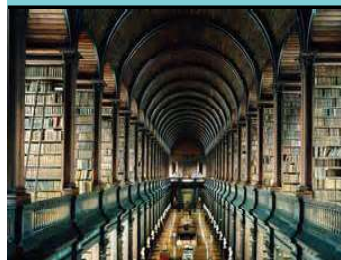


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Inside this issue:

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- ◆ **A Competency-Based Approach to Hiring School Counselors, Psychologists and Social Workers**
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Editor's Perspective

Recently I have resigned the position of Editor-in-Chief to the Journal for Leadership and Instruction. It has been an honor to serve as Editor-in-Chief and I would like to thank Mr. Duffy and the SCOPE



Board of Directors, the Editorial Board, and Reviewers for their support. I would also like to thank and praise the staff at SCOPE. They have helped to make my duties much easier and pleasant.

During my tenure, the Editorial Board and I established three objectives for the journal. The first was approval from ERIC. The second was to take the journal from a regional journal to a national journal. And lastly, review, design and create a vision, standards, and a framework to support national recognition. We have accomplished our three goals.

Moving forward, the journal will require the expertise of an editor who has a strong background in the areas of research, educational content, and educational trends. Having retired, it is not my desire to spend the time to keep up with the vast field of knowledge that is forthcoming. The Editor-in-Chief responsibility will focus on the strength of the authorship coming from the submitted articles.

Again, thank you all for your support and it has been an honor serving as the Editor-in-Chief.

Sincerely,

Richard L. Swanby
Editor-in-Chief

Online Education: Panacea or Plateau

By Dr. Holly J. Seirup, Dr. Rose Tirotta, Dr. Elfreda Blue

Introduction

More and more colleges and universities across the US have adopted online instruction (Allen & Seaman, 2015; Perreault, Waldman, Alexander, & Zhao, 2008). Ginn & Hammond (2012), offer an example of the growth in a report on the adoption of online instruction by National Association of Schools and Public Affairs and Administration members. The report chronicled the increase in offerings of online courses, certificates, and Master degree programs from eight online courses in the 1990s to 15 in 2003 and 39 in 2012. Online offerings and enrollments are expansive (Ni, 2013) as colleges and universities continue to rethink the concept of instructional effectiveness, innovative pedagogy, and student retention.

Chief academic officers (70.8%) at colleges and universities agree that online education is critical to their overall strategic plan - an increase from 48.8% in 2002 (Allen, & Seaman, 2015). To ensure success of distance learning initiatives, "faculty and students must be willing to embrace, or at least grudgingly accept, online learning." (Bristow, Shepherd, Humphreys, & Ziebell, 2011 p. 246). With 24-hour access to the internet and technological innovations (i.e. smart phones, tablets, and wifi), online education has become more appealing. Half of all graduates in the past decade have enrolled in at least one online course (Parker, Lenhart, & Moore, 2011).

The growth rate of online courses has exceeded that of traditional enrollment (Rich & Dereshiwsky, 2011). In Fall 2010, the number of students enrolled in an online program (2.78 million) represented 14% of all college or university enrollment (Silber & Condra, 2011). Still, present trends indicate that faculty acceptance of online courses has "lagged" and the growth rate of these courses may be leveling off at a level 3.7 % lower than prior years (Allen & Seaman, 2015). The "lag" is noticeable in trends relative to MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses). Developed and offered to provide affordable access to education, MOOCs were a growing trend until the recent decrease in the percentage of academic leaders who believe that MOOCs "represent a sustainable method of offering online courses" (Allen & Seaman, 2015, p. 6).

Purpose & Research Focus

As online education continues to grow, understanding faculty and student perceptions seems to be an imperative piece of the decision to continue to expand online offerings. The purpose of this study was to review faculty and students perceptions of online learning and to gain an understanding of the current status of distance education. Findings may inform researchers about whether faculty and student perception provide insight relative to the online education trend. Will it emerge as an essential component of university studies or is this the beginning of a plateau for online education?

Review of Literature

Faculty Perceptions

Many colleges and universities have made the decision to offer online instruction as part of a strategic plan to thrive, or perhaps to survive in the highly competitive educational market (Windes & Leshy, 2014). Initially adoption and growth of online educational offerings were slow and both students and faculty were skeptical that learning objectives could be adequately achieved in an online format (Allen, et.al, 2012). Faculty had concerns related to the quality of online courses, the time required to develop and teach online, issues of intellectual property, as well as the developing the skills required to teach online. (Gerlich, 2005). Osborne, Kriese, Tobey, & Johnson. (2009) found that faculty believed that students learn less, interaction is less effective, and students believe the classes taught on line are easier than those taught face-to-face. All of which can serve as barriers to developing and teaching courses online.

Allen and Seaman (2015) found that academic leaders view "online education as the same or superior to those in face-to-face instruction" (p. 5). In fact the percentage rating from these leaders has increased from 57.2% in 2003 to 74.1% in 2014. Yet faculty do not report the same endorsement of online education. They believe that the university is moving too much education online and that the learning outcomes are inferior to those classes taught face-to-face. This includes faculty who have experience teaching online (Allen, Seaman, Lederman, & Jaschik, 2012).

The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) (2013-14) faculty survey found that the proportion of faculty who report teaching a minimum of one class online has increased from 14% in 2010-11 to 17.4% in 2013-14. Interestingly, those holding the rank of instructor and lecturer are more likely to be teaching online than full professors. Faculty report that as the demand for online instruction increased (Allen & Seaman, 2015; Osborne, et.al., 2009), faculty began to feel strongly encouraged to teach online (Windes & Lesht, 2014; Gerlich, 2005). In fact some report that teaching online has become an expectation not a choice (Gerlich, 2005). Allen et. al., (2012) found that "about one-third of faculty members think that their institution is pushing too much instruction online, compared to fewer than 10 percent of administrators" (p. 2).

Student Perceptions

Allen & Seaman (2015) report that the number of college and university students taking at least one online course has continued to increase, but the increase is at lower rates than in the past. There are a variety of reasons students choose to take courses online but the most common seems to be flexibility and convenience (Dobbs, et. al., 2009; Osborne et. al., 2009; Perreault, et. al., 2008). Wyatt (2005) found that online courses appeal to students balancing their desire to continue their education with family responsibilities, work schedules, as well as the inability to attend school with a traditional schedule. Initially, it seemed that students who chose online education were older and working (Dobbs, Waid, & del Carmen, 2009; Perreault et. al., 2008), but this has changed and more "traditional" students are enrolling in distance education. At the same time students continue to report missing the interaction that occurs in a face-to-face classroom experience.

Unfortunately, research reveals that students may enroll in an online course experience thinking that it is less rigorous than a traditional classroom (Osborne, et.al., 2009) and can be quite surprised to find that they have to work harder (McFarland & Hamilton, 2005-06), and that the course is more demanding (Wyatt, 2005),

and more time consuming (Perreault, et. al., 2008) than the face-to-face counterpart.

Methods

Participants

This study was conducted in two parts at a mid-sized private, four-year college in the northeast United States. In 2012, 60 graduate and undergraduate students enrolled in both traditional face-to-face and online courses participated. A fair representation of students (67%) had taken online courses in the past (n=37); 38% (n=23) had not taken an online course at all. In 2013, surveys were sent to both faculty and students. This sample included faculty that taught online courses in the past (n = 29) and faculty that only taught face-to-face (n = 91). Seventy-one percent of the student participants had taken an online class in the past (n = 34) while 29% had only taken face-to-face courses (n = 14). Survey responses for all three surveys were voluntary. All answers were anonymous.

Survey

The student survey, created by Dobbs, Waid, & del Carmen (2009), was comprised of 59 items presented in a Likert scale (31 questions) and multiple choice/fill in (28 questions) format. Items focused on experience with online and traditional courses, perceptions about quality, challenge, and level of difficulty of online courses and traditional courses. Participants were asked to share their perceptions of various aspects of online courses including, why they would or would not take online courses, the quality of the learning experience and content of the courses, and how much work is perceived to be required. The faculty survey was very similar to the student survey concentrating on faculty perceptions of teaching.

Results

Data were entered into SPSS T-test results yielded a significant difference between perceptions of faculty who had taught online courses (M = 3.351, SD = .654)

Table 1 Perceptions of Online Courses (of those that have taught/taken online classes)

	Learned more online	Learned less online	Learn the same
Students 2012	8% (n=3)	43% (n=16)	49% (n=18)
Students 2013	9% (n=3)	32% (n=11)	59% (n=20)
Faculty 2013	7% (n=2)	48% (n=13)	44% (n=12)

Table 2 Perceptions of the Quality of Online Courses				
	Very high quality	Good quality	Fair quality	Not at all good quality
Students 2012	31% (n=10)	44% (n=14)	25% (n=8)	16% (n=5)
Students 2013	41% (n=14)	32% (n=11)	26% (n=9)	0% (n=0)
Faculty 2013	28% (n=8)	62% (n=18)	10% (n=3)	0% (n=0)

and faculty who never taught an online course ($M = 3.701$, $SD = .597$) on whether they thought online classes were better than face-to-face courses [$t(118) = -2.751$, $p < .01$].

The faculty that had experience teaching online, had a more positive outlook on online courses. There was also a significant difference between faculty that had taught online courses ($M = 3.241$, $SD = .577$) and faculty that had never taught an online course ($M = 2.949$, $SD = .508$) on whether they thought that face-to-face classes were better than online classes [$t(118) = -2.615$, $p = .01$]. The faculty that had not taught online had a more positive outlook of face-to-face courses (**Table 1**).

Results among the students in 2012, the students in 2013, and the faculty in 2013 were also examined.

Overall, both students and faculty agree that they perceive there is either less learning in an online environment or it is similar to a traditional, face-to-face venue (**Table 2**).

Faculty perceive that the online courses offered are slightly higher quality than students. Students perceive that over time, the courses are getting better with more "higher

quality" and "good quality" courses. None were recognized as "not at all good quality."

Overall, both students and faculty agree that they prefer traditional classroom courses. More students, however, prefer online courses as compared to faculty and in 2013, students and faculty were more apt to have no preference than in 2012 (**Table 3**).

Discussion

The results of this study support prior research and confirm that faculty that have online teaching experience perceive online education more positively than those without online teaching experience. Alternatively, those that have only taught face-to-face, perceive that traditional classroom pedagogy as superior over online courses. Interestingly, the perceptions of both students and faculty was that students learn less (or the same) in an online environment while faculty perceive a higher quality of the courses taught online than students. Probably the most significant finding of the study is that both students and faculty prefer the traditional classroom over online education.

Table 3 Course Preference			
	Prefer traditional courses	Prefer online courses	No preference
Students 2012	57% (n=21)	27% (n=10)	16% (n=6)
Students 2013	59% (n=20)	12% (n=4)	29% (n=10)
Faculty 2013	61% (n=17)	7% (n=2)	32% (n=9)

This is an important factor for higher education leaders to consider while making decisions for the future of distance learning and may be particularly important when considering the finding of Allen & Seaman (2015) that 70.8% of academic officers see online education as critical to the overall strategic plan. The perceptions of faculty and students are based on their own experience with distance learning. Prevailing perceptions will not change without significant effort to increase faculty and student experiences with online learning.

For many years, distance education was expanding and it seemed to offer increased markets and access yet at the same time the perceptions of students and faculty regarding online learning is mixed and it would seem that if given a choice they would prefer the traditional classroom experience. This is not to suggest that there is not a place for online education; clearly it serves an important function and provides many with flexibility and access. Perhaps there is a leveling off point where leaders in education need to weigh the benefits of distance learning with the perceptions of faculty and students and their preference to learn in a traditional classroom.

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A Competency-Based Approach to Hiring School Counselors, Psychologists and Social Workers

By Dennis P. O'Hara, Ed.D., and Carolyn J. Probst

*For the strength of the Pack is the Wolf,
and the strength of the Wolf is the Pack.*
-Rudyard Kipling

Hiring decisions offer an immense opportunity for school leaders to influence the trajectory of their organizations in the immediate and long-term. However, very few school administrators have appropriate training, if any at all, in how to select the best candidates. Effective hiring for school counselors, psychologists, and social workers presents further unique challenges including the fact that these positions do not open as frequently as classroom teaching positions, administrators are less likely to have worked in one of these roles, and the required competencies are often less tangible than knowledge of content and pedagogy.

Why Are Hiring Decisions So Important?

Hiring people is not difficult. Who among us has not shared stories of receiving hundreds of resumes for one teaching or counseling position? The challenge and opportunity lie in making great decisions and hiring the best people. Most are familiar with the expression, "You're only as strong as your weakest link." When considering the importance of hiring the best candidate, we prefer to conjure the image of Rudyard Kipling's *Law of the Jungle* in which he says, "For the strength of the Pack is the Wolf, and the strength of the Wolf is the Pack." People represent an organization's greatest asset. The strength of any organization lies in its people, those who are bright, passionate, insightful, and committed to closing aspiration gaps and changing students' life trajectories.

Conversely, in *The Skillful Leader II: Confronting Conditions that Undermine Learning*, Platt et al. (2008) state, "The cost of hiring the wrong candidate can be higher in terms of supplementary training, wasted salary, adverse public relations, and lost productivity than the cost of more extensive recruitment. Clear standards and procedures must be set for recruiting and hiring promising new teachers if we are to build and sustain cultures of excellence" (p. 279).

Why is it Difficult to Make Great Hiring Decisions?

In what he describes as the great paradox, Claudio Fernandez Araoz (2007) says, "Great people decisions lie behind individual success, and ultimately, behind organizational success" (p. 21). And yet, the path to effective hiring is replete with challenges. For example, although we often receive numerous applications, as Araoz (2007) explained, there are only a small number of exceptional performers. An exceptional person is one who can make a tremendous difference for an organization. The difficulty is that upon initial impression, the differences between a typical person and an exceptional person may not be obvious.

