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Research Article

Full-Day Kindergarten Effectiveness: Preserve the Investment

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Abstract

Studies illustrate that achievement gaps between poor and non-poor children already exist at kindergarten (Lee & Burkham, 2002). The larger the gap at the time children enter school, the harder it is to close the gap. This article reviews a case study of one Midwest school district and their attempt at reducing the achievement gap through the implementation of a full-day kindergarten program. The article reports on the significant student achievement gains of students who completed full-day kindergarten and the dissipation of the achievement gains by grade two. To avoid the lapse in student achievement gains the authors provide recommendations that encourage districts to create seamless and aligned PK-3 education systems.

Keywords

Kindergarten, Kindergarten Fade, PreK-3 Education

School districts are forfeiting the benefits gained from full-day kindergarten by not fully investing in an integrated prekindergarten–third grade (PK–3) approach. Research documents the benefits of full-day kindergarten. For instance, researchers have noted that full-day kindergarten:

- leads to higher academic achievement and reduced achievement gaps among students of different economic and racial/ethnic groups,
- decreases costs by reducing the need for additional academic support in later years,
- contributes to increased school readiness, and
- promotes children's social and emotional development (Ackerman, Barnett, & Robin, 2005; Blake, 2008; Minneapolis Foundation, 2009; National Institute for Early Education Research, 2005)

To support and continue the growth students experience with full-day kindergarten, school leaders need to recognize the concept of "fade out" and create an aligned PK-3 education sequence.

Awareness of Fade Out Concept—Loss of Gains in Primary Grades

Fade out occurs when the achievement gains noted in students who have experienced full-day kindergarten diminish as students progress through the primary grades. Researchers contend that the gains students experience from participating in prekindergarten and full-day kindergarten may not be sufficient "to inoculate children against future academic failure" (Kauerz, 2006, p. 1; Shore, 2009, p. 6).

Studies demonstrate that children's participation in high quality prekindergarten programs as well as full-day kindergarten programs have resulted in increased student success. The studies, however, also note that these effects often appear to fade out over time. As children move through the primary grades (grades 1, 2, and 3), the progress they made in prekindergarten and full-day kindergarten dissipates (Kauerz, 2006; Shore, 2009).

Fade out during elementary school may be the result of a simplistic assumption that the addition of prekindergarten and full-day kindergarten are sufficient for raising student achievement; or it may be the result of teachers cumulatively slowing down primary grade curriculum and pedagogy due to the wide range of student academic readiness and a lack of use of differentiated instruction methods to meet those readiness variations.

When achievement drops, it may seem reasonable to try to identify a specific area, program, or grade; however, history suggests that efforts confined to such narrow foci do not lead to lasting change. Shore (2009) shares:

> When policymakers have invested in prekindergarten programs without sustaining quality enhancements throughout the elementary grades, benefits to participants have tended to fade by third grade, if not sooner.
>
> This should not be surprising. We do not expect to achieve a healthier population by fortifying only four year-olds' meals or adding exercise just for fourth graders. We recognize that serious health problems affecting millions of American children arise over time, and are best prevented or addressed over time with sustained, evidence-based policies and programs.

> And yet, many states and organizations continue to pin their hopes on educational strategies that target a single year. They do so despite the fact that one year amounts to only seven percent of a typical student's PreK-12th grade education. (p. 6)

What policymakers and school leaders need to adhere to is a coherent approach to sustaining high-quality programs that reflect current understandings of how children learn in their formative early years.

Need for Seamless & Aligned System

It has become increasingly clear that the key to an effective public education system is a solid, integrated PK–3 system.

Recent studies note that "… most Prekindergarten, Kindergarten and elementary school teachers work in isolation from one another. They typically undergo widely varying preparation and training, work in different buildings, report to different supervisors, and have few (if any) opportunities to work together. When teachers cooperate across grade levels, however, the links between school years and lessons become more explicit and children are more likely to benefit" (Foundation for Child Development, 2008, p. 13).

"Systems must be aligned vertically across grade levels, horizontally across assessments, curriculum, and instruction, and temporally across the course of a child's learning experience" (Dinkes, 2008, p. 52).

Case Study: One District's Experience

When schools do not create a seamless PK–3 approach, fade out or flattening of achievement gains can result. The following case study outlines one district's encounter with fade out due to their inattentiveness to PK-3 alignment. The district implemented full-day kindergarten for all students and assumed that this approach was sufficient for raising student achievement.

The gains made from this narrow focus were lost because the district did not take a broader approach and create a seamless PK -3 system. Analyzing the district's actions can provide critical insight for other districts intent on effectively improving PK-3 programming.

