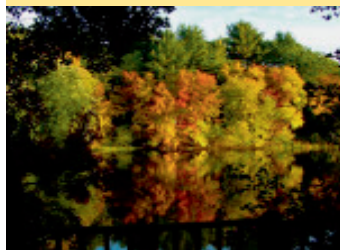# Journal for Leadership and Instruction

A PEER-REVIEWED RESEARCH JOURNAL FOR EDUCATIONAL PROFESSIONALS

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Editor's Perspective

The Long Island Education Review Journal, (LIER), has changed its name to Journal for Leadership and Instruction (JLI). One may wonder why LIER would want to change journal titles. The reason for the change is the LIER has taken on the task of distribution to all National School Development Council, (NSDC) members. At the 2014 fall meeting, the NSDC Board of Directors adopted the Journal for Leadership and Instruction as a publication to be distributed to all member study councils.

We are no longer a regional research journal, but one that will represent study councils nationally. Our audience will grow exponentially. Thus, our advisory board, reviewers and editors also must reflect our growth. We ask any of our new readers to consider membership to the editorial board, to be peer reviewers, and/or encouraging submission of research articles.

The NSDC website has numerous research topics that reflect a need for research and findings. The journal will focus on the studies and the implementation of those topics identified by NSDC. With the use of the journal, we have the opportunity to research, study and apply methodologies for instruction and in-service support.

To further support the development of the journal, JLI/NSDC has designed a final JLI activity for the years 2014-15. Our Spring 2015 journal will host a conference and the research proceeding from the conference will be published in the JLI spring issue. Please consider submitting research and/or attending the conference at Dowling College on Long Island. A conference application can be found in this issue on page 42. At the conference, we also will be discussing future sites and membership to the JLI family. See you in the spring.

Richard L. Swanby
Editor-in-Chief

The Impact of Reading Success Academy on High School Reading Achievement

By Kelly Burlison, Ed.D. and Josh Chave, Ed.D.

Abstract

The study explores the effectiveness of the Reading Success Academy on the reading achievement of the selected group of ninth-grade students in a comprehensive high school. We examine in what ways the Reading Success Academy may improve the reading proficiency rates and amount of reading growth of ninth-grade students.

The results indicate that the implemented Reading Success Academy intervention was not found to be effective in increasing the reading achievement levels of the selected students at the target high school. Statistical analysis revealed that there was no significant increase in student reading achievement and reading growth between the treatment and control groups. Recommendations include the sample size of participants should expand to 50 participants and the length of the intervention to 16 weeks. Some of the selected students did not respond to initial teacher instructions and struggled to acquire reading skills that were needed to perform at a proficient level as measured by standardized testing. Recommendations include curricula should include explicit, systematic instruction approaches that are effective for students that need additional instruction in reading skills that bring them on grade level.

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the Reading Success Academy on the reading achievement of the selected group of ninth-grade students in a comprehensive high school in the southeast. We examined if participation in the Reading Success Academy could improve the reading proficiency and reading growth of ninth-grade students.

The Reading Success Academy was an academic skills intervention program that utilizes research-based instructional practices specifically designed for low achieving students in small-group instructional sessions. The program intervention was implemented by the school district because it was cost effective and specifically was designed for relatively long term improved reading results. The skills that were taught throughout the sessions of this program improved higher order processing, reading comprehension, and problem solving. The Reading Success Academy was developed to focus, guide, and shape the thought processes of students when completing reading lessons. The administration at the high school selected the Reading Success Academy as the instructional reading intervention to help students achieve the goal of reading proficiency. The reading strategies were tailored to individual student reading needs through the use of the social studies core curriculum based on student reading data. The objective of the Reading Success Academy and small-group instructional activities was to provide instructional literacy support to nonproficient ninth-grade students in an effort to improve their reading proficiency levels.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

Research Question 1

Did participation in the Reading Success Academy significantly improve the reading proficiency levels and reading numbers of high school students who have become nonproficient readers compared to high school students who did not participate in the Reading Success Academy and who have also become nonproficient readers?

Research Question 2

Did participation in the Reading Success Academy significantly improve the amount of reading achievement growth of high school students who have become nonproficient readers compared to high school students who did not participate in the Reading Success Academy and who have also become nonproficient readers?

Literature Review

Research has shown that when adolescent students have reading difficulties, their ability and desire to learn how to read is negatively affected, as well as their desire to read for pleasure. Secondary students who receive explicit reading instruction with adequate time and intensity improved their reading ability (Vaughn, Cirino, Wanzek, Wexler, Fletcher, Dentón, & Francis, 2010). The objective of the Reading Success Academy was designed to assist struggling readers who need academic assistance to improve their reading achievement levels on standardized assessments, which is supported by research (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010).

Unrau (2008) believes that small-group instruction provides students with the opportunity to inquire and reflect to deepen their understanding, word recognition, and reading fluency because they participate in asking higher order and rigorous questioning that elicits their thinking and interpretations of the text. The small-group lessons in the Reading Success Academy were implemented each week for approximately 6 to 8 weeks. These particular skills were measured on the standardized tests and attempts to fill in the identified gaps in research and practice with persistent learning difficulties in high school students. The skills were aimed to assist students in decoding words and processing text, using cognitive resources and background knowledge, and higher order thinking.

It was anticipated that the reading proficiency of the treatment group participants would significantly improve to grade level reading achievement and growth, when compared to the reading proficiency levels of the control group participants. Second, it was anticipated that the instructional method and delivery of the Reading Success Academy would significantly improve reading achievement and proficiency levels among high school students. Third, it was anticipated that the selected high school would review the impact of the results of the Reading Success Academy and incorporate similar small-group instructional interventions for students in additional grade levels to increase reading proficiency and reading growth.

In a small-group teaching environment, teachers understand student reading characteristics and develop specific strategies that are needed to address individual strengths and weaknesses based on student interests, abilities, and the reading problem (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2011). Small-group instruction allows learning to become differentiated by assessing and evaluating student successes related to state academic goals and standards (Fisher et al., 2011).

Research has shown that there is a positive correlation between small-group reading instruction and an increase in student reading achievement levels (Ediger, 2010; Tyner & Green, 2005). Small-group instruction can produce sustained improvement in student reading achievement, especially if the small groups focus on explicit, interactive instruction in the core areas of literacy (Tyner, 2009).

Allington (2011) stated that in order to advance the literacy achievement of students, higher academic standards must be established in secondary schools to ensure better reading achievement and produce skilled graduates who are ready to succeed at college and in the current workplace. At the early stages of reading, one of the primary objectives for teachers was to use research-based instructional practices and engage students in small-group learning experiences to teach children how to read (Fisher et al., 2011). Research has shown that reading skills are critically important for children starting at a young age as good young readers are more likely to succeed in secondary subject areas when reading motivation and effective teaching are required (Galda, 2010; Melekoglu, 2011).

The Reading Intervention

The core instructional components of the Reading Success Academy consisted of a focus lesson, mini-lesson, and an instructional passage. During each small-group session, the instructional processes consisted of the three reading stages of pre, during, and post-reading strategies. All of the students were responsible for completing all the required pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading activities for each lesson.

According to Yusuf (2011), pre-reading strategies help prepare students for learning by activating their prior knowledge about the topic that is featured in various texts and motivating them to continue reading about the topic. The various pre-reading strategies that were utilized by teachers included predicting the content, completing anticipation guides, previewing and clarifying text features, and setting a purpose for reading to improve student engagement (Wangsgard, 2010).

Post-reading activities connect old and new information and knowledge to help students apply it to their learning (Key et al., 2010). Post-reading strategies capitalized on the connections that the students made from the selected passage by posing any questions that were raised by the reading material. The strategies encouraged students to revisit earlier predictions, analyze or evaluate a portion of the passage, and build upon key ideas or connections.

Methodology

A post-hoc research design with a quasi-experimental approach was utilized in this study. This design involved selecting groups when the variable was tested without a true random selection process (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). A quasi-experimental design was integrated with individual case studies where the data and results were analyzed to reinforce the findings.

Setting

In an effort to improve reading achievement at the selected high school, the Reading Success Academy was implemented for ninth-grade students at the high school who were no longer proficient readers. The Reading Success Academy consisted of small-group instructional sessions that were implemented by the high school over an eight-week period during the 2011-2012 school year. The participating ninth-grade students in the Reading Success Academy were pulled from their social studies classes three times a week throughout the eight-week period and integrated the social studies curriculum with Reading Success Academy instructional strategies. This was the first time that the selected high school had implemented the Reading Success Academy during the school day to improve the reading achievement of students who were previously proficient in reading but became nonproficient in reading based on formative diagnostic assessments. The selected students who participated in the Reading Success Academy received instructional support to help prepare them for the 2012 reading FCAT (Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test).

Subjects

The participants consisted of ninth-grade students who were enrolled at the selected high school and were no longer proficient in reading based on eighth-grade and ninth-grade FCAT scores. A total of 215 ninth-grade students (30% of the class) achieved reading proficiency on the eighth-grade reading FCAT but then were not proficient on the winter reading FCAT diagnostic test. Therefore, it was anticipated that approximately 200 to 250 ninth-grade students composed the 2011-2012 ninth-grade sample population that was used to select the treatment and control groups of students.

Data Collection

Multiple types of quantitative data were collected to answer the research questions. The primary sources of data consisted of quantitative reading achievement level and reading growth data that analyzed after the Reading Success Academy.

The student reading achievement level data that were collected for **Research Question 1** consisted of predicted FCAT reading levels that were achieved by ninth-grade students on the 2011-2012 winter reading FCAT diagnostic test and the FCAT reading levels that were achieved by ninth-grade students on the 2012 reading FCAT. The student reading growth data that were collected for **Research Question 2** consisted of the student DSS that were achieved by ninth-grade students on the 2011-2012 winter reading FCAT diagnostic test and the DSS that were achieved by ninth-grade students on the 2011-2012 reading FCAT.

Data Analysis

In order to address whether participation in the Reading Success Academy was effective in increasing student reading proficiency levels (**Research Question 1**) the Mann-Whitney nonparametric statistical test was utilized.

In order to address whether participation in the Reading Success Academy was effective in increasing student reading growth (**Research Question 2**), an independent t test was utilized. The level of statistical significance for both tests was $p < .05$.

Findings

Research Question 1

Did participation in the Reading Success Academy significantly improve the reading proficiency levels of high school students who have become nonproficient readers compared to high school students who did not participate in the Reading Success Academy and who have also become nonproficient readers?

The 2011-2012 reading FCAT was the post-treatment assessment used to determine if participation in the Reading Success Academy improved the reading achievement among control and treatment groups. **Table 1** shows that following participation in the Reading Success Academy, 50% of the treatment group subjects improved their reading achievement from the winter diagnostic test and demonstrated reading proficiency on the 2011-2012 reading FCAT. Comparatively, 70% of the control group subjects improved their reading achievement from the winter diagnostic test and demonstrated reading proficiency on the 2011-2012 reading FCAT.

Table 1

Reading FCAT 2011-2012 Achievement Levels: *Treatment vs. Control Group*					
	Treatment group			**Control group**	
Level	**N**	**Percent**		**N**	**Percent**
1	0	0.0		1	5.0
2	10	50.0		5	25.0
3	7	35.0		10	50.0
4	3	15.0		4	20.0

The result of the statistical analysis (Z = .323, p < .05) reveals that there was no significant difference between the treatment and control groups in regards to an increase in proficiency levels on the 2011-2012 reading FCAT.

Research Question 2

Did participation in the Reading Success Academy significantly improve the amount of reading achievement growth of high school students who have become non-proficient readers compared to high school students who did not participate in the Reading Success Academy and who have also become non-proficient readers?

Table 2 outlines the statistical descriptive data for the treatment and control groups related to the amount of reading growth achieved on the 2011-2012 reading FCAT. The data shows that the reading growth mean scale score difference was higher for the treatment group than it was for the control group.

Table 2

Reading Growth Mean Scale Score Difference: Treatment vs. Control Group				
Group	**Mean**	**N**	**SD**	**SEM**
Treatment	3.20	20	11.414	2.552
Control	.70	20	11.457	2.562

The result of the statistical test (t = .494, p < .05) reveals that there was no significant difference in the amount of reading growth achieved by the treatment group subjects on the 2012 reading FCAT compared to the amount of reading growth achieved by the control group subjects on the 2012 reading FCAT. The statistical result indicates that subject participation in the Reading Success Academy did not have a significant impact on the amount of reading growth that was achieved by the participating subjects.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicated that the implemented Reading Success Academy intervention was not found to be effective in increasing the reading achievement levels of the selected students at the target high school. Several implications emerged following the analysis related to the reading intervention that can help explain the study results. The results of **Research Question 1** showed that there was no statistical relative increase in reading proficiency between the treatment group and the control group as a whole. The treatment group and the control group of

this applied dissertation study both increased reading proficiency by at least one level during the period of measurement. The data showed that one participant in the control group decreased by 1 point in the reading proficiency level.