In addition, assessing applicants for complex positions, such as counseling, is much more difficult than many realize. Effective counselors must possess a unique blend of the "hard" and "soft" skills. Hard skills represent the knowledge base, intelligence, and experience while soft skills refer to personality, emotional intelligence, self awareness, and capacity to empathize. Identifying these qualities, and to what degree each applicant possesses them, proves difficult considering few interviewers have undergone training and fewer still possess these qualities in the right balance themselves.

Acknowledging Barriers to Great Decisions

Each of us enters a hiring process with biases, both conscious and subconscious. If these biases are not uncovered and acknowledged, they can have dire consequences with regard to the ultimate hiring decision. Perhaps, the first bias that must be acknowledged is our own overestimation of our ability to choose great candidates. Too often, candidates are deemed exceptional for reasons that do not guarantee exceptional performance, such as educational background, appearance, speaking skills, or employment history.

We are reminded of another barrier in Jerry Harvey's (1988) "*The Abilene Paradox*." In *The Paradox*, Harvey describes a visit among a husband and wife and her parents.

The story opens on a 104 degree afternoon in Coleman, Texas. When one member of the group suggests a ride to Abilene, Texas, the others happily agree, only to later learn that none of the four actually wanted to go to Abilene. *The Abilene Paradox* teaches us that a group of people can collectively agree on a decision or course of action that is contrary to the beliefs or desires of some or all members of the group. This tendency presents yet another barrier to making great hiring decisions because individuals sacrifice their convictions in favor of what they think the group believes.

Although not an exhaustive list, the barriers discussed above are perhaps the most pervasive and influential. Much attention and effort must be focused on addressing these barriers and identifying others prior to beginning any hiring process.

A Competency-Based Approach

To clear the barriers, we recommend a competency-based approach to hiring. Araoz defines competencies as, "...behaviors that outstanding performers use more frequently and more consistently than typical performers" (p. 127). Our definition of a competency-based approach to hiring is one that requires an understanding of the knowledge, skills, abilities, and personality traits needed for success in a given role. What exactly are the competencies required when hiring school counselors, psychologists and social workers? Should your new counselor, psychologist, or social worker be:

- A. The Believer
- B. The Innovator
- C. The Ever-Evolving Expert
- D. The Bridge

A competency-based approach to hiring will reveal the correct answer is, and the top performer will be, "E, All of the above." We have identified four overarching competencies required of school counselors, psychologists and social workers.

- A. The Believer - A believer knows that every part of a student's high school experience is preparing him or her for life beyond high school and a believer never takes his or her mind off that importance. The volume of work required in counseling is tremendous. Staying up to date on new information, working with students at all levels and at all stages of progress is both time and labor intensive. The only way to sustain this level of effort is to actually believe that the efforts matter.
- B. The Innovator - Innovation is critical. A counselor, social worker or psychologist who can carry out ideas is common; one who can generate meaningful ideas and creative solutions is harder

to come by. The landscape in education is changing faster than ever. Innovation will be the only way to continue to accomplish the level of work that is required, especially in this age of limited budgets and diminishing resources.

- C. The Ever-Evolving Expert - Counseling, more than many other fields, requires a vast amount of content knowledge. Possessing a body of knowledge is essential, but not sufficient. The landscape is so dynamic that information is outdated the moment it is received. Counselors, of all types, work in challenging and dynamic environments and face a myriad of situations. Constant reading, conferences, and networking are the only ways to truly stay current.
- D. The Bridge - The Bridge represents the nexus between the hard and soft traits. The greatest bridges are strong, but approachable. The Bridge can employ the emotional intelligence, self-awareness, and empathy, as well as knowledge-base, experience, and intelligence. A good bridge serves to connect people, to bring the team together in work toward a common goal. A believer, an innovator, and/or an expert can add results; an effective bridge can multiply them.

Skillful Recruiter Recommendations

Platt et al. (2008) share with us ways to improve hiring decisions. They tell us, "The ability to hire and retain the right people is a key characteristic of a high-performing organization" (p. 279). Essentially, the right person strengthens your organization and enables you to make unbridled progress, while the wrong person makes growth and advancement impossible.

We recommend the following practices as a means of making the best possible hiring decisions:

- As a group activity, before interviews commence, identify the necessary competencies.
- Identify and address potential biases among interviewers.
- Take the group to Abilene, but bring them back by explaining the pitfalls of groupthink and then embolden committee members to share their opinions openly and freely.
- Design and select interview questions that provide applicants every opportunity to demonstrate they possess the necessary competencies. Sample competencies and questions, in no particular order, include:
 - Seek to determine if the applicant is persistent by asking him/her to recount a time when he/

she was initially unsuccessful at an important task and tell what he/she did to improve (Platt et al., 2008, p. 290).

- Assess the applicant's ability to collaborate by asking him/her to share a time he/she has been part of a team other than an athletic team. Ask the candidate what role he/she played and what we can expect from his/her participation in our department or school (Platt et al., 2008, p. 290).
- Determine the candidate's enthusiasm for continuous learning by asking him/her to share the two most recent books he/she has read in his/her content area and how they influenced his/her thinking (Platt et al., 2008, p. 290).
- Observe candidates in action with real students. Demonstration counseling sessions are an effective mechanism to assess the necessary hard and soft skills required of school counselors, psychologists and social workers. Use this opportunity to judge:
 - How does the candidate establish rapport with students?
 - Does the candidate engage all students in a group setting?
 - What assessment strategies does the candidate use to determine student needs?
 - How does the candidate handle students who are reluctant or non-participatory?
 - Does the candidate practice wait-time after asking a question of the student and does he/she process the student's contribution before responding?
 - How does the candidate encourage students to make authentic contributions?
 - Does the candidate foster interactions beyond the superficial?
- Require candidates to submit a writing sample in which they reflect upon the demonstration counseling session.
- In a consistent method, solicit feedback from students regarding the candidates.
- When checking references, be extremely diligent and avoid the confirmation trap. Most employers make the mistake of conducting reference checks with an eye toward confirming their positive feelings about an applicant. Araoz says, "At this dangerous

stage, the problem becomes compounded when we begin to seek confirmatory information for what we believe to be true, while turning our eyes away from any evidence that might contradict our newly embraced conclusions" (p. 72). Find disconfirmatory information at this stage – or take the risk of finding it later when the costs are much greater.

- When you don't get it right, admit it and work to fix it. Araoz recounted an interview with Howard Stevenson of Harvard University who said, "You never fire people early enough" (p. 112). Araoz continued, "In other words, rather than acting honestly, we stall, dissemble, and prevaricate" (p. 112). Acknowledge your mistake and act on it immediately in order to prevent further damage to your organization.

Conclusion

Like Kipling's wolf and its pack, our organizations can only be as strong as the people we hire. Every professional hired in a school possesses the ability to influence students' life trajectories. Araoz says, "No other decisions are so long-lasting in their consequences or so difficult to unmake" (p. 36). These long-lasting decisions can have the effect of sending students' life trajectories off the chart or flattening them. A competency-based approach to recruiting and hiring school counselors, psychologists and social workers will undoubtedly strengthen your organization and surely close aspiration gaps among students, and send their life trajectories soaring.

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New Jersey School Principals' Perceptions on the Application and Importance of the ISLLC 2008 Standards' "Functions": A Preferred Hierarchy

By Gerard Babo, Ed.D.
and Soundaram Ramaswami, Ph.D.

Introduction

Being an effective building principal requires varied skills, knowledge and disposition (Ellett, 1999; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Murphy, 2002; Murphy & Shipman, 1999). A principal's leadership practice can influence and impact school climate, teacher morale and student efficacy (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). In brief, school principals play a critical role in the lives of all those associated with the educational community that they oversee (Hallinger & Heck, 1996).

Until recently, the traditional role of a principal was primarily that of a building manager, whose primary responsibilities included the allocation of funds, curriculum implementation and the evaluation of teachers and operating staff (Willis, 1980; Martin & Willow, 1981). However, with the enactment of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB PL 107-110, 2002) the responsibilities of a principal have become much more demanding and complex. Countless local, state and federal mandates and the ubiquitous pressure for improved test scores has certainly made the job much more challenging and some even say untenable (Tomlinson, 2013).

As policy makers continue to focus on systemic change focused on increased student academic achievement, a set of common national standards, tenure reform and more rigorous teacher and principal evaluation protocols to propel a new paradigm of public education accountability, the role of the principal has evolved into that of a comprehensive leader centered on classroom instruction and student academic achievement. Creating and maintaining an effective school environment to accomplish and achieve these growing policy mandates requires that a school leader be equipped with a myriad of skills and knowledge never before anticipated or expected.

Theoretical Perspective

In 1996 the Council of Chief State School Officers proposed and adopted via the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), six overarching leadership standards for both building and district level administrators, which were then revised in 2008 (CCSSO, 2008). These standards have influenced the licensing and certification process in a majority of states' administrative codes since their inception (Derrington & Sharratt, 2008).

Consequently most, if not all university principal preparation programs in the U.S. focus their curriculum on these six standards (Davis & Hensley, 1999; Waters & Kingston, 2005; Crow, 2006) even though there is a lack of experiential evidence to support this practice (English, 2005; English, 2006; Lindle, Stalion & Young, 2004).

Although much has been posited in the field of school leadership about the skills and knowledge base best needed to accomplish many of these new policy mandates (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; NAESP, 2001), not much has been written about the operationalization of the ISLLC Standards "functions," specifically from the perspective of a principal currently working in the field. However, this perspective is an important one and one that has the potential to not only inform the field of public school education and policy in general but also one that could provide valuable and insightful knowledge to universities and colleges regarding how to best prepare principal candidates.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore the ISLLC Standards' "functions" from the perspective of New Jersey school building principals to determine what they consider to be the most important skills and knowledge a principal must possess in order promote school efficacy. This study builds on the authors' previous work where a national sample of superintendents were asked to rank order the ISLLC 2008 Standards' "functions" in order of importance within the context of principal evaluation (Babo & Ramaswami, 2011). Results from that study revealed the highest ranked "function" as, "Be an advocate for children" (Standard VI) followed by "model principles of ethical behavior" (Standard V). The lowest ranking functions were mainly from Standard IV - Community and Standard VI - Larger Context.

Consequently, the primary research question addressed in this study was: What do current practicing New Jersey (NJ) School Building Principals perceive to be the most and least important ISLLC 2008 Standard "functions" that a principal must possess and demonstrate in order to be a successful building leader?

Methodology

The Survey and Data Collection

A solicitation letter with a link to an online survey instrument developed through Qualtrics, a commercial online comprehensive data collection tool, was emailed to all the NJ school principals. The list of current NJ school principals was acquired from a database posted on the New Jersey Department of Education's (NJDOE) website. Survey questions were based on The Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008 (CCSSO, 2008). The survey consisted of 66 questions that represented the ISLLC 2008 Standards' "functions." The 66 items were ranked by the principals as "Essential," "Important," "Somewhat Important," and "Insignificant." Construct validity for the survey was acquired through expert review and reliability of the 66 survey items yielded a Cronbach Alpha of .96.

The 66 survey items represented and attempted to measure the discrete level of importance of all 31 of ISLLC 2008 Standards' "functions" as perceived by survey respondents. Standard I, with 5 "functions," translated into 10 items; Standard II, that has 9 "functions," constituted 16 items; Standard III, with 5 "functions," resulted in 12 items; Standard IV, encompassing 4 "functions," resulted in 9 items; Standard V, consisting of 5 "functions," resulted in 13 items; and Standard VI, comprised of 3 "functions," composed 6 items. The survey also collected demographic data on each of the participants and their schools (e.g., gender, administrative experience, DFG, AYP status etc.). Solicitation emails were sent to 2,500 NJ principals with 200 emails returned as non-deliverable. Only 423 principals participated in the study for a return rate of 18.4%. However, this number was not consistent across all survey items as some participants did not answer some questions. Although the response rate is a limitation to the external validity of this study we feel the results do contribute to the overall discussion concerning principal preparation.

Results

Demographics

The sample consisted of an equal distribution of males and females. With regard to administrative experience, 25% had over 16 years of experience, and 63% had experience between 6 and 15 years. While 43% of the principals had Masters + 30 credits, 27% had earned Ed.D. or Ph.D. Additionally, 37% of these principals were in urban schools while 54% and 9% were in suburban and rural schools, respectively.

The grade configurations of these principals' schools revealed that close to half (47%) were from elementary schools with various K-8 configurations, while 20% were in schools with 7th -12th grade configurations. Twenty eight percent of these principals were from what NJ classifies as the "poorest" school districts, with 14% coming from the most affluent school districts. Fifty-eight percent came from what would be classified as average income districts.

Findings

In order to investigate the rankings of the 66 items that represented the ISLLC 2008 Standards' "functions," a Friedman's test for related samples was used (Huizingh, 2007). This yielded a significant result ($\chi^2(65, N = 156) = 2225.156, p < .001$), which indicated that a preferred hierarchy does exist among these "functions" as perceived by a sample of NJ principals.

Tables 1 & 2 present the 15 top ranked and 15 lowest ranked items as determined by the Friedman's test. **Table 1** displays the top 15 ranked items with their means and mean rankings and are listed from highest-lowest. The mean rankings ranged from 38.74 to 45.49. **Table 2** displays the 15 lowest ranked items, listing the lowest

Function	Standard	Mean	Mean Rank
Promote and protect the welfare and safety of students.	III	45.49	3.95
Be an advocate for children.	VI	43.26	3.87
Collaboratively implement a shared vision and/or mission.	I	43.12	3.87
Model principles of ethical behavior.	V	42.99	3.87
Promote and protect the welfare and safety of staff.	III	42.86	3.86
Nurture and sustain a culture of high expectations.	II	41.88	3.83
Implement a plan to achieve the school's goals.	I	41.6	3.82
Nurture and sustain a culture of learning.	II	41.36	3.81
Collaboratively develop a shared vision and/or mission.	I	41.04	3.8
Create a plan to achieve the school's goals.	I	40.59	3.78
Nurture and sustain a culture of trust.	II	40.41	3.78
Maximize time spent on quality instruction.	II	40.21	3.78
Nurture and sustain a culture of collaboration.	II	39.9	3.77
Ensure teacher time is focused to support student learning.	III	38.88	3.73
Create a motivating learning environment for students.	II	38.74	3.72

Results from Friedman's Test: NJ Principal' perceptions of the 15 Highest Ranked "functions" for all ISLLC 2008 Standards

ranked to the highest ranked items. These mean rankings ranged from 17.32 to 26.71.

