic leadership (i.e., developing explicit improvement strategies for teaching and learning); developing a culture of collaboration, high expectations, and accountability; building support among stakeholders (especially the school board); and managing the school environment and

resources (Childress, Elmore, & Grossman, 2006). Other studies on district reform highlight effective, evidence-based decision making as a key component to improved student achievement (S. E. Anderson, 2003; Bainbridge, Lasley, & Sundre, 2003; Fullan, 2005; Honig et al., 2010; Ikemoto & Marsh, 2007; Kercheval & Newbill, 2001; J. A. Marsh et al., 2005; Ragland, Asera, & Johnson, 1999; Rorrer et al., 2008; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Seashore Louis et al., 2010). Candidates seeking to practice strategic leadership using evidence-based decision making understand that strategic planning has been called "practical dreaming" (Kaufman et al., 1996, p. 49). Strategic planning is a formalized process in which, among other considerations, strategy delineation should be controlled and become a conscious process of thought, strategies should be unique and the most appropriate ones selected by a process of creative design, and strategies must be made explicit and accountability delineated in the process for implementation (see Mintzberg, 1994, pp. 36–90).

The current landscape of change requires that district leaders be flexible, skilled, and "'versed in a variety of approaches to address unique problems inherent in the multiple contexts in which school leadership finds itself" (Friedman, 2004, p. 206). In this context, there is widespread understanding, informed by practice, that candidates for district leadership must learn "how to conscientiously and accurately keep a finger on the pulse of the community to discern the changing tides of favor and disfavor, the covert criticisms, and the coalescing groups with a single agenda" (Owen, 2007). District leaders are expected to respond effectively and appropriately to diverse groups in the district community and to ensure that young people are prepared to have positive interactions with people who are culturally different than themselves (Banks, 2008; Mawhinney, 2008, 2009, 2010).

ELCC DISTRICT STANDARD 7

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ELCC District Standard 7.0

A district-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student in a substantial and sustained educational leadership internship experience that has district-based field experiences and clinical practice within a district setting and is monitored by a qualified, on-site mentor.

Research Support for ELCC District Standard 7.0

Much of the research on leadership preparation field work and clinical practice is focused on preparation for the school leader or educational leader generally. There is some commentary and expert opinion about the nature of superintendent preparation and need for reform, including the inclusion of applied learning opportunities and clinical experience (B. S. Cooper, Fusarelli, Jackson, & Poster, 2002; Douglas, 1992; Grogan & Andrews, 2002; Wendel & Bryant, 1988) and references to field applications (Alsbury & Ivory, 2006). In fact, the call for internships as central to superintendent preparation dates back to early in the field's formation (Strayer, 1944). There is no research or conceptualization about preparation for district leaders more generally; however, there are a few case studies of program models for superintendent preparation and development that include or stress the inclusion of clinical experience (Boone, 2001; Dalton, 2007; Humbaugh, 2000; McCauley & Hughes-James, 1996). There are also some surveys and focus group interviews of superintendents in the late 1990s and early 2000s about what was effective in their superintendent preparation programs, which speak generally to the value of clinical experience, but frequently without elaboration on any particular element or attribute (Bjork, 2000; Cox, 2007; Crain, 2004; Haynes, 1997; Iselt, 1999; Kowalski et al., 2005; Kowalski, Petersen, & Fusarelli, 2009; Orr, 2006).

Some dissertation research has begun to investigate this area. Lawrence (2008), for example, collected program description information from 28 superintendent certification programs in Texas and found that the majority included internships as part of preparation. In another example, Howard (2007) surveyed 22 career and technical educational superintendents about the value of different aspects of their preparation, including their internships and other field-based experiences and recommendations for future candidates.

The research presented in the Building-Level Standard 7 is applicable here. The theory and research on the importance of an internship and the nature of highly effective internships date back to the early work on experiential learning (Dewey, 1986) and its promotion as a highly effective means of adult learning (Kolb, 1984; Mezirow, 1991). Internships are widely used in professional education generally (LaPlant, 1988). More current work in the field stresses the full-time, job-embedded internship as the ideal (Barnett et al., 2009).