Regarding **Research Question 2**, 40% of the treatment group increased more than 6 points in reading growth and 35% of the control group increased by 6 points or more. Both the treatment and control groups decreased 55% of the reading growth based on the 2012 FCAT. The collected data indicated that this implementation solution was not statistically different based on the t test as a group. The data indicate that there is not a statistical difference between the treatment and control groups but a significant difference within the reading growth scale scores. The treatment group shows significantly higher, as much as 5 times higher, achievement growth. In this applied dissertation study, the Level 1 participants started on a lower level of reading proficiency compared to the Level 2 students which had more of a growth opportunity. The Level 1 treatment group had the most room for improvement; therefore, they contributed the greatest difference of reading growth.

A reading pull-out program such as the Reading Success Academy does not guarantee improvement results in student reading achievement. It is important that school administrators consider possible adaptations that would be needed for non-proficient readers. It is evident that some of the selected students did not respond to initial teacher instruction and struggled to acquire reading skills that were needed to perform at a proficient level.

We recommend that curricula include explicit, systematic instruction approaches that are effective for students that need remediation in reading skills that bring them to grade level. For students that did not meet proficient levels, intervention programs should provide a great deal of support and scaffolding during the first phases of instruction. The intent of scaffolding is to lead learners to an independent skill level with the least amount of confusion and error along the way (Slavin, Cheung, Groff, & Lake, 2008). Although the concept of a reading pull-out program can be a thoroughly developed intervention, the instructional environment must be conducive so that the teachers providing the instruction are willing to make the necessary requirements to assist, accommodate, and rearrange skills in a more appropriate order to meet the needs of struggling readers within the high school day.

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Men in Nursing: Their Influence in a Female Dominated Career

By Susan Barrett-Landau, Ed.D, MS, ANP/FNP, RN-BC; and Sharon Henle, Ed.D, MS, ANP, RHIA, CNE, RN

Abstract

An analysis performed by Staiger, Auerback, and Buerhaus (2012) on the RN workforce model suggests that between 2010 and 2015 there will be a decrease in the RN's employment as the economy improves and the baby boomer population retires. This article centers on the road blocks men face in nursing education, clinical experiences, job preferences in a female dominated career, and how nursing schools can address barriers to men in nursing.

Introduction

During the last decade it was predicated that there would be a massive nursing shortage due to the high percentage of baby boomers that would retire. This nursing shortage was somewhat alleviated because of the 2008 recession when many of these baby boomers did not retire and leave the nursing profession.

In 2014, the job prospective for new graduate nurses continues to be grim, and this may imply that it is not necessary to continue to increase the number of new nurses. The American College of Nursing suggests that this strategy does not take into consideration factors such as: the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Employment Projections 2012-2022 that the total number of nursing job openings would be 1.05 million by 2022, (American Association of Colleges of Nursing). In addition, an analysis performed by Staiger, Auerback, and Buerhaus (2012) on the RN workforce model suggests that between 2010 and 2015 there will be an increase in the RN's employment as the economy improves and the baby boomer population retires. It is inevitable that the "demand for health care is expected to increase, as an estimated 32 million additional Americans obtain health insurance coverage" (Staiger, Auerback, and Buerhaus, 2012, p. 1465).

In response to the anticipated nursing shortage, men can fill the void of the potential nursing shortage. Men continue to be a minority in the nursing profession although small increases in their representation have occurred in the last seven years. The Census (2006) report indicated that men only constituted 7% of the United States workforce in nursing. National Council of State Boards of Nursing found that men account for 7% of the RN workforce. A survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau in February 2013 found that men now comprise 9.6% of all RNs (Census Bureau's Industry and Occupation Statistics, 2013). Recruiting men would be a viable way to increase the number of registered nurses and to promote a more diverse population of nurses in the workforce.

Until recently, many occupations were traditionally classified according to gender. People held a set of expectations concerning whether or not specific employment positions required masculine or feminine qualities to fulfill them. These perceptions have changed considerably in the recent past, especially as they relate to the role of females in American society. More and more women are now found in formerly male-dominated employment positions, such as trades and professions. However, little change in gender representation has occurred as it relates to female-dominated employment, and no field better exemplifies the situation than that found in the field of nursing (Meadus & Twomey, 2011). According to the Census Bureau's Industry and Occupation Statistics (2013), men represented 9% of registered nurses and at that time men's average salary was $60,700 as opposed to women who earned $51,100 per year.

The Glass Escalator
Median 2011 earnings for full-time, year-round workers.
Source: Census Bureau
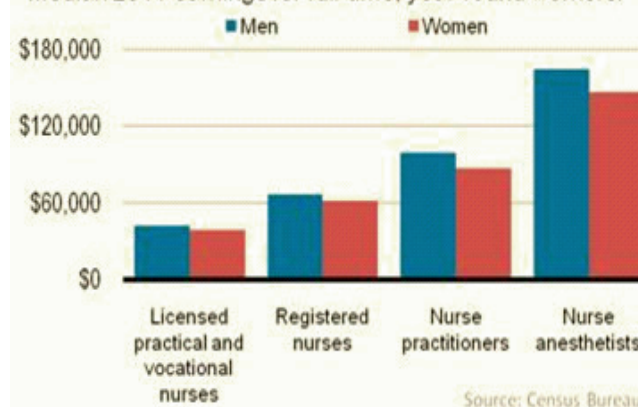
Family Involvement

McLaughlin, Moutray, & Moore (2010), found that entry into nursing for men is often pre-dated by familial involvement in professional nursing, where moral support, often critical in their decision making, is often found. Unless their role identity is supported by a significant other or group in their social environment, men do not choose nursing as a nursing career choice (Cook-Krieg, 2011). Difficulty in conforming to role expectations among potential male nurses may be alleviated by the support of friends and relatives. Acquaintances and family relations generally have mixed feelings while most fathers are opposed to their sons becoming a registered nurse (Pham, 2011).

History of Nursing

Through the efforts of Florence Nightingale in the mid-nineteenth century, nursing was established as a women's profession (Hus, Chen & Lou, 2010). Nightingale's image of the nurse as subordinate, nurturing, domestic, humble, and self-sacrificing, as well as not too educated, became prevalent in society. The American Nursing Association ostracized men from nursing until 1930, when as a "result of a bylaw amendment, provision was made for male nurses to become members of the American Nurses' Association" (In Review - American Nurses' Association, p. 6). Looking back in nursing history, Florence Nightingale, and the American Nursing Association ostracized men from the nursing profession.

It wasn't until 1894 when female nurses started to organize and female nursing schools were created in New York and the American Nursing Association (ANA) was formed. The ANA excluded men until 1930 and in essence had the goal of keeping men out of military nursing. At this point in history military nursing had been a predominantly male job, had turned into an exclusively female position and would continue on to become the most stereotyped female dominant job. It wasn't until after the Korean War when males were finally accepted back into the field of nursing (Gender Equality in a Female Dominated Work Field, 2010, blog.lib.umn.edu).

Prior to the organization of female nursing schools and as early as the fourth and fifth centuries, men provided nursing care to members of various religious orders (Cook-Krieg, 2011, p. 22-23), and held the predominant role in organized nursing in western society. In 2013, a growing number of men are entering the nursing profession, for reasons, as they see it, of economic opportunity, despite the fact of an ever-changing health care system that continues to redefine the role of the nurse. The American Nurses' Association (2013), and the National League for Nursing have both spoken in support of males in nursing (National League for Nursing, 2008).

To encourage men to enter the nursing profession and, "if nursing is to survive in the 21st century, Nightingale image must be counterbalanced by an entry and acceptance of a larger number of men into the profession" (Meadus, 2000, p. 11).

Professional Acceptance

However, men are having problems in achieving professional acceptance in their nursing role both by society in general and by their colleagues in particular. Many male and female patients have negative attitudes regarding male nurses and often request that a female be substituted. Discrimination exists among many female nurses toward their male colleagues, regarding them as homosexuals, and therefore, not acceptable as equals with the consequent loss to the men of a sense of camaraderie necessary for a feeling of fulfillment in one's work (Brown, 2009). Even healthcare administrators have been forced to defend policies that discriminate between male and female nurses.

Although male nurses are a minority in the nursing workforce, it has been reported that "male nurses made up to 23% referrals to the Investigating Panel of the NMC (Nursing & Midwifery Council in 2009/10, with 42% being removed from the register (Prideaux, 2010).

Thus, men are having to seek legal recourse to defend their right to equal employment in the nursing profession. However, while on the one hand men are taking a proactive role in forcing changes, others seek to circumvent the problem by the pursuit of specialties that are acceptably male, such as in anesthesia and psychiatric nursing.

Literature Review

Research has shown that men play an important role in establishing nursing as a more respected career option. With the integration of men into the nursing profession, female nurses benefit by means of pay equity and a greater economic position for women (Cottingham, 2014). Even though there are less men in nursing, literature denotes men earn higher salaries, along with potential career advancement within multiple career pathways that lure men to the nursing positions (Brown 2009). Bagihole and Cross (2006) interviewed 10 British men who were employed in female dominated jobs. The study found that men believed they "should be role models for promoting the profession" (p. 42).

Physical strength places male nurses at an advantage for certain positions or opportunities in the health care settings, such as, psychiatric care, and orthopedics. Men are hired in psychiatric areas because of their physical strength to ensure safety of the personnel and patient, and in orthopedics where there is a need for heavy equipment to be moved and assembled (Cook-Krieg, 2011, Goriup & Pajnkihar, 2014).

Social Concepts

One of the main reasons for the shortage of men is the societal stereotype that portrays nursing as a female profession (Cook-Krieg, 2011). Prior to Nightingale's reform which was instrumental in creating nursing as a predominately female occupation, men had a historical role in nursing. Cook-Krieg, (2011), goes on to say:

> When asked about the public's perception of male nurses, the female students indicated that they perceived the public's view of nursing to be accepting of male nurses in general; however they felt that society sometimes considers male nurses as homosexual or feminine. The male students felt that the public's image of nursing was changing and that they were more accepting of men, however, they were viewed as odd or special (p. 27).

Cook-Krieg, (2011) identified the following barriers to nursing education for men: social isolation, refusal to address individual learning needs, and reluctance of other nurses to acknowledge men as a vital part of the nursing profession. Brown, (2009) "They assert that nursing schools do not address the differences in communication styles of men and women, and do not prepare them to work primarily with women " (p. 121). However, when men engage in the profession, Wingfield (2009) "jobs predominantly filled by women often require 'feminine' traits such as nurturing, caring, and empathy, a fact that means men confront perceptions that they are unsuited for the requirements of these jobs" (p. 5). This includes "encounters with patients, doctors, and other staff, men nurses frequently confront others who do not expect to see them doing 'a woman's job'" (Wingfield, 2009, p. 11).

Many nursing problems have been attributed to the predominantly female composition of the profession: sexism and oppressed group behavior in nursing have been blamed for its low pay, low status and esteem, and lack of being identified as professionals. Cottingham (2014) noted that these problems could be eliminated by actively recruiting men into nursing. Their presence in large numbers alone could increase the recognition of nursing as a profession, as well as to aid in improving wage and working conditions by their ability to bargain competitively and in the perception of their having greater coalition strategies as compared to women. In short, men in nursing are less likely to adapt to poor salaries and working conditions without campaigning for more and better (Cottingham, 2014).

In a study of the transition of Licensed Practical Nurses to Registered Nurses, the two male participants perceived themselves as being looked up to and admired by their peers, whereas the female participants did not express similar feelings. Even though men are the minority in the nursing profession, they still viewed themselves as leaders and being highly respected by their peers (Henle, 2007).

Challengers of a Shared Vision

Career paths differ for women and men in the health care environment. There are two phrases that are commonly discussed among nurses working within the health care system, and they are glass ceiling and glass or invisible escalator. Glass ceiling refers to the hidden barriers that keep women from rising to senior management levels. One reason given for the glass ceiling is that women may interrupt their employment to have children or take a leave of absence to care for aging parents. At the same time, the health care system and the general public view men as prototypical leaders, and this is embedded in the phrase glass or invisible escalator model. Men are viewed as assertive, and have a sense of dominance. On the other hand, health care administrators and the general public view female nurses as caring and nurturing.