As seen in **Table 1**, the highest ranked item was "promote and protect the welfare and safety of the students" (Standard III), followed by "be an advocate for children" (Standard VI) and "collaboratively implement a shared vision and/or mission" (Standard I). Of the remaining 12 items, 6 were from Standard II - Instruction; 3 from Standard I; 2 from Standard III and 1 from Standard V. Six of the 15 highest ranked items were from Standard II - Instruction. The ability to advocate, nurture and sustain a school culture of instruction that promotes student learning and trust is considered to be essential by NJ principals, which is congruent with the thoughts opined by Quinn (2002). The second highest number of items (4) was from Standard I and the items related to creating and implementing a school's vision/mission. New Jersey principals also envision the safety of students and staff as important. These results are compatible with the model posited by Hallinger as defined and cited in Leithwood et al (2004) where mission/vision, providing for a positive learning environment and focus on student learning are considered pivotal to the role of an "instructional leader." Interestingly, no "function" from Standard IV (*Community*) made the top fifteen.

The lowest ranked function in **Table 2** was "act to influence State and/or national decisions affecting student learning" (Standard VI). The next five lowest ranked items all came from Standard IV, ranks 2 - 6. These items represented promoting understanding, appreciation and use of community's intellectual, cultural and social resources along with building and sustaining relationships with community partners. This suggests that the NJ principals do not see skills related to fostering community relationships as essential for being effective. McKerrow, Crawford & Cornell (2006) reported similar findings, discovering a significant negative correlation between principal seniority and stakeholder collaboration.

There were four items from Standard III that were ranked low, three items from Standard II and an additional two from Standard VI. Notably, most of the items from across these standards were related to technological resources and leadership capacity and management. None of the "functions" from Standards I and V were considered unimportant by these principals. It is important to note that Standard III is the only one which had almost equal representation in both, the highest (3) and lowest (4) ranked items. This dichotomous nature of Standard III is similar to what the authors found in their national

Table 2

Function	Standard	Mean	Mean Rank
Act to influence State and/or national decisions affecting student learning.	VI	2.92	17.32
Promote understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse intellectual resources.	IV	3.06	19.99
Promote understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse cultural resources.	IV	3.1	20.78
Promote understanding, appreciation, and use of the community's diverse social resources.	IV	3.1	20.91
Sustain productive relationships with community partners.	IV	3.15	22.02
Build productive relationships with community partners.	IV	3.17	22.41
Anticipate emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt leadership strategies.	VI	3.16	22.74
Obtain, allocate, align, and efficiently utilize technological resources.	III	3.25	24.92
Assess and analyze emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt leadership strategies.	VI	3.27	25.17
Monitor the management and operational systems.	III	3.28	25.19
Promote the use of the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching.	II	3.29	25.9
Evaluate the management and operational systems.	III	3.29	26.03
Promote the use of the most effective and appropriate technologies to support learning.	II	3.29	26.15
Develop the capacity for distributed leadership.	III	3.31	26.36
Develop the leadership capacity of staff.	II	3.31	26.71

Results from Friedman's Test: NJ Principal' perceptions of the 15 Lowest Ranked "functions" for all ISLLC 2008 Standards

study of superintendents and their application of the ISLLC 2008 Standards' "functions" to principal evaluation (Babo & Ramaswami, 2011). These similar findings could very well be the artifact of the current educational environment where accountability and student achievement hold more importance than the effective management and operation of the school (Kaplan, Owings & Nunnery, 2005).

Conclusions

These findings suggest that NJ principals perceive an "unambiguous hierarchy" with regard to their duties as principals. These results imply that current NJ principals perceive the role of the principal to be primarily focused on instruction, quite possibly a byproduct of the demands of increased state and federal accountability mandates. These findings echo the results from a previous but similar study by one author (Babo, 2009), where NJ school superintendents ranked the "functions" for Standard II, I and III at the top and the "functions" for Standards IV and VI at the bottom in establishing a hierarchy of importance as it relates to principal evaluation. The authors' previously cited study using a national sample of school superintendents also reported similar results (Babo & Ramaswami, 2011).

One cannot ignore the synchronization of the importance placed by both parties on instruction and student learning along with vision and mission when they consider effective leadership. This perspective is aligned with the findings of Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom (2004) and Cotton (2003), where both studies emphasize the importance of the principal as an instructional leader in order to facilitate student academic growth. Additionally, one would be remiss to ignore the implications of the low rankings for both ISLLC 2008 Standards IV and VI throughout previous studies and inclusive of this one.

Do the results reported here by a sample of current working NJ principals and the results from previous studies on the topic indicate a need to revisit these leadership standards and question their relative importance overall in the preparation of school leaders? Or do they call for a renewed vigor in the teaching of these standards in preparation programs across the U.S.?

The consistently low rankings of Standards IV and VI argue for preparation programs to critically evaluate the delivery of these standards and the importance placed on them. Research and practice tell us that principals need to work closely with the outside community and the larger social, cultural and political context in order to tap into resources that might benefit the overall performance and efficacy of the school.

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Instilling Hope In Students

by Jennifer L. Bashant, Ph.D.

WHY HOPE?

Why is hope such an important concept for schools to consider? Over 20 years of research has clearly demonstrated that more hopeful students perform better in school and in life than less hopeful students. Hopeful thought reflects the belief that one can find pathways to desired goals and become motivated to use those pathways. As a result, hope drives the emotions and well-being of people...an essential component of one's happiness and success in life. Hope is positively associated with the following outcomes:

- ✓ Self-Efficacy and Self-Worth
- ✓ Better Attendance
- ✓ Optimism
- ✓ Higher Grades
- ✓ Life Satisfaction and Well-Being
- ✓ Athletic Achievements
- ✓ Physical Health
- ✓ Social Competence (Snyder, Rand & Sigmon, 2000)

Research in positive psychology suggests that creating hope may be a process we can control versus being an inborn attribute (Sheehan & Rall, 2011). To have a hopeful school, you must have hopeful teachers as they are the engine driving hope.

HOPE THEORY

Charles R. Snyder (1944-2006), a Distinguished Professor of Clinical Psychology at University of Kansas, developed the field of positive psychology and Hope Theory. His theory of hope consists of three components. The components are:

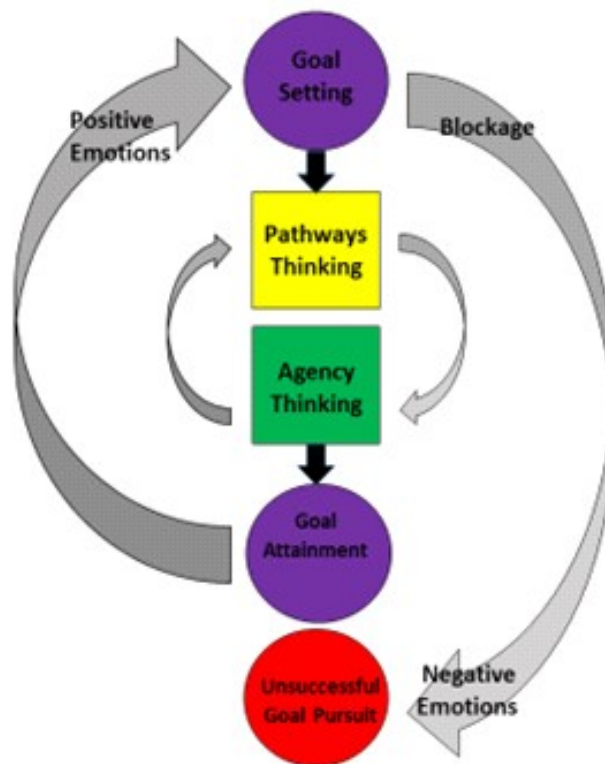
1. **Goals** - Hope Theory is based on the assumption that people's actions are goal-directed (Snyder et al, 2000). Goals may be short- or long-term, must be attainable and almost always contain some degree of uncertainty. Levels of hope are highest when there is a high probability the goal will be attained. This notion is supported by the work of Daniel Pink (2011) who asserts that mastery of a particular goal or task is motivating. In other words, when we believe we will master a particular task and accomplish a goal, we are motivated to keep work-

ing toward that goal. It is easy to see why it is so important for students to have successes in the classroom. Without experiences of mastery, students will experience very little motivation to persevere.

2. **Pathways Thinking** - This refers to one's belief that they will be able to find a solution to a problem or meet a desired goal. Pathways thinking touches on Albert Bandura's concept of self-efficacy, or "one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task" (Bandura, 1994). Bandura (1997) defined four factors that are at the heart of the belief in your own effectiveness (self-efficacy): (1) mastery experiences, (2) vicarious experiences of others, (3) effective persuaders, and (4) a positive social-emotional climate (Sheehan & Rall, 2011). Students who have high self-efficacy have an increased ability to self-regulate their behavior. Problem solving and critical thinking skills are important as people generate several alternative solutions to achieve a goal. As barriers present themselves, high hope people are adept at finding a different way to reach the goal.
3. **Agency Thinking** - This is the motivational component of Hope Theory. Angela Duckworth's research is about the importance of helping students develop perseverance and grit, and that these characteristics have even more to do with achievement than IQ (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005). Hopeful people use self-talk messages such as, "I can do this," and "I am not going to be stopped." When a barrier presents itself, agency thinking (motivation) allows one to put into motion a new plan of action.

As illustrated in **Figure 1**, after setting a goal, pathways thinking (self-efficacy and problem solving) increases agency thinking (motivation and perseverance), which encourages more pathways thinking then agency thinking, which eventually leads to goal attainment. Once a goal is attained (sense of mastery), one is motivated to repeat this cycle. However, if one sets a goal and barriers present themselves, the goal is not reached. There is a risk of negative emotions and a decreased feeling of hope. Bandura states that when this process is continued over time, people may increase self-judgment and people treat themselves in a very negative way. An eventual sense of

Figure 1



hopelessness results in low self-efficacy, poor motivation and an unwillingness to take risk because of the possibility of failure. Students must mindfully deal with the powerful and negative emotions that they experience when things go wrong. These negative emotions are natural, and as long as we don't let them control us and paralyze us with fear, they can be very useful in guiding future action.

STRATEGIES FOR INSTILLING HOPE IN STUDENTS

Dr. Snyder states that, "our most precious commodity as teachers may be the time that we share with our students" (2005). This time can take place before school, during or after school, on trips, weekends, sporting events or clubs. Teachers inadvertently plant seeds of hope by spending large amounts of time with their students.

According to Deborah Mills-Scofield (2012), instilling hope, or the belief that something is possible and probable, should be part of your strategy in the classroom. Some basic principles of using hope as a strategy for student achievement are:

- ◆ Base hope on fact, not fiction; Hope supports "realistic optimism."
- ◆ View failures as learning opportunities

- ◆ Take a strengths perspective and focus on what is working
- ◆ Use optimism as an act of rebellion against status quo

Best-Practice School. De La Salle School in Freeport, NY (grades 5-8) is a highly effective school with a 100% high school graduation rate, despite the odds that only one in three students will graduate based on the hardships and adversity in this community. Students attribute most of their success to the relationships with their teachers and the school culture built upon Hope Theory. Here are some of the school's best practices:

- (1) Every morning students recite affirmations such as:
 - I am a leader by choosing to do the right thing even when it means that I am standing alone.
 - I give back to those less fortunate than myself.
 - I dream big.
 - I work hard to achieve my dreams.
- (2) There are subtle and constant persuaders that all students can achieve these goals. These shared goals and beliefs help to create a positive social-emotional climate necessary to foster hope.

- (3) Goals are reinforced and maintained through weekly award assemblies that recognize goal achievers and celebratory newsletters and posters of past and current award winners.
- (4) Small class sizes of 15 to 17 students enables teachers to focus more on each student which allows every student to experience mastery (One of Daniel Pink's three human motivators: mastery, autonomy and purpose - Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us, 2011).
- (5) Alumni of the program serve as mentors and living proof of the success that is possible for current students. According to Hope Theory, alumni are persuaders sharing their life stories and demonstrating that "others just like you" can achieve these goals.
- (6) Teachers and students write and share their personal stories of hope and dream big visions with the whole school (Sheehan & Rall, 2011).

Additional Hope-Building Strategies:

1. **Hope Finding** - the process of making students aware of hope in their own frames of mind as well as in others. The Children's Hope Scale (Snyder et al, 1997) is a simple way to measure

hope in students. Teachers can introduce students to the concept of hope through literature. This vicarious learning can teach students the language of hope and highlight how the characters attained hope.

2. **Hope Bonding** - relationships that serve as persuaders that we will attain our goals and dreams. Every teacher and staff member must serve as persuaders if a school is to create a culture of hope. Teachers must understand the power of their influence to create positive self-beliefs.

3. **Hope Enhancing** - programs that help students form clear goals, develop pathways to achieve them, summon the energy and will to meet those goals, and to reframe obstacles into challenges. The goal here is to get students to buy into their futures. Researchers Susana Marques and Shane Lopez (NASP Communique) offer practical strategies for teachers (**see illustration below**):

4. **Hope Reminding** - development of a feedback loop allowing students to self-monitor and regulate their hope-enhancing processes. Strategies include use of a hope reminder checklist, reviewing personal help stories and bonding with people to reinforce hope goals and remove barriers (Sheehan & Rall, 2011).