Much of the research on internships has focused on what typically occurs (Barnett et al., 2009; Copeland, 2004; McKerrow, 1998). This is mixed with case study research on innovative models (Cordeiro & Sloan, 1996; Ellis, 2002; Jones, 1999; Mercado, 2002; Milstein & Kruger, 1997) and conceptualizations of more robust approaches (Frye et al., 2005; Milstein et al., 1991; Straut & Calabrese, 1999). Limited research has compared the effects of conventional and exemplary preparation, but the results suggest that principals either report (Franklin, 2006; Mercado, 2002) or demonstrate (Orr & Orphanos, 2011) better leadership practices when they have had longer, more full-time internships.

Many of the internship elements and descriptors of practice in Standard 7 parallel the research findings from Danforth Foundation funded innovations in leadership preparation in the early 1990s. Comparative case study analyses yielded strong conclusions about the nature of high-quality internships (Milstein & Kruger, 1997). They identified the critical components of field experience that have the greatest value and potential impact:

- Sufficient time on task (frequency and regularity of work across school year and day, exposure to and engagement in relevant and realistic range of site responsibilities, and support of effective mentor practitioners);
- Relationship with mentors who have demonstrated skills and have been trained as mentors, with a focus on appropriate modeling and reflection;
- Multiple and alternative internship experiences to support diverse clinical training (e.g., medical rotation model);
- Reflective seminars to support interns' analysis and integration of learning;
- Field supervision, typically not given much consideration/focus within larger internship process; and
- Program coordination by educators who can link district and university programs and model professional development and learning.

ELCC District 7.1. Substantial Experience: The program provides significant field experiences and clinical internship practice for candidates within a district environment to synthesize and apply the content knowledge and develop professional skills identified in the other Educational Leadership District-Level Program Standards through authentic, district-based leadership experiences.

Commentary and Research Support. Research on the quality internships showed that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to have an internship (89% vs. 72%) and to report that their internship gave them responsibilities for leading, facilitating, and making decisions typical of an educational leader (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Further analysis of a subgroup of these principals showed that the degree of internship quality, based on three measures—having had responsibilities for leading, facilitating, and making decisions typical of an educational leader; being able to develop an educational leader's perspective on school improvement; and having an excellent that was an learning experience for becoming a principal—accounted for the extent to which principals' learned about leadership, which in turn influenced their use of effective leadership practices and school improvement (Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Not directly addressed in the standard elements, but implied in the stress on complexity and authenticity, is the field's emphasis on the role of the internship in socializing the candidate to the principalship (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004) and transforming the candidate's perspectives (Osterman & Fishbein, 2001).

ELCC District 7.2. Sustained Experience: Candidates are provided a six-month concentrated (9–12 hours per week) internship that includes field experiences within a district environment.

Commentary and Research Support. Based on reviews of research on internships, educational experts have argued that ideally it is full-time and job embedded (Barnett et al., 2009; Carr et al., 2003). Research on the quality internships showed that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to have longer internships (50% longer on average), averaging a full year (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Other research on program practices showed that programs vary widely in the length of candidates' internship experiences and in whether they are released from teaching (some or all the time) for their internship work (Orr, 2011). A comparison of 17 programs in 13 institutions showed that 90% of the candidates had internships (ranging from 56–100%); 37% had full or partial release time for their internship work (ranging from 16–100%); and participants rated the quality of their internship as good on average (4.0 on 5-point scale), ranging from mixed to highly effective.

ELCC District 7.3. Qualified On-Site Mentor: An on-site district mentor who has demonstrated successful experience as an educational leader at the district level and is selected collaboratively by the intern and program faculty with training by the supervising institution.

Commentary and Research Support. Research on the quality internships has shown that principals prepared in innovative preparation programs (n = 213) were statistically significantly more likely than those prepared in conventional programs (n = 446) to report that in their internship they were closely supervised and assisted by knowledgeable school leaders and were regularly evaluated by program faculty (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Other research has shown the importance of high-quality mentoring on participant outcomes in both corporate and educational settings (Sosik et al., 2005).

There is limited work on mentor training for school leader internships but a common emphasis on the role of mentors and the importance of training for quality field experience (Wallace Foundation, 2007b). There is modest evidence of the importance and influence of selecting and preparing mentors on internship experience and graduate outcomes (Cordeiro & Sloan, 1996; Ellis, 2002; Geismar et al., 2000) and on the supervisory relationship between on-site mentors and supervising faculty for quality internship experiences (Busch, 2003). There is no research on the benefits of earning course credit for internship experiences, but many experts advocate for universities to manage these more rigorously, facilitate greater connections between coursework and field work, and provide better quality oversight (Barnett et al., 2009; Milstein et al., 1991; Milstein & Kruger, 1997).

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