Conclusion

For nursing to advance in the 21st century, advancement in nursing should be based on one's ability to lead the nursing profession in a positive light without restrictions to gender.

In addition, nursing schools should address the role of women and men as leaders in the nursing sciences to promote awareness among nursing students about the importance of leadership skills. A more diverse work force with a larger male population in nursing might increase salaries and improve working conditions in the nursing professions. Nursing schools need to be cognizant of male discrimination in the workplace, stereotyping in textbooks, clinical experiences, as well as male nursing students' learning styles. Nursing schools must make a strong effort to recruit male nurses from high school graduation classes if the nursing profession is to achieve a greater balance.

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Developing Grit In Our Students:

Why Grit is Such a Desirable Trait, and Practical Strategies for Teachers and Schools

By Jennifer Bashant, Ph.D.

Introduction

Why do most individuals make use of only a small percentage of their resources, whereas a few exceptional individuals push themselves to their limits? Why do some individuals accomplish more than others of equal intelligence? One personal quality that is shared by most high achieving and successful people is grit. Grit may be the quality that sets these highly successful individuals apart from everyone else (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews & Kelly, 2007).

There has been a lot of talk recently about grit and how to develop it within our students. Grit is the quality that enables individuals to work hard and stick to their long-term passions and goals. It makes sense that this would be important for students, both in school and in life. Can one learn to have grit? How do you teach it? These are some of the essential questions that will be addressed in this research brief with the hope that you will gain a deeper understanding of what is meant by "grit," and that you will discover a couple new ways to encourage students to be more "gritty."

According to leading researcher, Angela Duckworth, grit can probably be taught. "Kids may have the wrong beliefs and have misunderstandings about skill development…beliefs that stand in the way of tapping into performance traits." When students struggle with a task, they may believe that they lack the ability to solve the problem and, therefore, give up. It is important for students to understand that it is ok to feel confused when learning something new, and actually, it is expected. We can teach students that making mistakes or taking a long time to complete an assignment is a normal part of learning, not a sign of failure.

Definition of Grit

According to researchers at the University of Pennsylvania, grit is defined as "perseverance and passion for long-term goals." Grit involves working strenuously toward challenges, maintaining effort and interest over years despite failure, adversity, and plateaus in progress. The gritty individual approaches achievement as a marathon; his or her advantage is stamina. While disappointment or boredom may lead most people to change trajectory, the gritty individual stays the course" (Duckworth et al, 2007). We all can identify people in our lives who have big ideas and a lot of enthusiasm for many projects, only to drop them within a few weeks. Individuals with a lot of grit tend to set very long-term objectives and do not lose sight of them, even when they are not getting any positive feedback.

Resilience, as defined by Martin Seligman, a researcher from the University of Pennsylvania and creator of the evidence-based Penn Resiliency Program, is "the ability to appraise situations without distorting them, and thinking about changes that are possible in your life" (Perkins-Gough, 2013). Resilience is related to grit because part of what it means to be gritty is to be resilient when challenges present themselves. There are many other traits one must possess in order to be gritty, which include conscientiousness, self-discipline and perseverance. Having grit means that you choose to invest time and energy in a particular endeavor and give up many other things in order to pursue this passion. Gritty people have deep commitments to which they remain loyal for many years.

Research Supporting the Importance of Grit

So why should we pay so much attention to grit? Duckworth and Seligman (2005, 2007) have demonstrated that grit, perseverance and self-discipline are better predictors of success in college than the SAT or IQ tests. These standardized tests serve an important function, but are limited in their ability to measure important traits such as grit and self-control.

Angela Duckworth and Deborah Perkins-Gough conducted a study at West Point Military Academy in order to look at how well grit would predict who would stay for the entire program. Although West Point has a rigorous admissions process, about 1 in 20 cadets drop out before the first academic year begins (Perkins-Gough, 2013). As part of the study, the cadets each took a short grit questionnaire when they first arrived. This score was actually a better predictor of who would stay than any other measure West Point looked at. There have been similar findings with many other groups, including the National Spelling Bee contestants and first year teachers in really tough schools. When one considers individuals of equal talent, the grittier people do better.

There have been many studies that show the importance of self-discipline in achieving positive outcomes such as academic success, happiness and overall competence (Mischel, Shoda & Rodriguez, 1989; Ayduk et al, 2000; Funder, Block & Block, 1983; Duckworth, 2009). Self-discipline is defined as "the capacity to do what you want to do. It's knowing how to manage your emotions and thoughts and knowing how to plan your behavior in order to reach your goals" (Duckworth,2009). In 1995, Wolf and Johnson conducted a study which found that self-discipline was the only one among 32 measured personality traits that predicted college GPA better than the SAT did (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005).

In a study by Duckworth and Seligman (2005), highly disciplined adolescents outperformed their peers that were more impulsive on all academic variables, including grades, standardized test scores, admission to a competitive high school and attendance. Self-discipline also predicted which students would improve their grades throughout the year, while IQ scores did not.

The Big Five model has provided a framework for many of the studies on traits that predict success. Personality psychologists, for the most part, agree that the five-factor model encompasses all of the major personality traits and organizes them into a framework. These five factors are conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability and openness to new experiences. Relative to the other big five traits, conscientiousness is the most reliable predictor of academic course grades, physical health, longevity, job performance and marital stability (Duckworth, Weir, Tsukayama & Kwok, 2012). Conscientious individuals are more likely to avoid unnecessary interpersonal conflict and to settle conflicts when they occur. These behaviors may explain why conscientiousness predicts how many friends children will have better than intelligence or any other big five trait. In addition, conscientious individuals perform better in school which often leads to better paying jobs, and for some, greater subjective well-being (Duckworth et al, 2012).

Grit Versus Talent

At one time or another, we all have been impressed by an athlete, a student or a musician whom we would label as "talented." Talent, however, is only part of the picture. In his book, *Outliers*, Malcolm Gladwell talks about the 10,000 hours of practice required to excel at a particular skill. "I believe ability can get you to the top," says coach John Woodin, "but it takes character to keep you there. It's so easy to begin thinking you can just turn it on automatically, without proper preparation. It takes real character to keep working as hard, or even harder once you are there. When you read about an athlete or a team that wins over and over and over, remind yourself that more than ability, they have character" (Carol Dweck, Mindset: The New Psychology of Success).

In terms of academics, if students are just trying to reach the threshold of getting an A, and they also happen to be very talented, they may do their homework or study for a test in just a few minutes. Once they reach a certain level of proficiency, then they stop. They actually work less hard than their peers for whom the work is challenging. If, on the other hand, they are not just trying to reach a certain cut point, but are trying to learn as much as possible by doing as well as they can, then there is no limit to what can be accomplished.

There are a lot of fragile gifted and talented kids who don't know how to fail. They don't know how to struggle, and they don't have a lot of practice with it. "Being gifted is no guarantee of being hardworking or passionate about something. The people who are ambitious and have no limit to how much they want to understand, learn or succeed are both talented and gritty" (Perkins-Gough, 2013). According to Galton (1892) who collected biographical information about highly successful people (judges, statesmen, scientists, etc.), "ability alone did not bring about success in any field. Rather, successful high achievers also possessed zeal and the capacity for hard labor" (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews & Kelly, 2007).

Encouraging Grit and Character

According to Carol Dweck in *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success*, "After seven experiments with hundreds of children, we had some of the clearest findings I've ever seen. Praising children's intelligence harms their motivation and it harms their performance. Children love praise, and especially for their intelligence and talent. It really does give them a boost, a special glow - but only for that moment. The minute they hit a snag, their confidence goes out the window and their motivation hits rock bottom. If success means they are smart, then failure means they are dumb. That's the fixed mindset."

Children who have more of a growth mindset tend to be grittier. The attitude that "I can get better if I try harder," most likely results in the development of a tenacious, hardworking person. "In theory, the work that Carol Dweck has done to show that you can change your mindset would also be relevant to changing your grit." Duckworth and her colleagues at University of Pennsylvania are developing an intervention, based on Dweck's work, to look at making students aware of the value of deliberate practice. The intervention requires teachers to tell kids that practice is not easy…that they are going to be confused…frustrated. Teachers explain that when you are learning, you have to make mistakes and do things over and over again which can be boring (Perkins-Gough, 2013).

Tim Elmore recently wrote a blog about building perseverance in students based on the findings that students in Singapore are far more persistent in problem solving than American students. He explains that although we live in a world of speed and convenience (ATMs, high-speed internet access, fast, Instagram), this speed has diminished perseverance and work ethic in our kids. He recommends the following strategies to encourage perseverance in students:

- Talk about the power of attitude and persistence. Singapore teachers repeatedly talk to their students from a young age about attitude and persistence. They underscore how valuable this trait is for success in life.

- Turn the problem into a picture or puzzle. Singapore teaching methods include "model drawing." Students turn math problems into a picture and the graphic helps them solve the problem by engaging both sides of the brain.

- Start with smaller problems they can more easily solve and help them get some quick wins.

- Share the "why" before the "what." We often fail to inspire kids because we don't share the relevance of the problem.

- When possible, place students in communities to work together. Students learn best in communities where they can solve problems in cooperation with peers. They often give up when they feel alone and inferior.

- Make it a game or competition.

- Reward hard work and delayed gratification. What gets rewarded gets repeated. Affirm hard work and actually reward completion in the end.

Research shows that how students conceive their abilities in relation to a task can shape the outcome. Discussing students' strengths in a setting where they feel unsure of themselves sets a positive tone and removes a barrier to success (Pappano, 2013). However, attempting to boost students' self-esteem with words is less effective than asking them to persevere on a challenging task.

Action Steps for Teachers and Schools

In order to build character and grit in students, it is essential to also develop a school culture that emphasizes character and grit (Dean, 2014). Many times, a character education program is implemented on top of an existing school culture, but copying and pasting a program is not likely to be successful.

In one school that is successfully teaching grit and character, they use advisory to explicitly teach the important skills and mindset. This teaching is supported by much of what happens outside of the advisory, including "modeling by teachers, the use of a common language about character, and the recognition that all students play a role in character development. In addition, students are given room to challenge authority in the school, set the agenda for school meetings, and engage with social issues beyond the school walls" (Dean, 2014).

One assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction explained that the administrators in his district firmly believe that character education and positive school climate are the keys to reducing discipline problems and raising student achievement. He researched this topic for two years by reading about Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and by reading Ross Green's *Lost at School* and Paul Tough's *How Children Succeed*. He decided to build a period of time into the schedule in the middle schools to address school culture and climate concerns as well as to implement character education and citizenship classes. Topics such as "how to have good conversations, be an active listener, build meaningful relationships, set goals and pursue them, and recognize the consequences of behavior were taught" (Perkins-Gough, 2013). This school was part of a study conducted by Angela Duckworth who found that their character-building program has yielded results at the elementary level, middle school level and even in the ninth grade. In ninth grade, when many students have trouble adjusting to higher demands, retention rates have decreased, discipline problems have fallen and student achievement has risen (Perkins-Gough, 2013).

Another school that has been studied by Duckworth's team has been successful in teaching intellectual virtues through repeated action and practice. One third grade teacher in this school has posters about "Intellectual Aggressiveness" along with examples of their use such as "Use Evidence to Support your Ideas." This teacher says things like, "Talk to your neighbor and let's be intellectually

aggressive about this." He says it is important to have language around these skills which allows him to attach it to their struggles or behaviors that may take them away from being successful. When students in his class misbehave, he interprets this as masking a lack of knowledge. He looks through such behaviors to give students the message that "you can fight through this and you can be successful" (Pappano, 2013).

One high school math teacher described how instead of showing approaches to a geometry problem, he lets students struggle until they uncover the principle themselves. He gets students interested by saying things like, "Let's be curious about this." His students are motivated, not because of the grade, but because they are curious and they truly want to learn. If the question is framed correctly, it spurs something intrinsic inside of them (Pappano, 2013).

In a study of three successful Boston charter schools, researchers concluded that success is derived from a two-part model: (1) establishing a common vocabulary around character strengths and then (2) utilizing the vocabulary in very specific instructional moments. If a student is struggling with an essay, the teacher might say, "Let me show you how to be really gritty." If a student gives up too quickly or lacks the self-confidence to persist in math, the student and teacher can reflect and discuss, "How does that feel? What does it look like? How does it affect me? Together they can make a plan to challenge the idea that the student can't figure out problems or is inclined to give up quickly. If he usually gives up after one try, he can decide that next week he will try three times before giving up, or will commit to getting help after school."