Hope Enhancing Practical Strategies for Teachers

Goal Setting

Encourage goals that excite students.
Help students select goals in different life domains and rank them by importance.
Teach students how to set clear markers for goals.
Encourage students to also set some "we" goals instead of just "me" goals.

Pathways Thinking

Help students break down goals into smaller sub-goals.
Support "keep going" thinking. If one pathway does not work, try others.
Help students recognize if they need a new skill and encourage them to learn it.
Remind students that they can always ask for help.

Agency Thinking

Help students to set "stretch" goals based on past performance.
Help students monitor their self-talk and encourage them to talk in positive voices ("I can do this," and "I will keep at it.").
Tell students stories and provide them with books that portray how other students have succeeded or overcome adversity.

EVIDENCE-BASED PROGRAMS

Although any teacher can begin instilling hope in students by following the basic principles of Hope Theory and implementing some of the specific strategies discussed in this research brief, some schools may be interested in implementing a formal, research-based hope-building program. The following programs have been shown to significantly increase hope in students in particular grades.

- ♦ Making Hope Happen for Kids (Edwards & Lopez, 2000) - this is a five session program developed to increase hope in fourth graders. This program takes an experiential learning approach by having students engage in role play, game playing and story development. Results indicated a significant increase in hope levels of students.
- ♦ Making Hope Happen for Kids (Pedrotti, Lopez & Krieshok (2000) - this program was developed for seventh graders. Results also indicated a significant increase in hope.

CONCLUSION

Humans are wired for hope - we can almost always find a bright spot, even in darkness (McKee, 2008). Given that the development of hope is a process that can be impacted, and those students who are currently hopeless can learn to be hopeful, schools have a wonderful opportunity to significantly impact children's lives for the better. The first step is the realization that having hope is an essential component in the foundation of students' educational journeys. As with any change we are trying to make, it helps to have a laser-like focus, and the concerted effort of all members of the school community, and the use of data to establish a baseline. Lastly, it is important to monitor student progress as this will enable schools to meet the challenge of instilling hope in their young learners. Learning the process and developing the skills to be a more hopeful person are assets your students will carry with them far beyond the walls of the school. Many students face significant adversity on a daily basis, but instilling hope can empower a lifetime of learning.

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NSDC

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Does Participation in Extracurricular Activities Impact Student Achievement?

By Kristen J. Abruzzo, Cristina Lenis, Yansi V. Romero,
Kevin J. Maser, Ed.D., Elsa-Sofia Morote, Ed.D.

Abstract

This study was conducted in two high schools located in suburban, Long Island, New York, with a predominantly white population. The respondents in this study consisted of 234, 11th grade students. The data was analyzed using the structural equation model. Findings show that there is a positive correlation between percent of participation in organizations and academic self-concept. There is a positive correlation between self-concept and academic self-concept, as well as a correlation between self-concept and percent of participation in sports. An inverse correlation was found between the percent of participation in an organization and self-concept.

Purpose of the Study

Growing evidence demonstrates the overall value of participation in organized activities for positive youth development, including fewer behavior problems, improved academic self-concept, and increased educational achievement (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). To date, there haven't been many studies to determine if various extracurricular activities in combination have a greater impact than one particular type alone. Though there has been a great deal of research surrounding extracurricular athletic activities, there hasn't been much research comparing various types of extracurricular activities to determine if certain extracurricular activities have a greater affect on a student's overall grade point average or academic self-concept. The review of the relevant literature indicated relationships among participation in extracurricular activities and academic achievement. Adolescent students' involvement in extracurricular activities, both athletic-based and academic-based, has shown to increase student achievement and increase academic self-concept. Researchers have essentially showed agreement throughout the review of the literature.

The study is important because much of today's research tend to support the academic and psychological development benefits of extracurricular involvement. Many think that participating in a variety of different organized activities will bring higher grades motivation and a

positive self-concept. What we fail to realize is that for some youth, over scheduling them with extracurricular activities can bring about negative consequences academically and psychologically.

The study also examined the effect of four variables (Academic Self-Concept, Self-Concept, Percent of Participation in Sports and Percent of Participation in an organization) on students' academic achievement. Academic achievement is measure by scores in ELA, Math, and overall GPA. The study was conducted in two suburban, Long Island, New York high schools with a predominantly white population. Many schools encourage Middle School and High School students to join sports. This study will help schools determine which type of extracurricular makes the biggest positive impact on academic achievement. The following research questions guide this study.

1. What is the relationship among the four variables (self-concept, academic self-concept, the level of student participation in after-school sports and organizations) and the final Grade Point Average (GPA), English Language Arts (ELA) and Math scores for eleventh graders?
2. What is the impact, if any, of the four variables (self-concept, academic self-concept, the level of student participation in after-school sports and organizations) on the Final Grade Point Average (GPA), English Language Arts (ELA) and Math scores for eleventh graders?

Theoretical Framework

Participation in school-based extracurricular activities like sports, the arts, and academic clubs, provides opportunities for student growth both educationally and developmentally (Mahoney et al., 2006). There have been many studies that show a positive relationship between participating in after school sports or an organizational activity and a student's final Grade Point Average (GPA). Mahoney et al., (2005) stated activity participation by adolescents has been found to be linked with higher educational attainment, and achievement reduced problem behaviors and heightened

psychosocial competencies (Mahoney et al., 2005). Astin (1984) and Tinto (1975) stated involvement helps students connect with their institution and develop an attachment that encourages exploration, and it facilitates social interaction by increasing peer friendships and time with faculty and staff (Astin, 1984; Tinto, 1975). For this study, the review of the research literature is divided into the following topical headings: academic self-concept, academic achievement, and extracurricular activities.

Academic Achievement

Many researchers have hypothesized that there is a significant correlation between academic achievement and the level of extracurricular participation, marked by increases in students' academic achievement (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Early research reported mixed results as to the association between participation in extracurricular activity and academic achievement in the form of grade point average (Holland & Andre, 1987). Extracurricular activities are believed to influence academic self-concept (Jacobs, Vernon, & Eccles, 2004). Stakeholders are concerned about educational performance within the public school setting. Many school reforms have been based off of these concerns stemming from students' academic achievement.

Academic Self-Concept

Conventional wisdom suggests that academic performance should be related to general self-esteem. According to Goodman and Young (2006), the higher the student's academic performance, the higher their self-esteem should be and vice versa. According to Holland and Andre (1987), all students start school being identified with academics, meaning their academic performance in a relation to how they feel about themselves. Self-esteem, however, is only one of several predictors of academic performance (Steele, 1992). Being that many prior studies have shown that academic self-concept is significantly related to academic performance, further studies have been conducted to isolate the effect of academic self-concept between various ethnicities, and between genders.

Extracurricular Activities

In Mahoney et al. (2006), the recent national survey showed that more than 80% of children and youth participated in extracurricular contexts (Mahoney et al., 2006). Eccles and Gootman (2002) and Holland and Andres (1987), also stated there is an increasing awareness that participation in organized activity contexts offers valuable opportunities for growth and positive youth development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Holland & Andres, 1987). Participating in extracurricular activities becomes increasingly important during adolescence, as youth explore their emerging interests and identities, make friends with others, and strive to fit in with their peers. Participa-

tion in school-based extracurricular activities, like sports, the arts, and academic clubs, is a normative and important part of the school experience for many youths (Fredricks, 2012). In Fredricks and Eccles (2006), "adolescents participating in a greater number of activities in 11th grade obtained a higher grade point average and had greater expectations about their educational attainment during and after high school" (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006, p. 12). Prior research tends to support the development benefits of extracurricular involvement, and school completion rates (Fredricks, 2012)

Athletic Extracurricular Activities

Equally important, Shulruf (2010) stated that extracurricular activities are an integral component of school life. Marsh & Kleitman (2003) and McCarthy (2000), the study found that participation in athletics is linked to improved school attendance, academic outcomes, social relationships and self-esteem (Marsh & Kleitman, 2003; McCarthy, 2000; Shulruf, 2010).

Academic Extracurricular Activities

McCarthy (2000) found that there is a significant correlation between academic extracurricular activities and academic performance. McCarthy's study proved that students who participate in academic extracurricular activities are stronger performers academically, and typically report higher GPA's than noninvolved peers or students who participated in other types of out-of-district extracurricular activities (McCarthy, 2000).

Definition of Terms

Self-concept is a "self-procured idea of something formed by mentally combining all aspect of the student's being. This may include and be expressed as psychological well-being, mood, and general confidence" (Hamachek, 1995 as cited in Maser, 2007, page 11).

Table 1.1

Grade Ranges and the Corresponding Number Values Used to Calculate the Final English Grade Rank, Final Math Grade Rank, and Final Grade Point Average (GPA) Rank

Grade Range	Corresponding Number Value
Below 50%	1
50% - 55%	2
56% - 60%	3
61% - 65%	4
66% - 70%	5
71% - 75%	6
76% - 80%	7
81% - 85%	8
86% - 90%	9
91% - 95%	10
96% - 100%	11
Higher than 100%	12

"Academic self-concept is the perception that students have about themselves regarding their academic performance, abilities, and achievement" (Marsh & O'Neill, 1984 as cited in Maser, 2007, page 11).

"Extracurricular activity is any structured, school-sponsored activity that falls outside of the normal school day. The activities are limited to non-credit sports teams and organizations" (Connors-Harris, 1999 as cited in Maser, 2007).

The level of participation in "extracurricular activities for the 2005-2006 school years will identify the level of students' participation. The minimum numbers of hours required by faculty to supervise students in their particular activity, as identified in the School District's Collective Bargaining Agreement, will be used to identify the students' level of participation in extracurricular activities (Maser, 2007, page 10).

Method

The participants in this study were 11th grade students in two suburban high schools on Long Island, New York. Eleventh-grade students were selected because they had attained the highest-grade level before they had an opportunity to drop out. The survey instrument was developed by Maser (2007) administered to 11th grade students during their social studies classes to learn more about the survey. IRB was approved and consent forms were used.

The total combined 11th grade population of both schools was essentially even and consisted of 1,284 students that were predominantly white population of 88.5 percent. The minority population of 11.5 percent demographic composition was comprised of 4.0 percent Asian, 0.9 percent Black, 6.2 percent Hispanic, and 0.4 American Indian, Alaskan or Pacific Islander. Eligibility for free or reduced lunch comprised 8.2 percent of the student population.

Three parts were used in the survey instrument for this study (Maser, 2007, p.51). The first part consisted of five questions that were demographic for the first two, and self-reported final English grade, final math grade, and final grade point average (GPA) for the third, fourth and fifth. Grade ranges were given to the respondents to choose for the final English grade, final math grade, and final grade point average (GPA). The grade ranges and the corresponding number values used to calculate the final English grade rank, final math grade rank, and final grade point average (GPA) rank are represented in **Table 1.1**.

The last part of the survey instrument Maser (2007, p. 52) asked if the respondent participated in extracurricular activities. If the respondent answered no, the respondent was finished and the question was recorded as no participation. If the respondents answered yes, he/she then had to indicate in which extracurricular activity or activities he/she had participated. Students were given a choice of 16 sports and 39 organizations from which to choose. The determination for identifying the extracurricular activities used on the survey instrument was made based on a list of activities given to the researcher by the superintendent of schools.

Figure 1.1 *Dependent Variable: English GPA*

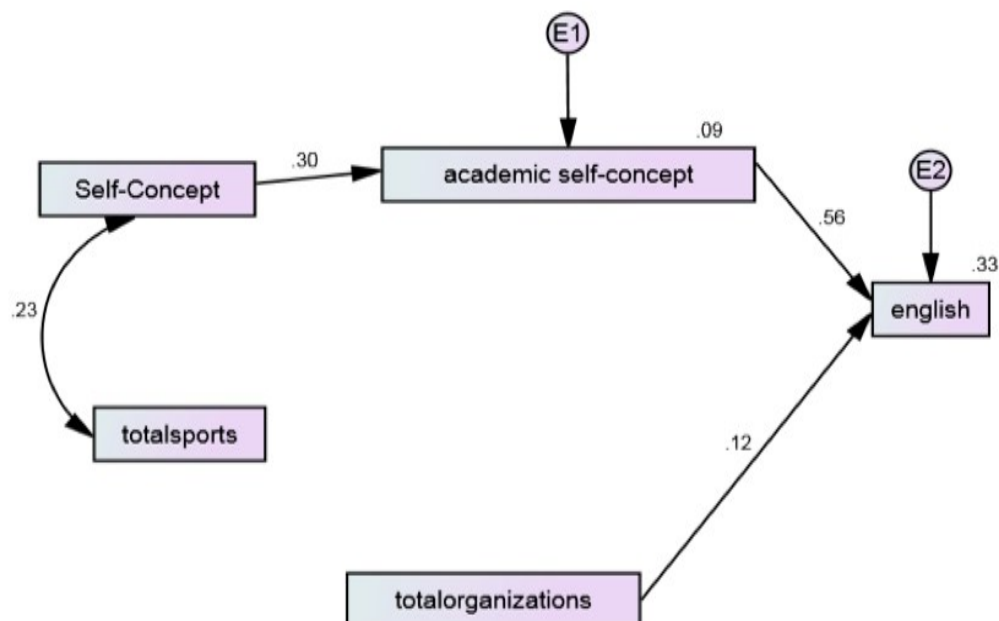
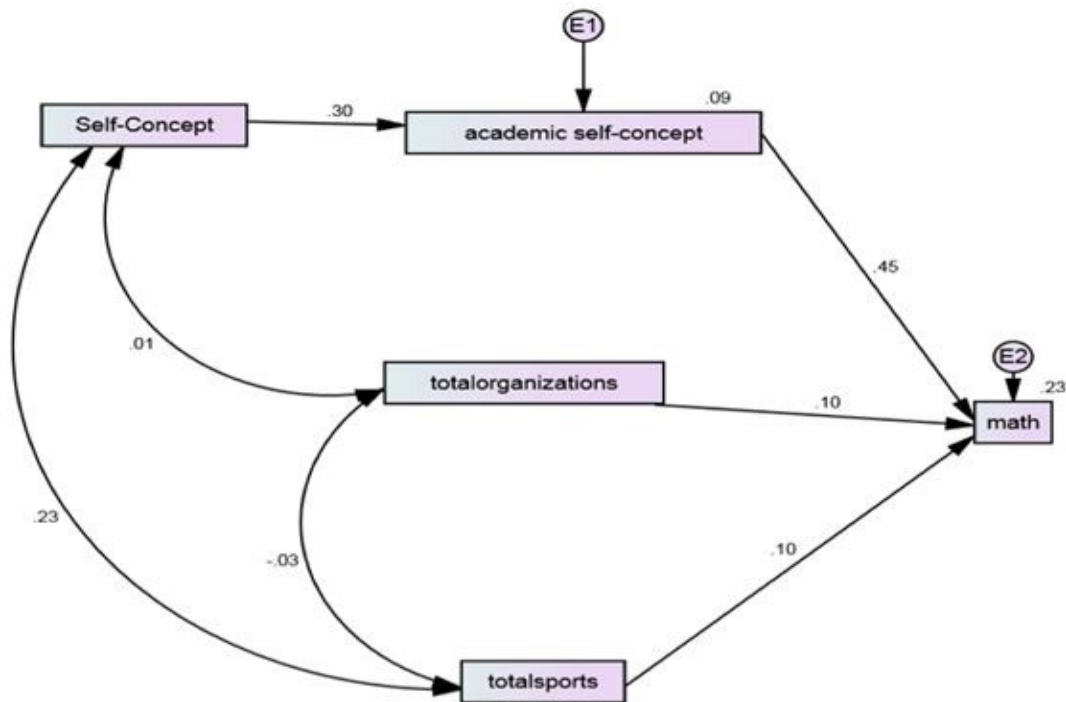