Conclusion

Although there are many interventions and strategies that can be implemented in order to develop grit, it is the quality of interactions and interventions - not the strategies themselves - that matter most. "Human change occurs more readily in the context of caring and trusting relationships" (Pappano, 2013). We must remember the importance of providing social emotional support to our students. "If public schools start to devalue social workers, counselors and school psychologists - if they don't understand that these people are a key part of the learning situation for kids - then we are in big trouble." Schools, especially those facing major challenges, should not be afraid to look into partnerships with research universities. The more relationships schools can build with outside resources, the better off they are going to be (Perking-Gough, 2013).

Schools should devote more - not less - intentional effort to developing grit in students. Teaching grit means helping students understand how to set and achieve their goals. When we teach students how to regulate their attention, emotions and behavior, we empower them to pursue goals that are most important to them (Duckworth, 2009), which sets the stage for helping each student reach his or her full potential.

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Intergenerational Stylistic Preferences in Leadership Training of Public School Business Administrators

By Candis M. DeVito, Lucianna Basilice,
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the difference in perceived importance of training in specific aspects of transformational leadership and transactional leadership during certification preparation between Generation X and Baby Boomer New York State certified school business administrators. Eighty-seven school business administrators participated in the study. The results indicated that neither generation showed a notable preference to either leadership style. Baby Boomers agreed more than Generation X with the importance of training in leadership style items measured. This supported the literature that characterized Generation X as more independent, placing a higher value on accountability, and had less organizational commitment than Baby Boomers.

Introduction

The definition of leadership is commonly accepted as one individual having influence over other members within an organization to take action for the purpose of attaining defined organizational goals. This definition inferred that leaders must have influence over others, facilitate the attainment of goals, and have followers (Lunenburg, 2012). How and why leaders had variable degrees of success with these three concepts had been attributed to numerous theories that have been researched extensively (Burns, 1978; Carlyle, 1888; Lunenburg, 2012; Weber 1947). Leadership theory evolved significantly since the great man theories that were founded on the idea that great leaders are predetermined. Modern leadership theory valued growth and development of great leaders over time. These modern theories were a response to changing societal views of leadership obligation. Predetermination was widely dismissed, and there was an increased interest in variances of leadership styles. If a leader had the ability to develop leadership skills, then what leadership skills should be developed to become an effective leader were worthy of examination. Researchers often categorized leadership practices and skills into styles to compare and contrast them. Two styles that have been commonly identified as juxtapose in practice are transactional leadership style, which defines quality leadership by the implementation of clear exchange practices with followers and transformational leadership style, which defines quality leadership as effectively motivating followers (Higuera, 2009).

The role of the New York State certified school business administrator (SBA) has evolved dramatically. Prior to this evolution, the position's job scope required budget management, reporting, management of direct support staff, and facilities management. These tasks became increasingly difficult, and additional tasks of financial management and managerial necessities were added to the scope of these duties. This was reflected in the School District Accountability Act of 2005 (State of New York Office of the State Comptroller, 2005). This Act created a significant amount of new financial mandates for New York State public school districts. The job requirements of the SBA changed in both public perception and managerial duties. The SBA was pulled into the public eye and began working collaboratively with the superintendent much like the chief financial officer of a private company. This contrasted with the position's prior segregation. Since that shift SBAs were given a larger span of leadership responsibilities than the profession had historically seen. Understandably, this population perceived a wide array of needs in their certification training (Higuera, 2009).

The dramatic change in the job scope of the SBA reflected the need for substantially prepared and effective school business leaders. The changes that were implemented in the public school system have had significant fiscal consequences on school districts and require changes district wide to comply with the imposed requirements while continuing to sustain standard functions with fewer resources. This required organizational change. Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (2011), maintained that although change cannot occur without strong leadership, effective leaders are the scarcest resource available for revitalization (p. 195).

This study explored the generation gap among SBAs to identify the evolution of school business leadership in relation to generational belonging. Potential differential perceived training needs during certification preparation in transformational and transactional leadership styles among New York State certified school business administrators belonging to the Generation X and the Baby Boomer generational cohorts are explored to assist in identifying the level of adaptability required by certification programs.

A Review of the Literature

Leadership Styles

Transactional leaders developed a clear system of rewards and sanction exchange for performance. Burns (1978) said that transactional leaders approach followers with a theory of exchange with the goal of compliance. In this exchange, both the superior and the subordinate received something of value.

Transformational leadership theory was first introduced by Burns (1978) and took into consideration the leaders' transformational abilities, adaptability, social contribution to the organization and ability to move followers. His theory addressed how leaders have a significant impact on individuals' whole being within an organization, not just their productivity. Transaction or exchange between leader and follower was a cornerstone of theory, but in contrast to transactional leadership, the exchange was motivated by high morale, social, and spiritual values. He asserted that transactional leadership and transformational leadership are mutually exclusive because transactional leadership is practiced to benefit the self, while transformational leadership is practiced to benefit the organization.

Goleman (2000) reported the findings of research that explored organizational performance results in relation to six different leadership styles. Each leadership style had appeared to have distinct impact on the working environment, and through various levels of the organizations. The research found that those leaders that were most positive had the ability to utilize and transition fluidly between multiple leadership styles.

Generations

Strauss and Howe strongly supported the belief that there were commonalities of mindset and personality within a specific birth year cohort in Generations (1991). They reviewed how people born within a certain defined age group shared a distinct set of attitudes, ethics, and behaviors. This phenomena was referred to as a peer personality, and defined as, ".... a generational persona recognized and determined by (1) common age location (2) common beliefs and behaviors; and (3) perceived membership in a common generation" (p. 64). To define the boundary of a generation that encompasses a specific peer personality, the history surrounding the birth and coming of age of individuals within the generation should be examined (p.65).

The two generations examined in this study were defined as the Thirteenth Generation (Generation X), born between 1961 and 1981, and the Boom Generation (Baby Boomers), born between 1943 and 1960 (p. 32). Thirteenth Generation (Generation X) was categorized as being born at the worst time in the generation's cyclical process, partially due to the conflict among the adults belonging to the previous generation. As children they had less nurturing and supervision than previous generations. This was due to their Baby Boomer parents' extreme work ethic and undergoing the largest divorce rate the nation was yet to see. In their youth, they were often criticized by their parents, and had developed stringent morale and achievement expectations. Because of their early life experiences, they developed keen survival instincts and extreme personal determinism (pp. 322-324). They are described as, "Lacking the ego strength to set agendas for others, their 13ers instead react to the world as they find it. They are proud of their ability to poke through the hype and the detail to understand older people far better (they sense) than older people understand them" (p. 323).

Strauss and Howe (1997) further elaborated on Generations (1991) by defining 25 distinct generations by historical events referred to as turnings. Turnings are defined as culturally historical time periods are defined by events, or people belonging to a decade. The 13th Generation is described as valuing their individual freedom in work over loyalty to an organization, having a hardened edge, and preferring not to have a political affiliation. It was stated that they were criticized as slackers or Xers. This lended to their naming as Generation X. The Boom Generation is described as self-absorbed, mainstream, and perfectionists. Their persona, which is referred to as "yuppie," is attributed to a rebellion against the free-spirited, unstructured nature of the previous generation (p. 138).

Rodriguez, Green, and Ree (2003) conducted a study examining the specific preferences of followers in leadership behavior among members of Generation X and the Baby Boomers by identifying what they valued in their job. Five specific categories were examined: fulfillment; technology; flexibility; monetary benefits; and work environment. Several dominant themes were identified among each generation. Findings indicated that members of Generation X valued: a challenging task accomplished within a workday; surfing and buying using the internet; working alone with flexible hours; a portable 401K with lump sum distribution; and a challenging, fun, job that is not necessarily secure. They found that Baby Boomers valued: a challenging task accomplished in several days; utilizing a telephone to compare prices; working alone with a regular schedule; and a retirement plan with benefits. The findings suggested that the identification of differential preferences among the two generations indicated a need for examination of leadership styles that can better meet the needs of Generation X, which became an increasing percentage of the workforce.

In 2004, Neil Howe presented an overview of Generation X at which he addressed the checkered reputation he believed the generation had received largely through

media. He explained that Xers were highly criticized, mostly by Baby Boomers who perceived them to be unstable, rebellious, unmotivated, and lacking collaboration. Howe claimed that this perception is a reflection of the Baby Boomers misconception of the independent culture of Generation X. He described Generation X as distrustful of interdependence because of their experience of not being provided for in their youth, as well as the prospect of being denied being provided for by the social security system in their elder years as previous generations have. Because of this, he said they believe in individual accountability, both in their own practice and in others (Howe, 2004).

Purpose of the Study

This study asked if any differences existed among the perception of importance of training in the specific elements of leadership styles during certification preparation for New York State certified school business administrators among Generation X and the Baby Boomers within transactional and transformational leadership.

Participants

The sample population of 87 New York State certified school business administrators was taken from a larger study conducted by Higuera (2008). The population consisted of 49 males and 38 females; 30 having received master's degree, 47 having received a professional diploma, and 10 having received a doctorate degree. The ethnicity composition was two Asian or Native Americans, four Black or African Americans, one Hispanic or Latino, and 79 Caucasians.

The data was recoded into two groups based on criteria for inclusion of Generation X, and the Baby Boomer Generation by birth year. One individual from the obtained data set was excluded for not meeting the birth year criteria for this study. Of the remaining 86 participants, 34 were members of Generation X and 49 were identified as Baby Boomers.

Measurement

Data reported in 5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) with the level of importance from Part Two of the survey developed from previous research by Higuera (2009) identified as measuring transactional and transformational leadership styles were utilized (to see survey Higuera, 2009, p. 257).

Definitions of Terms

Transactional Leadership

The instrumentation parameters of transactional leadership were generated in accordance with the definition established by Bass & Riggio (2006) and expanded on by Mancini, 2007. Higuera, 2008 illuminates Bass & Riggio (2006) asserting "transactional leaders attempt to describe clearly the responsibilities of and their expectations for their followers, and to establish the benefits and rewards for compliance and the sanctions for failure to comply with these responsibilities and expectations." He further elaborated this definition, including the clearly defined exchange theory of Mancini (2007) by stating that in the practice of transactional leadership, "The relationship between the leaders and the followers is the exchange of services and rewards" (p. 41).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was measured in accordance with the criteria introduced by Burns, 1978. Higuera (2009) clarifies, "transformational leadership is the relationship between the leader and followers in which the leader motivates the followers to be creative and encourages the followers to extend their best effort. The transformational leader, in adhering to high ethical standards, raises the ethical behavior of the followers" (p.42). He went on to include the interpersonal component of transformational leadership in accordance with Mancini (2007). He explained "transformational leaders build a relationship with followers that rests upon a mutual commitment to the individual growth of the followers (p. 42)."

Generation Xers

Generation Xers are American individuals that were members of a cohort born between 1961 and 1981 (Strauss & Howe, 1992, p. 317). Because this group was partially categorized by their rejection of labeling and group membership due to their loathing of media target marketing, they were originally only referred to in reference to the chronological placement in American history as the Thirteenth Generation. They were eventually coined Generation X, which became popularized by Douglas Copland in his 1991 novel, *Generation X: Tales for an Accelerated Culture* (Howe, 2004).

Baby Boomers

Baby Boomers were American individuals that are members of the Boom Generation, which are a cohort born between 1943 and 1960 (Strauss & Howe, 1992, p. 299). Their name paid homage to the era in which they were born. This was referred to by Fortune Magazine as the "Great American Boom." Many perceive this as the time during American history that experienced the most substantial growth in fertility, economics, housing, and science (Strauss & Howe, 1992, p. 304).

Methodology

First, a ttest analysis was performed. It showed no significant difference between the two groups in the importance of training in transactional leadership (p = .096); or transformational leadership (p = .224).

The percentage of respondents who were in agreement with the importance of training in transactional leadership was approaching significance (p = .091, t = -1.712). Baby Boomers (M = 35.40, SD = 6.53) reported a 72.41% greater value on training than Generation X (M = 33.0, SD = 6.35) in transactional leadership (M = 28.51, SD = 4.69).

The researchers performed an item analysis to learn any discrepancies of opinion between the groups. **Table 1** presents the item distribution analysis of transactional leadership. **Table 2** presents the item distribution analysis of transformational leadership.

Results

The Baby Boomer group placed greater importance than Generation X on three specific areas of transactional leadership training during their certification. Item 2 "Training

in the ability to translate staff responsibilities into step-by-step tasks is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 3.92, SD = .838) more importance on than Generation X. Item 4 "Training in the ability to design effective rewards for compliance and sanctions for non-compliance with expectations for staff performance is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 3.73, SD = 1.016) more importance on than Generation X. Item 5 "Training in the ability to design systems to monitor staff performance is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 3.80, SD = .979) more importance on than Generation X.

The Baby Boomer group placed a greater importance than Generation X on three specific areas of transformational leadership training during their certification. Item 9 "Training in the ability to motivate staff members to apply their best efforts to the performance of their roles is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 4.20, SD = .735) more importance on than Generation X. Item 11 "Training in the importance of motivating staff members through providing

Table 1					
Distribution Analysis – Transactional Leadership					
Item	**Generation**	**% Disagree**	**% Agreed**	***M***	***SD***
1 - Training in the ability to clearly communicate responsibilities to staff members is important.	X	0.00	94.10	4.38	0.604
	BB	0.00	89.80	4.51	0.681
2 - Training in the ability to translate staff responsibilities into step-by-step tasks is important.	X	8.80	52.90	3.68	0.945
	BB	4.10	69.40	3.92	0.838
3 - Training in the ability to clarify expectations for staff performance is important.	X	2.90	76.50	4.03	0.797
	BB	2.00	87.70	4.27	0.730
4 - Training in the ability to design effective rewards for compliance and sanctions for non-compliance with expectations for staff performance is important.	X	20.50	44.10	3.41	1.104
	BB	12.20	63.30	3.73	1.016
5 - Training in the ability to design systems to monitor staff performance is important.	X	11.80	44.10	3.35	0.950
	BB	12.20	65.30	3.80	0.979
6 - Training in the ability to coach staff members that fall short of expectations is important.	X	8.80	76.50	3.94	0.886
	BB	4.10	85.70	4.18	0.782
7 - Training in the ability to document staff performance in relation to expectations is important.	X	2.90	76.50	4.03	0.797
	BB	2.00	77.60	4.10	0.797

challenges and meaningful work is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 4.08, SD = .786) more importance on than Generation X. Item 12 "Training in the importance of motivating staff through provision of the intellectual stimulation of problem solving is important." Baby Boomers placed (M = 3.55, SD = 1.119) more importance on than Generation X.

It should be noted that the Baby Boomers placed higher importance on training in all measured items of transformational leadership and transactional leadership except Item 1 "Training in the ability to clearly communicate responsibilities to staff members is important." However, Generation X was only in (M = 4.38, SD = .604) higher agreement of this items importance than the Baby Boomers.

Conclusion

The study revealed a differential perception of leadership among Generation X and the Baby Boomers. However, identification of significant adherence to either transformational or transactional leadership style by either group could not be made. This indicated an evolution of effective leadership by adaptation as suggested by Goleman (2000). Generations X's comparatively lower agreement level with all but one item measuring the importance of leadership training supports the characterization of this group by Strauss and Howe (1992) as more independent and less organizationally committed than Baby Boomers. Howe (2000) asserts that Generation X values individual accountability and may be more committed to individual contributions than cohort work group results.

Based on the variations of importance placed on leadership style training by New York State certified school business administrators between Generation X and the Baby Boomers during their certification process, an exploration of potential variations in training needs of the newly emerging *Millennials* should be conducted. Higher education institutions could more efficiently meet the training needs of aspiring SBAs by acknowledging the evolution of students' generational belonging over time, and revising the curriculum to coincide with their social structure.

Table 2					
Distribution Analysis – Transformational Leadership					
Item	**Generation**	**% Disagree**	**% Agree**	***M***	***SD***
8 - Training in the ability to motivate staff members to be creative and imaginative in the performance of their roles is important.	X	5.90	67.70	3.94	0.919
	BB	8.20	73.50	4.04	0.957
9 - Training in the ability to motivate staff members to apply their best efforts to the performance of their roles is important.	X	5.90	70.60	3.97	0.904
	BB	2.00	85.70	4.20	0.735
10 - Training in the importance of motivating staff members through the ethical belief system of the leader(s) is important.	X	2.90	64.70	3.94	0.983
	BB	6.40	78.80	4.04	0.999
11 - Training in the importance of motivating staff members through providing challenges and meaningful work is important.	X	8.80	52.90	3.71	1.060
	BB	0.00	73.50	4.08	0.786
12 - Training in the importance of motivating staff through provision of the intellectual stimulation of problem solving is important.	X	20.50	41.20	3.32	1.036
	BB	22.40	57.10	3.55	1.119
13 - Training in the importance of developing a vision for the transformation of the organization is important.	X	5.90	67.70	3.97	0.937
	BB	6.10	77.60	4.20	0.935

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Creating CCSS-Aligned Curriculum in Grades 9-12

By Joe Crawford

In my last two articles, we looked at the process of building standards-based curriculum documents to drive instruction in the K-8 environment. In the spirit of continuity, we will now look at "closing the loop" and following this work into the high school experience. In those articles, I made the case for common learning expectations across grade levels and explained the process to do that work while using the CCSS as the basis for those documents. We did this while showing specific examples of this work applied to specific CCSS. If the reader missed those articles, reading those will help place this article in better context.

All of this work is done to create a system of curriculum, instruction, and assessment - the existence of such an aligned system being the prerequisite for applying systems thinking to our curriculum, instruction, and assessment work. The district must first have a curriculum, instruction, and assessment system in place before systems thinking can be applied.

To quickly review that process, it begins with the CCSS and the Domains contained within the CCSS. In each grade level/course, the appropriate CCSS are used to develop what I used to call Local CCS Standards and Ainsworth calls Priority Standards, "prioritized standards that are derived from a systemic and balanced approach to distinguishing which standards are absolutely essential for student success from those that are 'nice to know'." I really like Ainsworth's term better than my original term, so let's stick with that. In the previous articles, I took the CCSS Domain of Geometry from the Math CCSS, applied Marzano's process of prioritizing, unpacking, and powering the standards within that Domain into Priority Standards, or end-of-year learning targets for that Domain.

Once these end-of-year learning targets, what we call Priority Standards, are identified, the next step recommended is to create within-year learning targets that scaffold the learning through the four quarters of the school year to clearly set within-year learning targets, what we call Instructional Objectives, a kind of pacing guide if you will. Samples of these for grades K-8 are in those previous articles and may be referenced if the reader so chooses.

These Instructional Objectives are then shared with everyone - teachers, students, and parents, and these Instructional Objectives then become the focus of all curriculum, instruction, and assessment and give teachers, students, and parents a common set of learning expectations across grade levels and schools within the district, regardless of the teacher, class, or school. All grade level/course teachers are teaching the same skills, at about the same time, using the same assessments and scoring those assessments on the same scale.

Now common, formative assessments make sense. Given these common learning expectations, assessments, and scoring guides, how do teachers account for differences between and among class performance? Scoring these assessments and reporting those results immediately to all teachers provides both a topic and a format for teachers to discuss who learned and who didn't, what standards were learned by what students, and what instructional strategies worked and what did not. All of these are critical to Professional Learning Communities' work to improve student performance through cooperation between and among the teachers.

On to the High School

Since the previous articles looked at applying this process K-8, let's look at applying this process to the high school next. Once this work goes to the high school level, there is one huge difference in the CCSS that will need to be addressed. The CCSS are no longer organized by distinct grade level; the CCSS are now presented as high school (9-12) standards. Because of the various and sundry organizational patterns in high school math course work (and in ELA, for that matter), it is now important for the entire high school math (and ELA) department to work together to ensure adequate learning opportunities across the entire 9-12 spectrum of high school course work. The CCSS must be parsed out over the entire 9-12 math academic experience and spread among the various courses offered and experienced by students.

In doing this work, I usually suggest the high school math department work together to first become familiar with the CCSS and the specific skills contained in each of the Domains. They must first answer the questions, what are the Domains, and what skills are contained in each Domain? Once this overall view of all the skills expected in the 9-12 experience is developed, the department can then go about the work of parsing those skills into various courses and grade levels. For example many math teachers feel strongly the need to put some Geometry skills into Algebra 1 to prepare students for Geometry, usually the next course in most high school math sequences. The inclusion of Geometry skills in Algebra will, however, take up time, so it is important that those decisions be made at the department level and articulated between and among courses-no matter how many skills we place in a course, we still have only about 180 days for the students to learn those skills, so teachers must pay close attention as they assign those skills to ensure a learnable amount of the most important, most critical learnings for each course and the entire 9`-12 math experience.

Since this series of articles has used the Geometry Domain from the Math CCSS, this article will continue that discussion of the Geometry Domain. The Geometry Domain contains:

1. Modeling with Geometry;
2. Circles;
3. Congruence;
4. Similarity, Right Triangles, and Trigonometry;
5. Expressing Geometric Properties with Equations;
6. Geometric Measure and Dimension.

As the math department become familiar with the standards in these and all the other Domains in 9-12 math, they come to understand the expectations for the totality of the 9-12 math experience and decide where and when those CCSS skills in the Geometry and all other Domains will be learned. Which specific courses are identified as the best place to address the skills contained in the Geometry Domain? As discussed above, the single course Geometry may or may not be where the professional staff decides to address the Geometry Domain, but again, it is imperative this discussion be held with the entire math department to ensure the totality of the high school math experience is considered in ensuring mastery of all the most critical, most important skills that ALL students must know and be able to do.

Another area that should weigh heavily here is full consideration of the assessment system used to measure student mastery. Particularly at the high school level, not all states are requiring new assessments be developed but are rather using traditional high school assessments like ACT. These assessments have been in place for years and between the ACT, College Readiness Standards, and other traditional measures of student performance, high school teachers have access to retired assessments, study guides, and numerous other materials designed to prepare students for success on these traditional assessments.

As a department, the high school department also needs to look very closely at these state and/or national assessments, the relative weight of the various skills in designing these assessments, and the level of complexity (Bloom or some other taxonomy) students are expected to demonstrate to prove mastery of the standard. Yes, let's look very closely at both the state and/or national assessments to be used and consciously use the materials already available to prepare students for success. Let's make sure to "close the loop" and do our level best to ensure the local curriculum, instruction, and assessments we use align closely to the national or state assessments measures to be used in determining our students' mastery of the intended curriculum.

This does NOT mean "teaching to the test" or some other apocalyptic conspiracy to destroy teacher creativity or academic freedom. It simply means that if successful students are expected to master this particular range of skills, then we, at the local level, will do everything in our power to align our local curriculum, instruction, and assessments to those skills. Much as I am sure we all hope when we think about preparing physicians to practice their craft - what skills are foundational to the effective practice of medicine, and ensuring those skills are mastered by those wishing to practice that profession. Our students are going on to university or careers that the country has judged requires these skills - let's make sure our students learn those skills.

The Design Phase

Now that the high school department has done its overall study/review of Domains and standards in those Domains and decided which specific high school courses will address which specific Domains and standards, the actual process of developing the end-of-year (Local CCS Standards or Priority Standards) and within-year (Instructional Objectives) begins.

This process looks much like it does in the K-8 area. Within the Geometry Domain (and all the other Domains, both in Math and ELA), Marzano's three step process is applied - Prioritize, Unpack, and Power the standards within the Domain to identify the most critical, most important learnings that ALL students must know and be able to do. As with the K-8 learning targets, these learning expectations are based on the CCSS themselves, the assessment system used to measure student mastery, and what local teachers, who have spent their careers devoted to kids and their own curriculum content know students must master. The reader may wish to look at those previous articles for a more complete discussion of this process. It is also imperative that those standards selected represent a learnable curriculum - that is, enough content (standards) is chosen that it can realistically be mastered by ALL students in the given time for instruction (about 180 days). (I taught my dog to whistle, he never learned it, but I taught it, should be kept in mind.)

Let's look at an example of this work. As with the previous article, I am not going to publish all the CCSS. Rather than list all of the CCSS for the Domain Geometry for high school, I would refer the reader to the CCSS website at http://www.corestandards.org/the-standards/mathematics to read the CCSS in the Domain Geometry for these grade levels. Doing the work discussed in this and the previous two articles, the staff in this example chose the following for their end-of-year Local CCS or Priority Standards:

also note that the Domains Modeling with Geometry and Geometric Measure and Dimension are not included in the CCSS Domains chosen to be part of the Geometry course. Does that mean these Domains are not being addressed? Not necessarily. These Domains are either being addressed in other math courses or courses in other departments which more appropriately lend themselves to instruction in those skills from those Domains.