Figure 1.2 **Dependent Variable: Math**



Results

A path analysis was used to answer the two research questions, in each of the three dependent variables: English Scores and Math Scores and Final Grade Point Average (GPA).

Figure 1.1 shows that there is a weak correlation between percent of participation in the organization and academic self-concept. In contrast, percent of participation on organization inversely correlates with participation in sports. That means that the more a student participates in a sport the less he/she will participate in an organization. There is a negative correlation between the percent of participation in an organization and self-concept. There is a correlation between self-concept and academic self-concept. There is a correlation between self-concept and percent of participation in sports.

Figure 1.1 displays the following influences utilizing the standardized beta weights: value .56 is the effect of academic self-concept on the students' English GPA and value .12 is the effect of students' participation in the organization on the students' English GPA. The level of student participation in sports activities had no direct effect on the students' English GPA's. The entries .56 and .12 are standardized beta regression weights. This prediction has an $r^2=.33$ that indicates 33 percent variance of the students' English GPA ranks is explained by the students' academic self-concept, participating in organizations and participat-

ing in sport activities. This indicates that 33 percent of the effects can be predicted.

Figure 1.2 shows that there is a strong correlation between percent of participation in an organization and self-concept. There is a correlation between self-concept and academic self-concept. That means that a students' positive self-concept about themselves will show in their academics. There is a weak correlation between self-concept and the percent of participation in an organization. There is a weak correlation between the percent of participation in sports and the participation in an organization. That means that the more a student participates in a sport the less he/she will participate in an organization and vice versa.

Figure 1.2 displays the following influences utilizing the standardized beta weights: value .45 is the effect of academic self-concept on the student's math scores, value .10 is the effect of students' participation in organizations on the students' math scores and value .10 is the effect of students' participation in sports on the student's math scores. The level of student participation in sports activities had a weak correlation with the student participation in the organization. The level of the organization had a weak correlation with self-concept. The entries .45, .10 and .10 are standardized beta regression weights. This prediction has an $r^2=.23$ which indicates 23 percent variance of the students' math scores ranks is explained by the students' academic

self-concept, participating in organizations and participating in sport activities. This indicates that 23 percent of the effects can be predicted.

Figure 1.3 shows that there is a strong correlation between percent of participation in an organization and self-concept. There is a strong correlation between self-concept and academic self-concept. That means that a student's positive self-concept about themselves will show in their academics. There is a weak correlation between self-concept and the percent of participation in an organization. There is a weak correlation between the percent of participation in sports and the participation in an organization. That means that the more a student participates in a sport the less he/she will participate in an organization and vice versa. There is a weak correlation between a students' self-concept and the percent of participation in an organization.

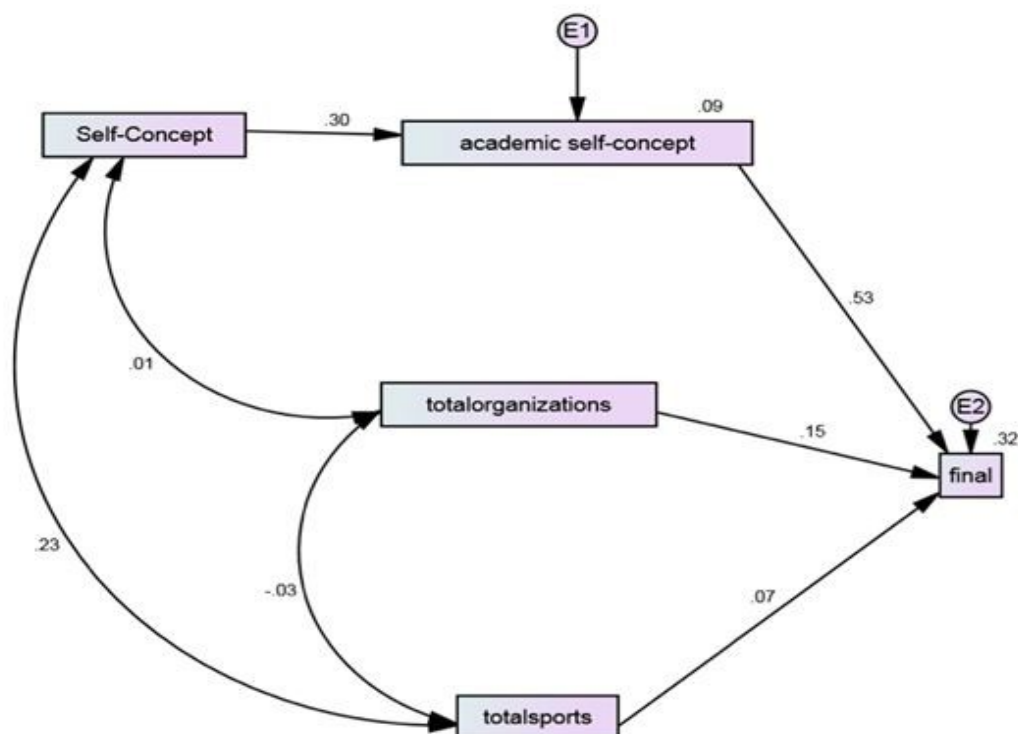
Figure 1.3 displays the following influence utilizing the standardized beta weights: value .53 is the effect of academic self-concept on the students' final Grade Point Average (GPA), value .15 is the effect of students' participation in organizations on the students' final Grade Point Average (GPA) and value .07 is the effect of students' participation in sports on the student's final Grade Point Average (GPA). The entries .53, .15 and .07 are standardized beta regression

weights. This prediction has an $r^2 = .32$ which indicates 32 percent variance of the students' final Grade Point Average (GPA) ranks is explained by the students' academic self-concept, participating in organizations and participating in sport activities. This indicates that 32 percent of the effects can be predicted.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between 11th grade students participating in after school sports, and organizations or both, on students' final Grade Point Average (GPA), English Language Arts (ELA) scores and Math scores. Participation in school-based extracurricular activities, like sports, the arts, and academic clubs, is a normative and important part of the school experience for many youths (Fredricks, 2012). Findings show that there is a correlation between percent of participation in the organization and academic self-concept, which supports prior research supporting the developmental benefits of extracurricular involvement; participating in a range of organized contexts is related to higher grade, motivation, and school completion rates (Fredricks, 2012). Additionally, an inverse correlation was found between the percent of participation in an organization and self-concept.

Figure 1.3 Dependent Variable: Final Grade Point Average (GPA)



This study indicated that there is a correlation between self-concept and academic self-concept as well as a correlation between self-concept and percent participation in sports. This study further examined how participating in after school sports or in an after-school organization impacts self-concept and academic concept and determined the effect they had on students' math scores, ELA scores, and overall GPA.

Recommendations

We recommend the after-school organizations would be separated into categories: Athletic, academic, interest-based, and service-based. The study would have a larger sample size, for example, to include or contrast suburban minority schools vs. suburban white schools. The survey could include questions regarding reasons students would not participate in after-school activities.

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What type of Leadership in Higher Education Promotes Job Satisfaction and Increases Retention?

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study was to predict Job Satisfaction (Happiness at Work) and Employee Intention to stay with an organization, utilizing dimensions of servant leadership practices. The six dimensions of servant leadership practice were Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Provides Leaderships, Displaying Authenticity, and Shared Leadership. The participants consisted of 59 respondents, from faith-based higher education institutions. Participants were given an 84-item questionnaire survey. A correlation and a structural equation model (SEM) were used. We found that all the variables significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Intention to Stay played a moderator role between the servant leadership variables and job satisfaction. Intention to Stay predicted 33% of the variance of job satisfaction; 54% of the variance of Intention to Stay is predicted by dimensions of servant leadership practices.

Introduction

Employee turnover is one of the unique features of the U.S. workforce. Jo (2008) stated that employees changed jobs about seven times in their careers. Ton and Huckman (2008) reported the cost of turnover for an employee earning \$8.00 per hour at between \$3,500 and \$25,000.00. Selesho and Naile (2014) suggested this high turnover rate extended to higher education, where employee retention was a major challenge. They observed that in addition to the loss of productivity and cost of replacement, implications such as variations in quality, consistency, and stability of the academic institution must be considered. Dee (2004) discussed problems inherent in high rates of faculty turnover as damaging to the institution's reputation as well as to the quality of instruction. Mercer (2001), as cited in Jo (2008), estimated the cost of turnover for some universities at approximately \$68 million. The branding of "excellence" or "distinction" among higher educational institutions is in part a function of the academic staff the school can employ and retain. Bowen and Schuster (1986) believed that a school's reputation was linked to the faculty and staff it employed.

It is an accepted belief in management circles that a happy worker is a productive worker. Staples and Higgins (1998) defined job satisfaction as "the scope of the work and all the positive attitudes regarding the work environment" that reflected the degree to which the employee's needs were met and how others perceived that satisfaction. Laub (1999) suggested a correlation between job satisfaction and leadership style and proposed that job satisfaction would improve in the presence of servant leadership. Amabile and Kramer (2011) proposed high employee morale and happiness as key to increased organizational productivity.

Job Satisfaction and Employee Intention to stay with an organization are reported in the literature as positively correlated with one another (Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985) and negatively related to turnover and intention to leave an organization. Larry Spears (1996), CEO of the Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership, described servant-leadership "as a way of being in a relationship with others." He illustrated servant-leadership practices as a set of ethical and caring behaviors that emphasized employees' personal growth, involved them in decision-making, and supported the quality of organizational life. Spears further affirmed that servant leadership was a crucial foundation for improving employee performance. Guillaume, Honeycutt, and Savage-Austin, (2013) also found a strong relationship between Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction among faculty and non-faculty employees in the private university setting.

The purpose of this study was to predict the perceived effect of servant leadership practices (Values People, Builds Community, Provides Leadership, Develops People, Displays Authenticity, and Shares Leadership) held by employees at higher education institutions, on Job Satisfaction moderated by their Intention to stay with the organization. Quantitative research on the influence of Servant Leadership on Job Satisfaction moderated by Employee Intention to stay with an institution is still lacking, despite evidence of a positive correlation between the two constructs.

Description of study

This study used Rubino's (2012) data to predict the perceived relationship of dimensions of servant leadership practices on Job Satisfaction moderated by Employee Intention to stay with the institution. Participants in Rubino's study consisted of 59 respondents from three levels of employees from faith-based higher education institutions in the Eastern United States. Rubino used two tools to develop an 84-item questionnaire survey (Rubino, 2012, pp 47): The Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) tool (1999) and Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scales (OCS) (1990).

Employing results from Rubino's survey, researchers in this study selected items that measured Intention to Stay. A factor analysis was conducted on the newly selected variable to determine the dimensions existing on the survey. The moderating variable Intention to stay had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 90.1% after eliminating some of the items.

Research Questions:

1. Is there a relationship between servant leadership practices and job satisfaction, moderated by employee intention to stay with the organization? The researchers conducted a correlation analysis to answer this question.
2. Do the dimensions of servant leadership (valuing people, building community, developing people, displaying authenticity, and sharing leadership) predict job satisfaction moderated by intention to stay with the organization? The researchers performed a structural equation model to answer this question.

Literature Review

The literature review conducted for the 2015 study examined the theory of Servant Leadership and its effect on Job Satisfaction moderated by Employee Intention to stay in higher educational organizations. The concept of organizational Servant Leadership was first posited by Richard Greenleaf in the early 1970's, as a philosophy that supported the well-being of employees over the leader's self-interest. In direct opposition to the traditional forms of leadership, Greenleaf reframed Servant Leadership as service that enabled followers to attain their highest potential as they worked to support the stated mission of the organization. Greenleaf evaluated Servant Leadership through the following six dimensions: valuing people, developing people, building community, being authentic, providing leadership and sharing power. Greenleaf's theory highlighted the importance of organizational leadership valuing the connection between employee job satisfaction and organizational success. Northouse (1997) submitted one criticism of the servant leadership theory: that it lacked support in the scientific journals.