	By the end of Geometry, the student will:	
PS	**Priority Standard**	**Domain**
1	Represent transformations in the plane; describe transformations as functions that take points in the plane as inputs and give other points as outputs. Compare transformations that preserve distance and angle to those that do not (e.g., translation versus horizontal stretch). Develop precise definitions of key Geometry terms from the undefined terms point, line and plane.	Congruence
2	Use Algebra skills and established Geometry facts to solve problems involving the following types of lines and angles: Parallel and perpendicular lines, angles from parallel lines, vertical angles, complementary and supplementary angles.	Congruence
3	Use established Geometry facts to do proofs involving the following types of lines and angles: Parallel and perpendicular lines, angles from parallel lines, vertical angles, complementary and supplementary angles. Use established Geometry facts to do proofs involving triangles and parallelograms.	Congruence
4	Right Triangles: Find missing side lengths of right triangles using Pythagorean theorem, its converse, and trigonometry (sine, cosine, tangent). Include special right triangles.	Similarity, Right Triangles, and Trigonometry
5	Quadrilaterals: Use the properties of quadrilaterals to find the value of the variable.	Similarity, Right Triangles, and Trigonometry
6	Perimeter and Area: Find area and perimeter of polygons (parallelograms, rectangles, squares, rhombuses, triangles, trapezoids, kites, and regular polygons) and circles.	Similarity, Right Triangles, and Trigonometry
7	Surface Area & Volume: Use Surface Area and Volume to solve problems (including prisms, cylinders, pyramids, cones, spheres and composite figures).	Circles
8	Congruent Figures: Identify congruent triangles (SSS, SAS, HL, ASA, AAS) and solve problems using properties of congruent figures.	Congruence
9	Similar Figures: Identify similar triangles (AA, SAS, SSS) and solve problems by using properties of similar figures.	Similarity, Right Triangles, and Trigonometry
10	Translate between the geometric description and the equation for a conic section, given: the center and the radius for a circle; a focus and directrix for a parabola, the foci and the sum or difference of the foci for hyperbolas and ellipses.	Expressing Geometric Properties with Equations

These end-of-year learning expectations were co-ordinated with the entire Math Department, and the other Domains in the Geometry CCSS not addressed here are either addressed in other high school math or other department course work, or were judged to not reach the level of importance to be part of the learning expectations that ALL students must know and be able to do. The reader will

From these end-of-year learning expectations, within-year learning expectations are developed. Since this is a course-specific Domain, the learning expectations for the entire year will be shared with you here. Remember, in this system, Instructional Objective 01.1 is the first learning expectation of the first trimester, and 02.1 is the first learning expectation of the second trimester, and so on.

Instructional Objective (End of Term Expectations):

Term	Instructional Objective Number	Instructional Objective (CCSS)	PS
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.1	Know precise definitions of key Geometric terms/names based on the undefined terms, point, line, and plane. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.2	Given the pre-image on a grid, graph the image under a specified translation, reflection, or rotation. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.3	Given the pre-image on a grid, find the coordinates of the image under a specified translation, reflection, or rotation. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.4	Given the pre-image on a grid, graph the image under a specified dilation and identify the scale factor. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.5	Given the pre-image on a grid, find the coordinates of the image under a specified dilation & identify the scale factor. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.6	Given the pre-image on a grid, graph the image under a specified composition of transformations. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.7	Given the pre-image on a grid, find the coordinates of the image under a specified composition of transformations. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.8	Determine if a given transformation would produce an image congruent to the pre-image. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.9	Given a rectangle, parallelogram, trapezoid, or regular polygon, describe the rotations and reflections that carry it onto itself. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.10	Develop definitions of rotations, reflections, and translations in terms of angles, circles, perpendicular lines, parallel lines, and line segments. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.11	Given a geometric figure and a rotation, reflection, or translation, draw the transformed figure. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-1.27G-CO-O1.12	Specify a sequence of transformations that will carry a given figure onto another. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.2, 9-12.G-CO.3, 9-12.G-CO.4, 9-12.G-CO.5)	1
1	Geometry-2.27G-CO-O1.13	Given a diagram of 2 lines (not parallel) crossed by a transversal with all angles labeled, identify the following angle pairs: vertical angles, adjacent angles, supplementary angles, complementary angles & (angle pairs for parallel lines)** (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.9)	2
1	Geometry-2.27G-CO-O1.14	Given a diagram of parallel lines crossed by a transversal with all angles labeled, identify ? angles and supplementary angles (some drawings are contextualized). (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.9)	2

Term	Instructional Objective Number	Instructional Objective (CCSS)	PS
1	Geometry-2.27G-CO-O1.15	Given a diagram of parallel lines crossed by a transversal with all angles labeled and with at least one label being a variable expression, write and solve an equation that matches the relationship shown in the diagram, and determine the missing angle measures. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.9)	2
1	Geometry-2.27G-CO-O1.16	Given a more complex diagram with several lines crossed by transversal(s), name which lines, if any, must be parallel. (9-12.G-CO.1, 9-12.G-CO.9)	2
1	Geometry-3.27G-CO-O1.17	Prove theorems about lines and angles. As an introduction to what is typically the most difficult skill for Geometry students, the proofs in this unit should be mostly intuitive, with relatively few steps and easily recognized justifications (reasons). (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.11, 9-12.G-CO.9)	3
1	Geometry-3.27G-CO-O1.18	Prove theorems about triangles. At this point, the proofs involve isosceles and equilateral triangles and the sum of the interior angles of a triangle. (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.11, 9-12.G-CO.9)	3
1	Geometry-3.27G-CO-O1.19	Prove theorems about parallelograms. At this point, the proofs involve the properties of parallelograms. (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.11, 9-12.G-CO.9)	3
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.1	Find side lengths in right triangles using Pythagorean Theorem. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.2	Determine if a triangle is right, acute or obtuse by its side lengths. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.3	Find side lengths in 30-60-90 and 45-45-90 right triangles. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.4	Given a more complex drawing, find side lengths by using a combination of: special right triangles, Pythagorean Theorem, isosceles and/or equilateral triangles. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.5	Solving right triangles using right triangle trigonometry (sine, cosine, tangent) (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-4.27G-SRT-O2.6	Solve word problems requiring right triangle applications (Pythagorean or Right Triangle Trig) (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8)	4
2	Geometry-5.27G-SRT-O2.7	Find angle measures in polygons. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	5
2	Geometry-5.27G-SRT-O2.8	Given a fact about a special quadrilateral, name all the special quadrilaterals that satisfy the given condition. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	5
2	Geometry-5.27G-SRT-O2.9	Using the given measurements in a diagram of a special quadrilateral, determine the missing measurement(s). Some problems involve variable expressions requiring creating and solving an equation. (linear, quadratic or even a linear system) Quadrilaterals involved: all special quadrilaterals are used, including kites and trapezoids. (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	5

Term	Instructional Objective Number	Instructional Objective (CCSS)	PS
2	Geometry-6.27G-SRT-O2.10	Determine and calculate area of triangles, parallelograms (including rectangles, rhombi and squares), and regular polygons (including composite figures) (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	6
2	Geometry-6.27G-SRT-O2.11	Determine and calculate area of trapezoids, rhombi, and kites (including composite figures) (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	6
2	Geometry-6.27G-SRT-O2.12	Determine and calculate circumference, arc length, area of a circle, and area of a sector of a circle (9-12.G-SRT.6, 9-12.G-SRT.8, 9-12.G-SRT.5)	6
2	Geometry-7.27G-C-O2.13	Find the surface area of solids (including spheres) (9-12.G-C.5, 9-12.G-C.2)	7
2	Geometry-7.27G-C-O2.14	Find the volume of solids (including spheres) (9-12.G-C.5, 9-12.G-C.2)	7
2	Geometry-7.27G-C-O2.15	Find the volume of solids (including spheres) (9-12.G-C.5, 9-12.G-C.2)	7
3	Geometry-8.27G-CO-O3.1	Apply properties of congruent figures (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.7)	8
3	Geometry-8.27G-CO-O3.2	Solve problems using properties of triangles and solve problems using special triangle relationships (equilateral and isosceles triangles) (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.7)	8
3	Geometry-8.27G-CO-O3.3	Prove triangles are congruent (SSS, SAS, ASA, AAS, HL) (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.7)	8
3	Geometry-8.27G-CO-O3.4	Solve problems using triangle congruence (9-12.G-CO.10, 9-12.G-CO.7)	8
3	Geometry-9.27G-SRT-O3.5	Use proportions to solve geometry problems and to identify similar polygons (9-12.G-SRT.5, 9-12.G-SRT.2)	9
3	Geometry-9.27G-SRT-O3.6	Prove triangles are similar using methods such as AA~, SSS~, SAS~ (9-12.G-SRT.5, 9-12.G-SRT.2)	9
3	Geometry-9.27G-SRT-O3.7	Use proportions with a triangle or parallel lines to find missing lengths of figures (9-12.G-SRT.5, 9-12.G-SRT.2)	9
3	Geometry-9.27G-SRT-O3.8	Use the relationship between the ratios of perimeter, area, and volume to find perimeter, area, and volume of figures (9-12.G-SRT.5, 9-12.G-SRT.2)	9
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.9	Find arc measures of circles (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10

Term	Instructional Objective Number	Instructional Objective (CCSS)	PS
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.10	Identify and apply properties of segments that intersect circles (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.11	Identify and apply angle relationships in circles (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.12	Write equations of circles in the coordinate plane and find the center and radius of a circle (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.13	Write equations of parabolas in the coordinate plane and find the focus and directrix (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10
3	Geometry-10.27G-GPE-O3.14	Write equations of hyperbolas and ellipses in the coordinate plane and find the sum or difference of the foci (9-12.G-GPE.1, 9-12.G-GPE.2, 9-12.G-GPE.3)	10

As with this or any other curriculum work, it is time-consuming and requires lots of coordination, articulation, and teacher-input as was discussed in the entire series of articles. If the district has done this work in the K-12 environment, there is now a complete set of end-of-year (Priority Standards) and within-year (Instructional Objective) learning targets K-12, and as discussed in those other articles, it is time for the Plan, Do, Check, Act cycle to ensure the documents as designed are as complete, appropriate, and rigorous as intended and will help ALL children improve.

Closing Thoughts/Reminders

All of this works and makes a major impact on improving student performance and teacher satisfaction, but please be reminded of the points made in the earlier articles;

- Education already knows how to do this work successfully. Please see the references cited and the work of Reeves, Ainsworth, Lezotte, Stiggins, and Schmoker and others.

- This is clearly a district responsibility. We cannot rely on teachers to do this work in isolation. The district must bring people together to do this work.

- This, like all the curriculum, instruction, and assessment work we do is a process. Create (or use) the process, follow it, constantly improve the process and do the work.

- Articulate the work between grade levels and courses. Make sure there is a nice flow to the learning expectations that is understood by all.

- You cannot apply systems thinking if you do not have a curriculum, instruction, and assessment system. Make sure to create, implement, continuously improve, and use such a system.

- Once this work is done, it is time to align your local assessments to your local learning expectations. VERY important work.

- The creation of within-year learning expectations (Instructional Objectives) is critical to ensuring teachers are teaching the same skills at about the same time and using their data to drive improvement, thus building a curriculum, instruction, and assessment system.

As some districts find it too difficult or disruptive to do this work from "scratch" during the school year, Partners4Results is now making this complete set of K-12 learning expectations available to districts interested in partnering to improve student performance through curriculum, instruction, and alignment. Others may simply do the work outlined in these articles and electronically create, edit, publish, and use these curriculum documents on their own. Either way, this process allows you to create useable, aligned, and articulated learning expectations that are proven to produce meaningful improvements in student

performance. A sample of a complete set of K-12 ELA and Math standards in this format can be seen, used, and experimented with at http://www.partners4results.org/CCSS Try it out and see if you like it.

Feel free to contact the author at joe@partners4results.org to ask questions, see examples or discuss ways to do this work in your district. Thanks for all you do for children.

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Continuing to Hold the Test Maker Accountable: The ISLLC Standards and the New York State School District Leadership Licensure Assessments

- by Craig Markson, Ed.D. and Albert Inserra, Ed.D.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of school leadership candidates' perceptions of their level of training in the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards (ISLLC) with their scores on Parts I and II of the New York State School District Leader (SDL) licensure assessments. The New York State assessments were based on the ISLLC Standards. Seventy-One graduates of a K-12 school leadership preparation program from a large public university in New York State were included in this study. A survey collected school leadership program graduates' perceptions of their level of coursework and internship training in the ISLLC Standards and their scores on the SDL licensure assessments. The results of this study largely showed an absence of relationships between preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on the New York State School District Leader assessments. Internship preparation for ISLLC Standards One and Four had statistically significant relationships with scores on Part II of the SDL licensure assessment. However, the strength of these relationships were weak.

I. Purpose

The Interstate School Leader Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards have become the most widely used standards for the training, licensing, and professional development for K-12 school leaders. As of 2006, 43 states were using the ISLLC Standards in the licensing requirements for its school administrators (Derrington & Sharratt, 2008). The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) used the ISLLC Standards for college or university K-12 school leadership preparation program evaluations (Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO] 1996; CCSSO, 2008). In 2009, the New York State Education Department instituted a series of licensure examinations as part of the certification requirements for school building and district leaders to practice in the state. The New York State School Building Leader and School District Leader assessments were based on the ISLLC Standards (Frey, 2008; New York State Education Department [NYSED], 2008a; NYSED, 2008b). Prior research studies have found an absence of relationships between preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on the New York State School Building Leader assessments (Markson & Inserra, 2013). These School Building Leader assessments have since been revised (New York State Education Department, 2013). To date, the School District Leader assessments have not been revised and there was no mention of any upcoming revisions to these assessments on the New York State Education Department's Teacher Certification Examinations website ("NYSTCE Program Update," 2014). As a result, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of school leadership candidates' perceptions of their level of training in the ISLLC Standards with their scores on Parts I and II of the New York State School District Leader (SDL) licensure assessments.

II. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical bases for the ISLLC Standards emerged from several decades of research on the most effective strategies for school leadership. To be sure, Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (1999) analyzed hundreds of articles from national and international educational leadership research journals which included: the Journal of School Leadership; Educational Administration Quarterly; Educational Management and Administration; and the Journal of Educational Administration. Their analysis identified 20 different leadership concepts which they distributed into six broader but distinct leadership theories. These six school leadership theories included: "instructional, transformational, moral, participative, managerial, and contingent leadership" (p. 7). The broad school leadership categories identified by Leithwood et al. (1999) were the theoretical underpinnings for the six ISLLC Standards (Cornell, 2005).

ISLLC Standard One was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). ISLLC Standard One was further defined by 29 "Knowledge," "Dispositions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 10-11) descriptors as well as five "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard One emerged from transformational leadership theories.

ISLLC Standard Two was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). ISLLC Standard Two was further defined by 39 "Knowledge," "Dispositions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 12-13) descriptors as well as nine "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard Two was based on instructional leadership theories.

ISLLC Standard Three was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). ISLLC Standard Three was further defined by 38 "Knowledge," "Dispositions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 14-15) descriptors as well as five "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 14). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard Three emerged from managerial leadership theories and organizational development (Cornell, 2005; Fullan, Miles, & Taylor, 1981).

ISLLC Standard Four was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). ISLLC Standard Four was further defined by 29 "Knowledge," "Dispositions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 16-17) descriptors as well as four "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard Four was based on contingency leadership theories.

ISLLC Standard Five was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). ISLLC Standard Five was further defined by 29 "Knowledge," "Dispositions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 18-19) descriptors as well as five "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard Five was derived from theories on moral leadership.

ISLLC Standard Six was "An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). ISLLC Standard Six was further defined by 19 "Knowledge," "Dispo-

sitions," and "Performances" (CCSSO, 1996, pp. 20-21) descriptors as well as three "Functions" (CCSSO, 2008, p. 15). According to Cornell (2005), ISLLC Standard Six was based on participative leadership theories.

According to one of its chief architects, the ISLLC Standards were "what practitioners and researchers have told us are critical aspects of effective [school] leadership" (Murphy, 2000, p. 412). The ISLLC Standards were derived from the feedback of numerous stakeholders, including school leaders, teachers, parents, students, and researchers over a period spanning several decades and have become the premier standards in the training, licensing, and professional development for K-12 school leaders (CCSSO, 2008; Derrington & Sharratt, 2008).

III. Data Sources

The data for this study originated from a larger study, written by Craig Markson for a doctoral dissertation at Dowling College (2013). Permission to conduct the study was obtained through both the Internal Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) of the doctoral program and the university in which the study was conducted. The setting for this study was a large public university in New York State and the participants were graduates of this university's K-12 school leadership preparation program from May 2009 through August 2012. The New York State Education Department mandated its School District Leader licensure assessments for school leadership candidates, effective February 1, 2009.

The May 2009 through August 2012 list of graduates was generated by the participating university, and represented the most recent period of graduates required to take the New York State School Leader assessments during the writing of the Markson (2013) study. The list included the mailing addresses of 638 graduates, 593 of which were still valid as confirmed by the 45 returned as undeliverable by the U.S. Postal Service. Of the 593 surveys sent to the valid mailing addresses, 87 completed surveys were returned, resulting in a response rate of 14.67 percent. Out of the 87 respondents, 71 were included in the current study, based on their reporting of scores on the School District Leader licensure assessments. Those who did not report scores on the School District Leader examinations were excluded from this study.

IV. Method

Each prospective participant was sent a letter informing him or her about the research study, stating it was voluntary, anonymous, and confidential. The survey was returned in non-identifiable mailing envelopes. The participants were provided a cover-letter with instructions for completing the survey and a debriefing letter, which thanked respondents for their participation. A self-addressed, stamped return envelope was also provided. To ensure a high rate of return, the survey mailings were preceded by an email from

the program director and Dean of the school from which the participants graduated. This email encouraged graduates to participate in the survey, the results of which might guide the program for future enhancements.

The survey included three parts. For the purpose of this study, parts II and III of the survey were utilized. Part II of the survey asked participants to self-report their test score results on parts I and II of the New York State School District Leader Assessments. Part III of the survey included 44 questions with Likert response 1-5 options, regarding participants' reported attitudes toward school leadership preparation training in their program coursework and internship. Part III of the survey instrument was adapted from the 1996 ISLLC Standards (CCSSO, 1996); and the 2008 ISLLC Standards (CCSSO, 2008); Green (2009) and a survey created by Impagliazzo (2012). The respondents were presented with an item in the form of a statement that describes an event related to learning an ISLLC Standard leadership skill in the coursework and in the internship. For each statement, respondents were asked to express their levels of agreement that they learned the behavior in their coursework and their internships. The 5-point Likert scale consisted of the following possible responses: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) slightly agree, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree (Impagliazzo, 2012).

Four correlation analyses were conducted to determine if any of the selected variables in coursework and internship preparedness in the ISLLC Standards were related to participant scores on Parts I and II of the School District Leader licensure assessments. A Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis, with a 95 percent confidence interval, was used to analyze the relationships between the variables.

V. Results

Table 1 illustrated the relationship between coursework preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on Part I of the New York State School District Leader (SDL) Assessment.

The results illustrated in **Table 1** showed that there were no statistically significant relationships between school leadership program graduates' coursework preparation for the ISLLC Standards and their scores on Part I of the SDL exam, $p > .05$. Although not statistically significant, preparedness in ISLLC Standards Two, Four, and Six actually had an inverse relationship with scores on SDL Part I. Coursework preparation for ISLLC Standard Two accounted for the greatest degree of variance on scores for Part I of the SDL examination.

Table 1

Correlations for Coursework Preparation in ISLLC Standards with Scores on SDL Part I (N=71)

		SDL Part 1	ISLLC 1 Coursework	ISLLC 2 Coursework	ISLLC 3 Coursework	ISLLC 4 Coursework	ISLLC 5 Coursework
ISLLC 1 Coursework	r	0.033					
	r^2	0.11%					
ISLLC 2 Coursework	r	-0.203	0.685**				
	r^2	4.12%	46.92%				
ISLLC 3 Coursework	r	0.018	0.524**	0.566**			
	r^2	0.03%	27.46%	32.04%			
ISLLC 4 Coursework	r	-0.087	0.854**	0.716**	0.564**		
	r^2	0.76%	72.93%	51.27%	31.81%		
ISLLC 5 Coursework	r	0.13	0.698**	0.576**	0.48**	0.778**	
	r^2	1.69%	48.72%	33.18%	23.04%	60.53%	
ISLLC 6 Coursework	r	-0.021	0.659**	0.62**	0.635**	0.651**	0.652**
	r^2	0.04%	43.43%	38.44%	40.32%	42.38%	42.51%

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

Table 2

Correlations for Internship Preparation for ISLLC Standards with Scores on SDL Part I (N=71)

		SDL Part 1	ISLLC 1 Internship	ISLLC 2 Internship	ISLLC 3 Internship	ISLLC 4 Internship	ISLLC 5 Internship
ISLLC 1 Internship	r	0.021					
	r^2	0.04%					
ISLLC 2 Internship	r	0.005	0.676**				
	r^2	0.00%	45.70%				
ISLLC 3 Internship	r	0.108	0.577**	0.596**			
	r^2	1.17%	33.29%	35.52%			
ISLLC 4 Internship	r	0.01	0.82**	0.706**	0.612**		
	r^2	0.01%	67.24%	49.84%	37.45%		
ISLLC 5 Internship	r	0.09	0.673**	0.629**	0.499**	0.722**	
	r^2	0.81%	45.29%	39.56%	24.90%	52.13%	
ISLLC 6 Internship	r	-0.02	0.608**	0.535**	0.654**	0.626**	0.559**
	r^2	0.04%	36.97%	28.62%	42.77%	39.19%	31.25%

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

Table 3

Correlations for Coursework Preparation in ISLLC Standards with Scores on SDL Part II (N=71)

		SDL Part 2	ISLLC 1 Coursework	ISLLC 2 Coursework	ISLLC 3 Coursework	ISLLC 4 Coursework	ISLLC 5 Coursework
ISLLC 1 Coursework	r	0.123					
	r^2	1.51%					
ISLLC 2 Coursework	r	-0.153	0.685**				
	r^2	2.34%	46.92%				
ISLLC 3 Coursework	r	-0.061	0.524**	0.566**			
	r^2	0.37%	27.46%	32.04%			
ISLLC 4 Coursework	r	0.078	0.854**	0.716**	0.564**		
	r^2	0.61%	72.93%	51.27%	31.81%		
ISLLC 5 Coursework	r	0.072	0.698**	0.576**	0.48**	0.778**	
	r^2	0.52%	48.72%	33.18%	23.04%	60.53%	
ISLLC 6 Coursework	r	-0.113	0.659**	0.62**	0.635**	0.651**	0.652**
	r^2	1.28%	43.43%	38.44%	40.32%	42.38%	42.51%

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

However, it accounted for only 4.12 percent of the variance, which was not statistically significant and there was an inverse relationship.

Table 2 illustrated the relationship between internship preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on Part I of the New York State School District Leader Assessment.

The results displayed in **Table 2** showed that there were no statistically significant relationships between school leadership program graduates' internship preparation for the ISLLC Standards and their scores on Part I of the SDL exam, p>.05. Although not statistically significant, preparedness in ISLLC Standard Six had an inverse relationship with scores on SDL Part I.

Table 3 illustrated the relationship between coursework preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on Part II of the New York State School District Leader Assessment.

The results depicted in **Table 3** showed that there were no statistically significant relationships between school leadership program graduates' coursework preparation for the ISLLC Standards and their scores on Part II of the SDL exam, p>.05. Although not statistically significant, preparedness in ISLLC Standards Two, Three, and Six actually had an inverse relationship with scores on SDL Part II. Coursework preparation for ISLLC Standard Two accounted for the greatest degree of variance on scores for Part II of the SDL examination. However, it accounted for only 2.34 percent of the variance, which was not statistically significant and once again, there was an inverse relationship.

Table 4 displayed the relationship between internship preparation for the ISLLC Standards and scores on Part II of the New York State School District Leader Assessment.

The results illustrated in **Table 4** showed that there were no statistically significant relationships between school leadership program graduates' internship

Table 4

Correlations for Internship Preparation for ISLLC Standards with Scores on SDL Part II (N=71)

		SDL Part 2	ISLLC 1 Internship	ISLLC 2 Internship	ISLLC 3 Internship	ISLLC 4 Internship	ISLLC 5 Internship
ISLLC 1 Internship	r	0.261*					
	r^2	6.81%					
ISLLC 2 Internship	r	0.107	0.676**				
	r^2	1.14%	45.70%				
ISLLC 3 Internship	r	0.154	0.577**	0.596**			
	r^2	2.37%	33.29%	35.52%			
ISLLC 4 Internship	r	0.249*	0.82**	0.706**	0.612**		
	r^2	6.20%	67.24%	49.84%	37.45%		
ISLLC 5 Internship	r	0.178	0.673**	0.629**	0.499**	0.722**	
	r^2	3.17%	45.29%	39.56%	24.90%	52.13%	
ISLLC 6 Internship	r	0.035	0.608**	0.535**	0.654**	0.626**	0.559**
	r^2	0.12%	36.97%	28.62%	42.77%	39.19%	31.25%

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

preparation for ISLLC Standards Two, Three, Five, and Six, and their scores on Part II of the SDL exam, p>.05. Internship preparation for ISLLC Standard One and the internship preparation for ISLLC Standard Four had statistically significant relationships with scores on Part II of the SDL licensure assessment. However, the strength of these relationships were weak, accounting for only 6.81 percent and 6.2 percent of the variance on scores for SDL Part II.