Servant Leadership Attributes

Established leadership practices endorsed power as a privilege that the leader wielded over employees. Greenleaf promoted the six dimensions of servant leadership as enhancing the health of an organization and arousing strength and power in employees at every level of the organization. Elliott (2012) in his work at community colleges suggested that employees working with servant leaders had very satisfying work experiences a consequence of their supervisor's leadership style. Joseph and Winston (2005) determined that workers' perceptions of servant leadership correlate positively with both leader trust and organizational trust. They further proposed that employees in servant-led organizations exhibited higher levels of both leader trust and organizational trust than organizations that were not perceived as servant-led. Nyhan (2000) surveyed employees in a public organization and estimated that employee participation in decision-making fostered a sense of empowerment that led to increased interpersonal trust (between supervisor and employee). Sharif and Scandura (2014) corroborated Nyhan's findings and concluded that employees who perceived their leaders as authentic and ethical, performed better; had a sense of community; engaged in citizenship behaviors and were more likely to be satisfied with their job.

Job Satisfaction

Lacy and Sheehan (1997) in an international study of Job Satisfaction among academic staff found that environmental factors including morale, a sense of community, and relationships with colleagues, best predicted perceived levels of job satisfaction. Altunas (2014) linked employee job satisfaction to their happiness, productivity, and success at work. Peterson, Hall, O'Brien-Pallas, and Cockerill (2011) identified factors such as opportunities for development and promotion as significant sources of job satisfaction among academic nurses. Rao (2010) determined that when individuals attained job satisfaction, they experienced a high level of anticipation at the thought of going to work. The deep meaning derived from their work and the resulting sense of gratification helped sustain employee morale and further increased their level of satisfaction with the job. Rao (2010), therefore, concluded that job satisfaction equaled happiness at work. Gibson and Petrosko (2014) reasoned that employees who perceived a high degree of trust in their leadership and who felt a high level of job satisfaction displayed less intention to leave their organization. They suggested that confidence in leadership had a greater impact on employee Intention to stay with an organization than the more studied variable of Job Satisfaction.

Intention to Stay

Concerns about academic staff retention have prompted ongoing studies directed at understanding the reasons behind the high turnover rate in higher education. Ambrose, Huston, and Norman (2005) proposed an annual turnover rate of between 2-10 percent at research

universities and suggested that turnover was even higher at two-year colleges. Candela, Gutierrez and Keating (2014) investigated factors that predicted nursing faculty members' intention to stay with an academic institution and determined that faculty development and administrators' support contribute significantly to retention. Dee (2004) suggested correlations between faculty intent to stay with institutions of higher learning, and their perceptions of autonomy, and organizational support for innovative practices; which correspond to the servant leadership dimension of Developing People. Ng'ethe, Namusonge, and Iravo (2012) discussed the need for higher education leadership to embrace a leadership style that fostered staff retention. Zhou and Volkwein (2004) however suggested that faculty turnover was a natural part of professional advancement due to teaching and research skills being readily transferrable among schools. Nevertheless, Bowen and Schuster (1986) advised that some amount of faculty mobility was accepted and approved by the profession because loyalty to the discipline transcended loyalty to a school.

Data Analysis and Findings

A correlation analysis was conducted to determine what relationship existed between Job Satisfaction, Inten-

tion to stay, and dimensions of servant leadership practices. Results of the correlation analysis revealed a high correlation between dimensions of servant leadership practices, Intent to Stay and Job Satisfaction at all levels of employees in the organization. A strong correlation also existed between job satisfaction and dimensions of servant leadership practices. Three of the variables show 45% of variance: Values People ($r = 0.673$, $r^2 = 45.3\%$), Develops People ($r = 0.674$, $r^2 = 45.4\%$), Provides Leadership ($r = 0.675$, $r^2 = 45.6\%$). **Table 1** displays the correlations. **Table 1** also shows high interrelationships between the servant leadership variables that may cause collinearity.

The 2015 researchers wanted to present a graphic representation showing the interrelationship among the variables. The selected variables were the ones that presented higher correlations: Builds Community, Values People, Displays Authenticity, Intention to stay, and Job Satisfaction. Due to collinearity, some variables provided similar information. A structural equation model (SEM) was used. Not all dimensions of servant leadership were used in SEM, although the correlation analysis showed a strong relationship between all aspects of servant leadership and job satisfaction with a $p = .000$; Pearson Correlation ranged from .618 to .678.

Table 1								
<i>Correlations between Job Satisfaction, Servant Leadership Practices, and Intention to Stay</i>								
		Job Satisfaction	Values People	Develops People	Builds Community	Displays Authenticity	Provides Leadership	Shares Leadership
Values People	r	0.673						
	$r^2(\%)$	45.3%						
	p	.000						
	N	59						
Develops People	r	0.674	0.927					
	$r^2(\%)$	45.4%	85.9%					
	p	.000	.000					
	N	59	59					
Builds Community	r	0.618	0.916	0.91				
	$r^2(\%)$	38.2%	83.9%	82.8%				
	p	.000	.000	.000				
	N	59	59	59				
Displays Authenticity	r	0.645	0.945	0.939	0.912			
	$r^2(\%)$	41.6%	89.3%	88.2%	83.2%			
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	59	59	59	59			
Provides Leadership	r	0.675	0.856	0.915	0.885	0.902		
	$r^2(\%)$	45.6%	73.3%	83.7%	78.3%	81.4%		
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	59	59	59	59	59		
Shares Leadership	r	0.658	0.921	0.905	0.854	0.934	0.842	
	$r^2(\%)$	43.3%	84.8%	81.9%	72.9%	87.2%	70.9%	
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59	
Intention to stay	r	0.571	0.711	0.693	0.717	0.714	0.626	0.704
	$r^2(\%)$	32.6%	50.6%	48.0%	51.4%	51.0%	39.2%	49.6%
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59	59
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

A structural equation model is represented in **Figure 1**. The value of .94 shows the correlation between Values People and Displays Authenticity, which indicates 88.3 percent of the variance of values people relates to displays authenticity. The value of .92 shows the relationship between values people and builds community, which indicates 85 percent of the variance of values people relates to builds community. The value of .91 shows the correlation between displays authenticity and builds community, which means 83 percent of the variance of displays authenticity, relates with builds community.

Figure 1 also displays the following influences utilizing the standard beta weights: value .17 is the effect of values people on the intention to stay, value .23 is the effect of displays authenticity on intention to stay and value .35 is the effect of builds community on intention to stay. The entries .17, .23, .35 are standardized beta regression weights. This prediction has an $R^2 = .54$, which indicates 54 percent variance of intention to stay is explained by a leader's ability to build community, display authenticity, and value people. This indicates that 54 percent of effect can be predicted.

In addition, **Figure 1** displays the standard beta weight: value .57 is the effect of intention to stay on job satisfaction. The entry .57 is a standardized beta regression weight. This prediction has an $R^2 = .33$, which indicates 33 percent variance of job satisfaction is explained by an employee's intention to stay with an organization. This indicates that 33 percent of effect can be predicted.

Limitations of study

The population for our study was limited to academic staff at faith-based institutions. It would be beneficial to measure findings across the academic landscape to validate the perceptions of Servant Leadership practices on employees at other types of higher education institutes.

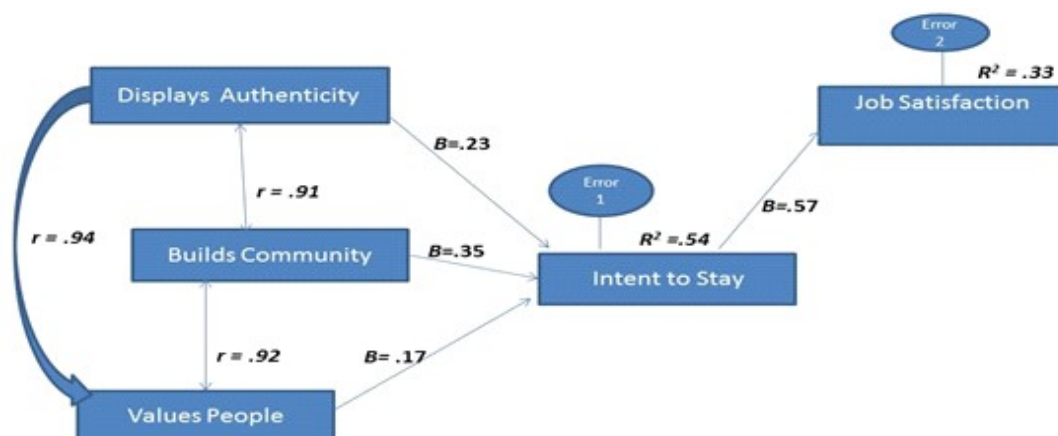
Conclusion and Discussion

Many leadership theorists have discussed the impact of a leader's behavior on a subordinate's performance, motivation, and job satisfaction. Servant leadership however remains experiential and needs to be moved into the realm of a scientific method or theory for implementation in academic institutions. This will be made possible by expanding the body of research on its effectiveness in the business and academic arena, as suggested by Greenleaf almost half a century ago.

The current research documented the level of job satisfaction among servant-led employees at faith-based institutions of higher learning, moderated by their intention to stay. Our research demonstrated a strong correlation between the Servant Leadership Dimensions and Job Satisfaction ranging from $r = .618-.675$. The results of this study coincide with Candela et al. (2014) study, whose structural equation model showed a significant correlation between perceptions of administration's support and job satisfaction ($r = .75$). Shaw and Newton (2012) had similar findings in the K-12 public school setting; which reflected a positive correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and their perception of their principals' manifesting servant leadership practices. Their study further demonstrated a correlation between the principal's leadership practices and teacher's retention. Dee (2004) investigated retention rates at an urban community college and reported a high correlation between organizational support and faculty turnover ($r = -.686$). Gibson and Petrosko (2014) found that employees with low job satisfaction were more likely to leave the institution.

The results of our study clearly support the need for empirical validation of Servant Leadership in higher education as pivotal to job satisfaction moderated by their intention to stay with the institution. The institutional stability provided would be essential to the future of higher education institutions. Previous research demonstrated

Figure 1 Structural Equation Model (SEM): Interrelationship of Variables on Job Satisfaction



that valuing employees, as in Servant Leadership practices, enhanced their level of job satisfaction and directly influenced their intention to stay with the institution (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Administrative support and professional development were also found to support employee retention (Candela et al, 2014). Our findings demonstrated enough coherence with these studies to contextualize Servant Leadership practices as significantly influencing Employee Job Satisfaction and Intention to Stay with the institution.

According to Rao (2010), employees should experience engagement and a high level of motivation for their work. When this is evident, work becomes meaningful and increases the level of employee job satisfaction, which Rao equates to happiness. Employees, therefore, become energized by their work and are more likely to be loyal to the institution.

Implications of Study

Cost containment and productivity are a concern for leaders at every level in a higher education institution. To remain competitive in the academic environment it is imperative for higher education leadership to address factors that would engage and retain high-quality staff, thereby reducing or eliminating the instability, time, and cost associated with recruitment and retention. Servant leadership is increasingly being viewed as providing an effective response to these challenges, because of its influence on employee growth, autonomy, and empowerment; constructs that serve as a basis for employee job satisfaction, enhancing their loyalty and intention to stay with the institution.

These results can be useful to academic leaders in developing strategies to improve employee job satisfaction and retention with the institution. The primary goal must be to have educational institutions embed principles of servant leadership into their mission, culture, and philosophy. Next, it is important to ensure that academic leaders at every level are provided with the knowledge, skills, and competencies to be successful in developing and sustaining the Servant Leadership culture. Leaders at every level must then be held accountable for maintaining a healthy work environment that is responsive to the developmental and empowerment needs of employees. Incentives for professional development and growth must be provided. Succession planning, as an outgrowth of Servant Leadership, must also be addressed so that employees are continually prepared for academic leadership.

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Comparison of Race-Gender, Urban-Suburban Criminal Justice College Students Satisfaction of the Police Department

By Christopher Verga, Leo Murillo, Errol D. Toulon, Ed.D.,
Elsa-Sofia Morote, Ed.D., and S. Marshall Perry, Ph.D.

Abstract

This quantitative study explored criminal justice college students' satisfaction with the police. 176 college students in Suffolk County, Long Island and New York City participated in a survey. The study examined the extent to which satisfaction with the local police department differs by location (urban and suburban), gender (female and male), and race (Black, Latino, and White). The results suggested that students who were from suburban settings had higher levels of satisfaction with the police than students who were from urban settings. In terms of race, White students were significantly more satisfied than Black students. Regarding gender, females tended to have slightly lower satisfaction levels than males. The present findings can be used by urban and suburban police departments to gauge the levels of satisfaction and attitudes towards their institution by upcoming police officers and reflect on their own relations with their communities.

Introduction

Within the last 40 years, criminal justice researchers and law enforcement agencies across the United States have given significant attention to the assessment of police and police service. The study examined criminal justice college students' satisfaction with police. From an administrative point of view, public perceptions can assist in the formulation of policy change, allocation of resources, program development and police accountability (Furstenbeg & Wellford, 1973). While criminal justice students are not necessarily representative of the general population, an examination of their perceptions provides a picture of those that will eventually enter into the police force.

Prior research has shown that men and women respond differently on a variety of behavioral attitudinal measures related to police. Recent research suggests that there is not widespread support for the police among juveniles either by race, age or gender. However, as the population gets older, there is a slightly higher positive regard of police by older females. However, findings suggest that overall attitudes of Black and White girls toward the police are significantly different from one another. When a regression equation was estimated, race continued to be a significant pre-

dictor of less positive attitudes. However, hearing about police misconduct aimed at a third party was a stronger predictor of women negative attitudes toward the police (Hurst, McDermontt, & Thomas, 2005).