VI. Conclusions

While the New York State School District Leader assessments were based on the ISLLC Standards, there were no statistically significant relationships between school leadership program graduates' coursework and internship preparedness in the ISLLC Standards and their scores on Part I of the School District Leader assessment. Although not statistically significant, there was the presence of inverse relationships among several of the ISLLC Standards and scores for Part I of the SDL exam. These findings were consistent with the findings of the Markson and Inserra (2013) study, which analyzed scores on Parts I and II of the School Building Leader assessments. Findings on Part II of the SDL exam were less consistent with the Markson and Inserra (2013) study. While coursework training in the ISLLC Standards had no statistically significant relationships with Part II scores, internship training for ISLLC Standards One and Four had statistically significant relationships. However, the strength of these relationships were weak, accounting for only 6.81 and 6.2 percent of the variance respectively. The school leadership preparation program where this study took place had its course syllabi aligned to the ISLLC Standards well prior to the establishment of the licensure assessments (Markson, 2013). As a result, the lack of statistically significant relationships among graduates' ranking of their ISLLC Standard preparedness and assessment scores was surprising.

The New York State Education Department had contracted with a foreign corporation to create, implement, and grade both the School Building Leader and the School District Leader licensure assessments (Pearson Education Inc., 2009; "PSO Profile | Pearson, Plc Common Stock - Yahoo! Finance," n.d.). While the School Building Leader assessments have been revised after the publication of the Markson and Inserra (2013) study, there were no plans for revisions to the School District Leader examinations (New York State Education Department, 2013; "NYSTCE Program Update," 2014). As a result, future studies should continue to investigate the relationship between school leadership program graduates preparedness for the ISLLC Standards and their scores on the School District Leader licensure assessments.

VII. Implications of the Research

If the results of this study remain consistent with future studies, then state education departments need to reassess how they contract with corporations to produce and implement school leadership licensure assessments. The findings of this study, as well as the Markson and Inserra (2013) study, suggested a disconnect between licensure assessments created by corporations and preparation program curricula of higher education institutions. As a result, the colleges or universities responsible for delivering the program curricula might need to be more involved in the development of the licensure assessments to ensure greater alignment.

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From the Field:

SCHOOL BUS SAFETY:

WHAT CAN OUR SCHOOLS DO
TO PROTECT OUR CHILDREN?

**By Thomas J. Dargan, Esq. and
Adam H. Silverstone, Esq.**

School districts and school bus contractors are entrusted with the most important of all road users - our nation's children. In the wake of recent newsworthy accidents and attention grabbing headlines regarding unfit bus drivers, claims premised upon school bus accidents have become increasingly tangential and, in turn, personal injury attorneys have become increasingly creative in the application of theories to support these claims.

Two things occur when bus safety is taken lightly. First, children may get hurt. Second, personal injury attorneys seek to punish and expose potential defendants. The attorneys do so by using safety regulations as their sword.

Background

To fully appreciate the impact of these claims, it is important to understand how New York State's laws and regulations regulate the retention of school bus contractors and how personal injury attorneys seek to hold both school bus contractors and school districts liable under alternative theories of 'negligent hiring' and 'negligent retention.'

Under 8 NYCRR§156, contracts for transportation are required "to be in writing and approved by each school's superintendent, who is charged with conducting an investigation into the drivers, routes, time schedules and other matters involving safety." [Education Law §3635(3)]; Chainani by Chainani v. Board of Education of the City of New York, 87 N.Y.2d 370 (1995). Essentially, the superintendent of schools is the bargaining agent for a school district [Civil Service Law §201[10], [12].

The Education Commissioner's regulations further requires that

"[a]pplication for the approval of all bus routes and bus capacities, together with transportation contracts, including contracts for the operation of district-owned conveyances and all contracts for the maintenance and/or garaging of district-owned conveyances shall be filed by the superintendent or district superintendent of schools…. In addition thereto, such superintendent or district superintendent of schools shall file with the commissioner the instructions to bidders, bid forms and specifications upon which such contracts were awarded, a summary of bids submitted, a statement of the actions taken to solicit bids … and such other information as the commissioner may require."

See 8 NYCRR§§ 156.1, 156.2 and 156.3.

There are many broadly written state statutes and regulations in New York that govern school bus contractors and drivers. For example, Article 19-A of the New York State Vehicle and Traffic Law (hereinafter "V.T.L.") requires employers of bus drivers to obtain from bus driver applicants: current physical examinations, an employment background check, driving and drug test results, among other items. Although Article 19-A of the V.T.L. is broad in its scope and requires bus company employers and their employees to perform many tests, undergo various checks and report the results of these findings, as is the case with many regulatory statutes, the statute's follow up and compliance measures fall woefully short in ensuring that drivers are actually undergoing the mandated tests and training. In many cases, there are no affirmative compliance mandates to ensure adherence to the provisions within V.T.L. §19-A.

Even if a school bus contractor completes and files all of the appropriate V.T.L. §19-A regulatory paperwork, a single newsworthy or catastrophic event will lead to extremely close scrutiny and discovery of either detailed safety efforts or a lack of safety efforts by the school district and/or school bus contractor. Everyone and everything is under the microscope should a serious accident occur.

Insurance coverage also plays a large role. Several employers are misinformed when it comes to insurance coverage and mistakenly rely upon the fact that they simply have liability insurance with high limits in place. Most school districts do require that the school bus contractor name the school district as an additional insured on their bus policies and require indemnification inuring to the benefit of the district in case of a serious liability event.

However, when there is a catastrophic or newsworthy incident, there are often allegations seeking punitive damages against the school district and the bus contractor for recklessness and/or gross negligence. It is well settled in New York that courts will not enforce liability insurance covering punitive damages. Hartford Accident and Indemnity Company v. Village of Hempstead, 48 N.Y.2d 218 (1979). Therefore, no New York licensed broker may lawfully place insurance coverage that would cover punitive damages because New York has ruled that insurance coverage for punitive damages is contrary to public policy. New York is not alone in this regard. California, Colorado, Illinois, Ohio, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Utah among other states also have prohibitions against liability insurance coverage for 'punitive damages.' Additionally, many insurance policies do not cover sexual molestation claims and without the proper endorsements for alleged improper sexual acts, there may not be actual insurance coverage for claims of sexual abuse. According to a 2014 *School Transportation News* survey of school administrators, 76 percent of respondents do not know if their district's insurance policy includes liability coverage for sexual abuse cases involving employee and/or student perpetrators.

According to 2011 data from the federal Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act (CAPTA), approximately 61,472 children aged 1 to 21 reported that they were victims of sexual abuse. Unfortunately, sexual molestation claims are on the rise across the country. The hiring of an alleged predator or an alleged driver on drugs may leave a company or school district extremely vulnerable to such claims.

In the case where a high profile plaintiff's attorney has made allegations that may inflame a jury, the mere reliance upon insurance limits and indemnity agreements is foolish.

What Can Go Wrong

A basic search for examples of school districts held liable by juries for the actions of school bus drivers reveals countless examples of high verdicts each and every week.

Recently, a San Joaquin, California jury found that the Lodi School District negligently hired a bus driver who had molested an 8 year old special needs student. The case settled for $4.75 million dollars after the verdict was rendered against the District. By way of background, the school bus driver was a 60 year old driver with a clean record. However, it was discovered that in 2000, he was arrested for solicitation of sex with an adult prostitute. Indemnity agreements were in place, however, the jury found the Lodi School District *90 percent liable* for the sexual molestation acts and found the driver, Richard Evans, only *10 percent liable*. The plaintiff's attorney contended that the School District was liable for negligently hiring Evans and that the defendant School District ignored certain facts about the driver that could have been discovered with reasonable due diligence. The defendant School District had argued that a criminal background check was performed by the California Department of Justice and had confirmed that the alleged arrest had been dismissed and expunged, however, the jury still found the District liable for negligent hiring by placing a higher standard of responsibility upon the District.

Recently, there was a case involving an infant passenger upon a school bus within a school district in Suffolk County, New York. The plaintiff passenger alleged that the school bus operator caused the bus to swerve and veer at a high rate of speed.

The infant plaintiff's head and face reportedly struck a glass window along side the seat. The force of the collision with the window allegedly caused the window to crack. The infant, by his mother and natural guardian, filed a lawsuit against the school district, bus driver, the school transportation supervisor, superintendent and school bus contractor. Several allegations of negligence were asserted for the operation of the school bus and gross negligence allegations were asserted against the school district and its contractor for negligently hiring and retaining the driver. Unbelievably, even though the parties entered into a high/low agreement which essentially capped the damages of any verdict to between $300,000 - $1,750,000, the jury determined that a brain injury was sustained as a result of the accident and awarded $3.175 million for pain and suffering and $600,000 for medical expenses per year for a period of 50 years. The jury award was for millions of dollars more than the agreed upon cap put in place. The Appellate Court reduced the award to $1,750,000 pursuant to the agreed upon high/low agreement.

The lesson learned is that when a catastrophic event occurs involving a child, a jury, even conservative juries, may award multiple seven figure verdicts that will either be outside of the insurance policy coverages or above liability limits.

Best Practices

Transporting minor children is a great responsibility. It is incumbent upon the school district to make sure that the selected bus contractor is not merely the lowest bidder. It is imperative that the bus contractors strictly comply and document compliance with the mandates of Article 19-A of the Vehicle and Traffic Law. When evaluating competing bids, the following considerations should be made:

♦ Safe and well maintained vehicles;
♦ Safety conscious and fit drivers (actual compliance with drug testing requirements on a regular basis);
♦ Competent bus contractors (i.e., school bus contractors that make their drivers and driver files available for 'spot reviews' by school districts).

Bus contractors that 'go through the motions' when it comes to safety will be exposed and discovered in the event of a catastrophic incident. Discovery proceedings conducted by personal injury attorneys are conducted with microscopic attention to detail. In addition, if a given driver is no longer employed by the bus company at the time of his or her deposition two or three years after the accident (as is often the case), that driver is often willing to implicate the bus contractor with respect to their inattention to safety and training.

Preparation, vigilance, and due diligence is the key toward best practices for transporting children. Representatives of a school district or a bus contractor do not want to be featured in headlines indicating that the school district and/or bus contractor performed the bare minimum with respect to safety.

Richard Gallagher, Director of Transportation for the Bay Shore Union Free School District, made the following statement:

"I believe that all carriers transporting students should, at a minimum, submit proof of performing all required testing and procedures required for school bus drivers. These should include drug and alcohol testing reports, and proof of driver assignment of drivers to a specific drug testing pool. At least 10 percent of drivers assigned to a school district should be interviewed by the school district to ensure that all procedures in place for the safety of students are being done. In addition, semi-annual review and evaluation of carrier performance should be done."

Toward that end, Mr. Gallagher has created a Contractor/District Review form that is attached as Exhibit "A." The attached checklist form is recommended for use by each and every school district. The form was approved by the New York Association for Pupil Transportation ("NYAPT").

CONCLUSION

There are currently no plans to wholly revamp Article 19-A of the New York Vehicle and Traffic Law and there are simply not enough compliance measures in place. Nonetheless, New York's laws and the Education Commissioner's regulations clearly place the burden squarely on the school superintendant to carefully select and oversee all bus transportation contracts. The Appellate Division, Third Department in the Donlon v. Mills matter stated

"A superintendent of schools is charged with the power and duty to be the chief executive officer of the school district and to enforce all provisions of law and all rules and regulations relating to the management of the schools (see, Education Law § 1711[2][a], [b])."

See Donlon v. Mills, 260 A.D.2d 971, 973, 689 N.Y.S.2d 260, 263 (3d Dept. 1999). See also 94 N.Y. Jur. 2d Schools, Universities, and Colleges § 100 (2014).

Thus, it is up to the superintendant and bus contractor to be self-policing and vigilant in their decision-making so as to protect our children from serious preventable accidents due to driver misconduct. The potential fallout that can and will occur when it is discovered that safety took a back seat during this process is much worse than the initial steps necessary to make sure that safety is a priority. Everyone knows that accidents happen on the road every day. However, if a driver is unfit and should not have been allowed to drive in the first place, it can be ruinous for a lax school district and its superintendant.

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