The study aimed to update the empirical literature surrounding attitudes towards the police by exploring college criminal justice students' satisfaction with the police. Because many will likely enter the police force in the future, this research explores a unique aspect of police-community relations. It is possible that there are more positive attitudes towards the police department among criminal justice college students. Because they are hoping to become police officers, they might have positive attitudes towards the police department (Taylor, 2001). While the empirical literature supports differences among the general population in satisfaction with the police by gender, ethnicity, and location, it is unclear if those differences persist among these future police officers. The study therefore examined the extent to which the criminal justice college students' satisfaction with the local police department differs by location, gender, and ethnicity. The research questions were:

1. How do criminal justice college students who live in New York City and Suffolk County differ in level of satisfaction with their local police department?
2. How do male and female criminal justice college students differ in their level of satisfaction with their local police department?
3. Are there differences among ethnic groups (Black, White, and Hispanic) in level of satisfaction with their local police department?

Background

Historically, the overwhelming majority of the U.S public has held positive attitudes towards the police. Early research suggested that citizens tend to trust and support the manner in which police perform their duties especially in their communities (Albrecht & Green, 1977, Bell, 1979). Many findings have been descriptive in nature, taking into

consideration variables such as population characteristics, and socioeconomic levels (e.g., Scaglion & Condon, 1980). Other studies that have attempted to investigate the effectiveness of police community relations programs. Some have suggested that there is a strong correlation between positive attitudes toward the police and police community contacts. It has been shown that police perceptions improve when strong community relations are established. (Scaglion & Condon, 1980).

Research suggests that an important determinant how the community satisfaction and attitudes toward the police are related to how a person experiences the encounter with the police. In the case of victims of crime, one of the most consistent variables is that response time as an important factor to victims. A critical component to the satisfaction argument is how long does it take for the police to arrive as quickly as possible. There is some evidence that suggests that officers that arrive sooner than expected, the victims and the community are more likely to feel satisfied with the police ("Victims' Attitudes," 2015). Because experience with police can differ by demographic factors, many studies have examined the relationships among gender, Correia, Reisig, and Lovrich (1996) argued that the lower likelihood for women to have frequent contact with police than men accounts for their more negative attitudes towards the police.

From the gender perspective, many studies have been conducted in reference to citizens' attitudes towards police. It shows that females tend to have higher satisfaction levels and hold more positive views on police and their performance than males (Apple, O'Brien, Cao, Huebner, & Taylor, 1983). However, studies by Correia, Reisig, & Lovrich (1996) demonstrated the opposite trends with females in urban settings holding more negative attitudes towards the police. Lytle and Randa (2015) found that the negative attitude is related to fear, those who perceive greater levels of physical disorder had greater levels of fear and more negative attitude towards police.

However, when it comes to the aspect of race, positive attitudes and support towards the police is not a universal view. Race has become a significant variable in relation to the communities' attitudes toward the police. Since 1971, Jacob has been actively investigated race is a determining attitudinal factor in the evaluation of the police. Jacob's view is that historically, that the Afro-American experience with the criminal justice system has been adversely affected by unfairness and bias which has led to negative attitudes towards the police. For the most part, in many Black communities, the police were viewed negatively (Dean, 1980). In another study Black Americans hold less favorable attitudes toward the police than white Americans (Jacob, Thomas, Hyman, Decker & Eres, 1980).

Researchers have found excessive use of force and brutality by the police come from neighborhoods that

are heavily populated with African-American communities (Decker & Smith, 1980). Many state that civil strife and racial riot in Los Angeles, Detroit, New York and Miami began as a result of social problems and injustices by police practices (e.g., Hahn, 1971). Current examples of police injustices are in Ferguson Missouri and Baltimore Maryland.

Many incidents and riots served as symbols and hostility and negative attitudes toward the police which was reinforced by the media's thirst for stories about inappropriate law enforcement law enforcement. Block (1971) found that with media coverage of crime and police abuse that there was a rise of negative attitudes, fears and antagonism towards the police.

Studies that are more recent have established that when comparing non-white and white populations on the issue of racial profiling, perceptions are very contrary to the overall criminal justice system particularly in minority communities (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). How people react towards police behavior based on their race was analyzed by Pew research. Pew research stated that the public has two different reactions to the grand jury decisions in these two police-related deaths that sparked protests in cities across the country.

Methods

This study is part of a larger study conducted by Toulon Jr. (2011). Toulon developed a survey to evaluate views and perceptions on the police by urban and suburban undergraduate college students studying in a criminal justice curriculum; criminal justice college professors who teach in both an urban and suburban setting; and police chiefs who work in both an urban and suburban settings.

For the present study, Toulon's (2011) survey was factor analyzed. One variable that emerged was satisfaction with police. The survey also included demographic questions such as race/ethnicity, gender, where do they live and age. The eight items in the satisfaction with police variable were all measured on a five point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree 3= Slightly Agree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree). The satisfaction with police variable obtained a reliability of .820.

The survey was distributed to 176 undergraduate students that were enrolled in a criminal justice curriculum. Out of the 175 usable surveys, 139 of the surveys were used for the purpose of this paper. The respondents to the survey had a racial and ethnic background that included 65 (46.8%) Hispanic/Latino, 41 (29.5%) as Caucasians/White, 29 (20.9%) as African-American/ Black and 4 (2.9%) not response (**Table 1**). The median age of participants was 22 years old. The gender breakdown of the participants was 71 female (51.1%) and 68 males (48.9%).

Table 1 Race/Ethnicity of Participants					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black	29	20.9	21.5	21.5
	White	41	29.5	30.4	51.9
	Hispanic	65	46.8	48.1	100.0
	Total	135	97.1	100.0	
	Not response	4	2.9		
Total		139	100.0		

For the purpose of this paper, an urban or suburban resident is defined as a person who lives permanently or who resides on a long term basis in New York City or Suffolk County respectively. Demographics of the 139 respondents were 58.3% (81) residing in New York City's five boroughs and 41.7% (58) of the respondents reside in Suffolk County, New York. This is shown in **Table 2** below.

Findings

Research Question 1

How do criminal justice college Students who reside in New York City and Suffolk County differ in their levels of satisfaction of their local police department? To examine this question, researchers conducted an analysis of item responses and an independent samples t-test. **Table 3**, illustrating the item analysis, is shown below.

In general, **Table 3** shows similarities and disparities between criminal justice students living in New York City and Suffolk County. In New York City, college criminal justice students' satisfaction levels with police scored SD/D (strongly disagreed/Disagree) at 30.25% percent. While Suffolk County-college criminal justice student's satisfaction levels with police scored SD/D (strongly disagreed) at 12.71%. In the same way, major differences were found in item 3 "I feel safe going out at night in my community" New York City- college criminal justice student's Agreed /Strongly Agreed) at 33.3%, while Suffolk County college criminal justice student's Agree/Strongly Agreed 60.3%. Similarly, in item question 4 "I will feel safe at home in my community" approximately 20% more Strongly Agreed with that statement.

Table 2 Number of Responders by Residency					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	New York City (Urban)	81	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Suffolk (Suburban)	58	41.7	41.7	100
	Total	139	100	100	

Table 3 Item analysis by Residency						
	New York City residency (Urban)			Suffolk County residency (Suburban)		
	SD/D	SA	A/SA	SD/D	SA	A/SA
1. I am satisfied with the police department	24.%	42%	33.3%	12.1%	31%	56.9%
2. The police reflect the community they work in	21.%	22%	56.8%	10.3%	27.6%	60.3%
3. I feel safe going out at night in my community	32.%	34.6%	33.3%	10.3%	27.6%	60.3%
4. I feel safe at home in my community	24%	29.6%	45.7%	5.2%	12.1%	82.8%
5. Police officers are competent in my community	24%	38.3%	34.6%	10.3%	34.5%	55.2%
6. There is a visible presence of the Police department in my community	27.%	25.9%	46.9%	13.8%	36.2%	50.0%
7. Police officers attitudes are supportive of residents community	40%	34.6%	24.7%	19.0%	44.8%	36.2%
8. The management of the police department and its ability to address the needs of the community is satisfactory	40%	34.6%	24.7%	20.7%	36.2%	37.9%

Table 4 *Independent samples t-test on satisfaction with police, by location*

		M	SD	SEM	t	p
Satisfaction with police	Urban (NYC)	24.85	6.97	0.77	-3.15	0.00
	Suburban (Suffolk)	28.36	5.51	0.74		

Table 5 *Independent samples t-test on satisfaction with police, by gender*

	Gender	N	M	SD	SEM	T	p
Satisfaction with police	Male	73	27.53	6.66	0.78	1.88	0.06
	Female	74	25.68	6.58	0.76		

The t-test for independent groups illustrated that New York City criminal justice college students' satisfaction with police (M=24.9, SD=7.0) was significantly different ($t = -3.15$, $p=0.00$) than Suffolk County criminal justice college students' opinions on police satisfaction (M=28.36, SD= 5.5) (**Table 4**).

Research Question 2

How do male and female criminal justice college students differ in their level of satisfaction with their local police department? This question was examined through an independent samples t-test (**Table 5**).

The independent-samples t-test indicated satisfaction scores approaching significance ($p=0.06$) where males (M= 27.6, SD=6.7) were slightly higher than females (M=25.7, SD=6.6). The data suggests that males have a tendency to perceive their local police slightly more positively than females.

Research Question 3

Are there differences among ethnic groups (Black, White, and Hispanic) in level of satisfaction with their local police department? This question was answered through descriptive statistics and a one-way ANOVA.

Table 6 shows the levels of satisfaction with the police by ethnicity. Participants were 31 Black students, (M=24.26, SD=5.85), 43 White students, (M= 29.14, SD=5.37), 69 Hispanic students, (M=26.13, SD=7.05). The one way ANOVA (**Table 7**) illustrated there were significant differences among ethnicities and their views about police.

Through a post-hoc test, it was found that White students (Mw=29.1) were significantly more satisfied than Black students (MB=24.3). No significant difference was found between Hispanic students (MH =17) and either White or Black students.

Table 6 *Descriptive statistics on satisfaction with police, by ethnicity*

		N	M	M/items	SD
Satisfaction with police	Black	31	24.26	3.03	5.85
	White	43	29.14	3.64	5.37
	Hispanic	69	26.13	3.26	7.05
	Total	143	26.63	3.32	6.54

Table 7 *One Way ANOVA on satisfaction with police, by ethnicity*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Satisfaction with police	Between Groups	462.43	2.00	231.22	5.76	.00
	Within Groups	5616.92	140.00	40.12		
	Total	6079.36	142.00			

Conclusion

Location (suburban vs. urban), gender, and ethnicity all appear to be factors in students' perception of the police department. The study was primarily limited to small samples of each ethnic group as well as the college student population (criminal justice) and geographic location. However, these findings serve to highlight issue of the importance of attitudes toward police and support attempts by police departments to improve relations between the police and the community. There is little doubt that resident support is needed for policing efforts to be successful and in high crime areas where resident support is mostly lacking.

The present findings can be used by urban and suburban police departments to gauge the levels of satisfaction and attitudes towards their institution by upcoming police officers and reflect on their own relations with their communities. A central tenet of this study is that it is crucial that the police are perceived positively and that they should earn the trust of the community. This is not a novel idea which can be traced to the Metropolitan Police Act 1829 (Ushida, 1997). The history of policing in the United States has been marked with shifts and changing attitudes towards the police.

Major findings of this article were:

- A significant difference between satisfaction with the police between Urban and Suburban groups. Suburban groups (Suffolk) were more satisfied than Urban groups (NYC).
- Males were slightly more satisfied with the police than Females.
- White students were significantly higher satisfied with the Police than Black Students. No difference was found between Hispanic Students and Black or White Students.

Discussion

Some studies suggest that residents appear to be more concerned with having the police patrol their neighborhoods rather than interacting with them. Other data (Webb, Katz, & Graham, 1987) suggested that when assessments of community solidarity towards the police are controlled, and the police become more visible regardless of location, the number of interactions have no effect on levels of satisfaction with the police. It is Webb's (1987) contention that regardless of location, residents who see the police controlling crime or at least trying to control crime tend to view the police favorably and feel satisfied. Weitzer's (2000) study suggested that the greater the interactions between the police and the community, the greater the positive perceptions and satisfaction levels but also it can damage the police image. It is when police are viewed as respectful and possessing authority that residents hold positive attitudes towards the police. However other researchers argue that it is

neither the location, nor the amount of contacts that improves police resident relations but the nature of the interactions (Cheurprakobkit, 2000).

Greenberg, Rohe, and Williams (1985) study suggested that the greater the stability in the communities, the greater the possibility that those members of that community will interact and think of the police positively. This research is supported by Carter (1999) which stated that those in the community who have positive relations with the police are usually the ones who have the most respect by the police. Thus, favorable opinions toward the police correspond with respect to community solidarity (Carter & Radelet, 1999). In the same way, in 2015, Lytle and Randa shown that there was a positive correlation between fear of crime and police satisfaction.

Recognizing these facts and the problems that police efforts face in urban or suburban disorganized communities have led some to suggest that the police should take on the additional role of "community builder" (Oliver, 2001, p. 82). Assuming that the police had the skills to accomplish the formidable task of building a community, one wonders if most officers would have the time and resources needed to do so.

Research by Hawdon and Mobley (2000) suggested that police efforts to improve the community attitudes toward them usually succeed only among middle-income, White (suburban) homeowners (Greene, 1987) and that is if they succeed at all. The main implication of this research is that location is an important component on attitudes towards the police by criminal justice students. As Friedman (1994) argued, attitudes toward the police can be improved by working through neighborhood associations that represent and work closely with the community. Members of such organizations are likely to be the most socially integrated into the neighborhood, and therefore the residents who would be most likely will support the police.

Another implication of this research is that police administrators should attempt to increase their officers' visibility; this appears to be an important factor in residents' perceptions and attitudes towards the police. Actions such as foot or bike patrols, police substations, and the permanent assignment of officers to a neighborhood (urban or suburban) would probably increase the visibility of the police. This visibility, in turn, would most likely lead to favorable attitudes toward the police.

Public knowledge of crime, the criminal justice system, and attitudes toward the police are also derived from the media (Roberts & Doob, 1986). Therefore, it is imperative to examine the effects that the mass media have on attitudes towards criminal justice and the police. However, there are few studies that examine the media's influence on public ratings of police effectiveness. The favorable view of policing is partly a consequence of police's public relations strategy. Reporting of proactive police activity may create a more positive image of the police as effective and efficient investigators of crime (Christensen, Schmindt, & Handerson, 1982).

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From the Field:

The Process in Completing a Nontraditional Group Dissertation in Practice for the Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate, the Ed.D. Educational Leadership Program at Lynn University

By Jerome Vickers

Abstract

This study focused on how a cohort of scholarly practitioners extended the traditional Doctorate in Education (Ed.D.) model at Lynn University by undertaking a nontraditional group Dissertation in Practice (DiP). The participants were a cohort of 11 scholarly practitioners known as Cohort 5 who became the first Lynn University doctoral students to extend the traditional cohort model beyond the relationship building and coursework archetype, and undertake a nontraditional group DiP that involved all group members working collaboratively. In 2007, the Carnegie Foundation decided to re-envision the Ed.D. as a way to help address the needs of 21st century educational settings. The Foundation created the Carnegie Project for the Education Doctorate (CPED) and brought together a number of Research 1 (R1) universities designated from the Carnegie Foundation during Phase I of analysis, with Lynn University included. The purpose of this initiative was to redesign the Ed.D. so that it could be recognized and distinguished as a purposeful degree specifically for scholarly practitioners.

Introduction

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this action research study was to discuss the process involved in getting a cohort of 11 doctoral students in the CPED Ed.D. Educational Leadership program at Lynn University in Boca Raton, FL to complete a nontraditional group DiP. Action research is, "a type of applied research to that focuses on finding a solution to a local problem in a local setting" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013, p. 100). Practitioners that engage in action research are not seeking to discover new facts or theories. When scholarly practitioners engage others in the process of inquiry, with the intent of solving a problem related to their educational work together, they are doing action research (Stringer, 2004).

Problem Statement

When Cohort 5 began their doctoral program in August of 2013, the understanding was each cohort member

would complete a five chapter dissertation. Over the next two months Cohort 5 received information from their dissertation chair on doing a nontraditional group DiP. After detailed discussions among cohort member and with their dissertation chair the cohort found the idea intriguing thus they decided to work together, nevertheless several issues arose. The first problem was getting each cohort member to agree on the topic to use for their group DiP. The second problem was the 11 cohort members were on different schedules and living in various parts of Florida but they needed to have continuous collaboration in order to complete the DiP. While the final problem was to make sure each cohort member were fulfilling their responsibilities by prescribed deadlines.

Research Questions

1. What was the process involved in getting an entire cohort of 11 scholarly practitioners in an Ed.D. Educational Leadership program at Lynn University to complete a nontraditional group DiP?
2. How did a cohort of 11 scholarly practitioners extend the traditional Ed.D. model at Lynn University by undertaking a nontraditional group DiP?

Research Objectives

The research questions above provided an opportunity to pursue an answer for the following three objectives.

1. How did an entire cohort decide to do a nontraditional DiP?
2. How did the cohort handle issues throughout the DiP process?
3. How did cohort members work individually or in small groups to complete one nontraditional DiP?

Methodology

Setting

This study was conducted at Lynn University, located in Boca Raton, FL and via various internet and technological modes of communication. Lynn University has students from 90 countries and 45 states and territories with an enrollment of approximately 2,400. Lynn University's doctoral program began in 2007. The Ed.D. program at Lynn University is a cohort model comprised of 10-15 students who work together for the duration of the program. Currently there are approximately 60 students enrolled in the doctoral program and six professors (Reedy & Taylor-Dunlop, 2015). Cohort 5 is made up of 11 students and is ethnically diverse, there are 6 African Americans, 2 Latino students, 2 Caucasians and 1 Asian student from China. The cohort has 9 males and 2 females ranging from their late 20's to 50's.

CPED Background

In 2007, the Carnegie Foundation decided to re-envision the Ed.D. as a way to help address the needs of 21st century educational settings. The purpose of was to restore the rigor and rank the doctoral degree deserved and provided a pathway for educators to pursue a practical terminal degree so as leaders they would be able to meet the needs of 21st century K-12 educational environments. The Foundation created CPED. In 2007 Lynn University was joined the Carnegie Foundation during their Phase I of analysis. The purpose of this initiative was to redesign the Ed.D. so that it could be recognized and distinguished as a purposeful degree specifically for scholarly practitioners (CPED, 2010).

The degree would also be useful to those interested in working in PK-12 schools and pursuing careers at the collegiate level such as teacher educators. As a result of the work of the Carnegie Foundation and those members who were part of the CPED Phase I initiative, the new definition of Ed.D. states, "the professional doctorate of education prepares educators for the application of the appropriate and specific practices, the generation of new knowledge, and stewardship of the profession" (Perry, 2012, p.43). Individuals pursuing an Ed.D. become the link to colleges and PK-12 schools (Watts & Imig, 2012).

CPED institutions agree no one-size-fits-all model of preparation will meet the diverse needs of doctoral students throughout the country. The goal of CPED was to redesign the Ed.D. to make it a degree of the highest quality (CPED, 2010). The first phase of CPED concludes Ed.D. graduates should be "scholarly practitioners" (CPED, 2010), individuals who are agents of change, are able to solve problems of practice, which use inquiry to make decisions and engage in critical examination. This was evident when in 2013, Cohort 5 at Lynn University, a cohort comprised of 11 doctoral students, collaborated to write one nontraditional group DiP.

Data Collection

Qualitative research methods were used to gather data that addressed the process of the cohort's collaborative efforts in culminating in a DiP and capture the experiences and perspectives of Cohort 5 in preparation of 21st century educational leadership. The data were collected in numerous ways such as photographs, portfolios, videos

Roles and Responsibilities established by Cohort 5 to document the DiP process

ROLES	RESPONSIBILITIES
Photographer	Took photos of campus settings, cohorts and faculty.
Reporter	Collected notes during all meetings and collaborations also created agendas.
Videographer	Videotaped class presentations and class discussions.
Facilitator	Adhered to the agenda and time allotments for meetings and tasks.
Author	Reviewed all cohort members written works before it was put into the iBook or literature review.
Editor	Ensured written work adhered to the American Psychological Association (APA) 6th ed. Manual standards. Corrected any grammar or spelling mistakes.
Historian	Collected and archived qualitative data such as emails, agendas, photographs and minutes recorded and any CPED articles and other materials relating to the DiP process by placing these materials in a Historian portfolio(s).

Figure 1.0: Roles and Responsibilities established by Cohort 5 to document the DiP process

and emails. The e-mails served as anecdotal notes and two members of the cohort served as the Historians of the process. Other technological tools such as phone calls, texting, Dropbox, Weebly, Google Docs, and ooVoo were also used to collaborate off campus. ooVoo is an online system which allows group video chat with up to 12 people therefore ooVoo meetings were scheduled weekly allowing cohort members to collaborate in real time. At the conclusion of these weekly discussions, minutes were typed and electronically disseminated to all the cohort members, as well as to the dissertation chair. Face to face discussions were videotaped and photographs were taken to capture the experience of the cohort's nontraditional group DiP. **Figure 1.0** illustrates the roles and responsibilities established by Cohort 5 to document the DiP process.

Data Analysis

The data results below were analyzed into sub-categories. The data analysis method consisted of first regrouping the data, and then the data were analyzed to discover any patterns and themes with the research questions and research objectives. While analyzing the data any discrepancies detected were also noted in the findings section below.

Findings

The findings were analyzed and compared to the research questions and research objectives. These findings may be beneficial for future Lynn University doctoral students and students in Ed.D. Educational Leadership programs at other CPED institutions which plan to do a nontraditional group DiP. These findings may also be beneficial for researchers looking to further study the process of a nontraditional group DiP. The following findings resulted from each research objective.

Findings 1 - Paradigm shift

Research Objective #1 - How did an entire cohort decide to do a nontraditional DiP?

After being accepted to the Ed.D. Educational Leadership program, 11 scholarly practitioners in Cohort 5 received a hard copy of an Ed.D. program handbook during an orientation on August 23, 2013. The handbook contained the sequence of doctoral courses, financial aid information, along with information on how the new Ed.D. students' would obtain their student ID card and parking sticker. Although the Ed.D. handbook was informative; there were issues with it such as financial aid information geared toward undergraduate students.

While teaching the EDU 701 Leadership, Policy and Context course in the Fall semester of 2013, the dissertation chair shared with Cohort 5 a conversation that occurred with the Vice President of Academic Affairs at Lynn

University. Based on feedback from students, the dissertation chair expressed concerns regarding the Ed.D. handbook with the specific area of contention being the quality of the handbook that Lynn University planned to distribute to future doctoral students. The Vice President of Academic Affairs then recommended that the paper handbook be developed into an online version. This idea sparked the dissertation chair to suggest Cohort 5 do a nontraditional group DiP with a focus on changing the Ed.D. handbook from a paper copy to an electronic iBook version. Consequently the iBook, a comprehensive review of literature, along with two publishable articles and an executive summary, all would serve as a DiP.

When starting the doctoral program originally each cohort member was seeking to do a traditional five chapter dissertation on their own. A paradigm shift occurred over the course of a two week time period, although each doctoral student still had the option of doing a traditional five chapter dissertation each member of Cohort 5 decided instead to complete a nontraditional group DiP. According to Dweck (2008) through ongoing reflections, a paradigm shift in the mindset of doctoral students and professors is necessary from a traditional dissertation to a nontraditional DiP. Thus a paradigm shift occurred within the cohort with each member changing his/her way of thinking to focus on doing a nontraditional group DiP.

Findings 2 - The Norms

Research Objective #2 - How did Cohort 5 handle issues throughout the DiP process?

Norms were established at the beginning of the project. Cohort 5 brainstormed participation and collaborative norms which would help facilitate an effective and efficient working environment. The norms were created so all cohort members were fulfilling their roles and responsibilities. Ideas were shared and the cohort members agreed on an initial list of norms that included: create a safe environment where a cohort member's opinions would be valued and respected; be present for the team, be committed to the team; be accountable to the team; be open to constructive feedback; honor deadlines; ask for support when needed; ask questions; open up to diverse viewpoints; use common courtesy; be respectful; be professional; and be creative, imaginative and have fun.

After further discussions of the previous and prospective work, the list was revised and the norms were narrowed down to a list of six. The final list of norms consisted of what each cohort member felt were the most important with an overarching theme of creating a safe environment. The norms were to be reviewed frequently. Upon violation of the norms, the cohort suspended current work, reviewed the norms and resolved the issue to ensure a safe working environment.

The following list was the six norms Cohort 5 created.

1. Be present, committed and accountable to the team.
2. Be respectful and professional of diverse viewpoints.
3. Honor deadlines.
4. Be open to constructive feedback.
5. Ask for support when needed and ask questions.
6. Be creative, imaginative, and have fun.

Findings 3 - Relational Trust and Collaboration

Research Objective #3 - How did Cohort 5 members work individually or in small groups to complete one nontraditional DiP?

At the forefront of this process, relational trust in various aspects was established to ensure productive collaboration (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Fullan, 2014). Relational trust needed to be established early in the process and maintained between cohort members as well as the DiP chair, professors, and critical friends. Once roles and responsibilities were established and a draft of the new handbook created, the cohort brainstormed and had discussions of topics related to 21st century educational leadership, which became the focus of the DiP for Cohort 5. The norms and protocols were revisited frequently by the cohort.

Through discussions, several topics related to 21st century educational leadership were identified then each cohort member chose a topic of interest. Based on professional practice and theoretical interests, the cohort generated a list of specific areas within educational leadership preparation essential to 21st century educational settings. The cohort determined that CPED, Ethical Leadership, Culturally Responsive Leadership, Community Involvement, 21st Century Skills, Curriculum and Instructional Leadership and Technology Leadership would be the topics for the DiP. While working individually or in small groups, Cohort 5 members researched these various areas and wrote a comprehensive literature review, a doctoral informational iBook and culminated with authoring two publishable research articles and an executive summary.

Recommendations

The following are recommendations provided to assist future doctoral students participating in a nontraditional group DiP.

- Use multiple modes to communicate off campus.
- Create norms early in the process to ensure each cohort members fulfills their part.

- Revisit the norms periodically and discuss any issues encountered.
- At the start of the process establish roles and responsibilities for each cohort member.
- Let each cohort member be involved in the editing of any written documents.
- Document each step of the process and archive all qualitative data.

Conclusions and Implications for Education

In conclusion, the findings emphasized the importance of trusting relationships between the cohort, dissertation chair and professors. The key element in developing the kinds of collegial relationships that encouraged professional conversations, allowed cohort members and the faculty to share their expertise and accumulated wisdom, and provided opportunities for collective learning. This DiP process indicated relational trust was necessary to build a professional learning community. The results of this study were to explore many facets of 21st century educational leadership by researching a variety of issues. As scholarly practitioners, the cohort of 11 doctoral students were able to collectively address current issues in education relevant to the future training of educational leaders. Based on the study findings, the following is a list of implications for education.

- 1) Laboratories of practice enabled cohort members to link theory to practice and informed scholarly practitioners of their respective topics of interests.
- 2) Ed.D. programs must rethink 21st century educational leadership preparation programs.
- 3) Collaborative groups used relational trust to develop norms and protocols, which ensured equity and accountability.
- 4) Higher education needs to use technology as part of their signature pedagogy to prepare scholarly practitioners to become proficient in 21st century educational leadership.

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