Site and Program

A midsized school district in southern Minnesota faced challenges found in many public schools throughout the United States. They were experiencing: (a) an above-state-average number of special education students, (b) an increasing number of English as Second Language (ESL) students, and (c) an increasing number of students eligible for the federal free and reduced lunch program.

Their initial approach to addressing these challenges was to implement a center-based, full-day kindergarten program. Their assumption was that full-day kindergarten was an effective means of closing the achievement gap associated with the challenges and was a necessary first step in ensuring more of their students would be ready for first grade.

A center-based, full-day kindergarten program was implemented in the fall of 2005. As a part of the implementation of full-day kindergarten, the district developed an assessment plan for comparing and monitoring reading performance of full-day and half-day students through the third grade (see Table 1).

Table 1

Assessment Plan for Comparing and Monitoring Performance of Full-day Students with Half-day Students

Phase	Student Assessment Points	Assessments
Phase 1	First grade	Fall First Grade Gates MacGinitie Reading Assessments
Phase 2	Second grade	Fall Second Grade Gates MacGinitie Reading Assessments
Phase 3	Third grade	Minnesota Comprehensive Assessments II (MCA II)

Methods and Results of Phase 1 Assessment Plan: Full-day Kindergarten a Success

A non-experimental, explanatory design was used. The district selected the Gates MacGinitie Reading Assessment to assess academic performance. Data were collected each fall from 2004 to 2008. District-wide data was reported in stanines using both district and national percentages.

The purpose of the Phase 1 analysis was to determine if the collective reading scores were higher among first graders who completed full-day kindergarten (2006, 2007, and 2008) when compared to those who completed half-day kindergarten (2004 and 2005). Based on the reported stanines, percentages and proportions were calculated for the four lowest stanines and the five highest stanines. Statistical significance is reported at $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$ for all analyses.

The proportion of students in the lowest four stanines for 2006, 2007, and 2008 were .360, .400, and .267 respectively. These proportions were then compared with the 2004/05 baseline percentage, which was .559. A test of significance between proportions was performed. The difference in proportions was converted to a *Z* score and then significance was determined using a one-tailed hypothesis (Kuzma & Bohnenblust, 2005).

The results are as follows:

2004/05 compared with 2006. $Z = 6.01$, $p < .001$. Results are significant at $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$.
2004/05 compared with 2007. $Z = 4.73$, $p < .001$. Results are significant at $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$.
2004/05 compared with 2008. $Z = 8.85$, $p < .001$. Results are significant at $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$.

There is evidence that the proportion of students in the lowest four stanines significantly decreased, and correspondingly the proportion of students in the top five stanines significantly increased, after the introduction of full-day kindergarten.

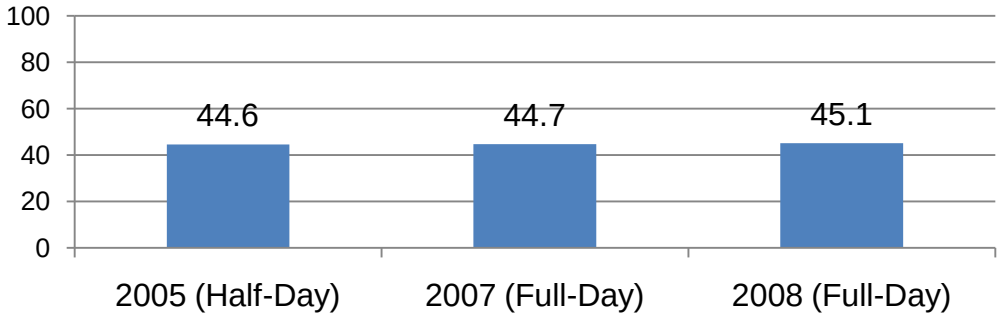
Analysis of Phase 1 data indicates that implementation of the full-day kindergarten program resulted in more students entering grade one with increased reading skills. The results of Phase 1 validated the district assumption that full-day kindergarten was sufficient for raising student reading achievement.

Results of Phase 2: Reading Achievement Fades Out

The district's assumption that full-day kindergarten was sufficient for raising student achievement was short lived. The following year when Gates MacGinitie Reading Assessment scores from Grade 2 students were analyzed student gains diminished.

Students who completed the half-day kindergarten program took the Grade 2 reading test in fall 2005. Students who completed the full-day kindergarten program took the Grade 2 reading test in fall 2007 and fall 2008. Statistical significance was determined at $\alpha = .05$ level. There were no significant reading test mean differences among the three groups, F (2,973) = .03, p = .97 (see Figure 1) (Bohnenblust, 2009).

Figure 1. Reading test mean differences between full-day and half-day kindergarten students.



The analysis of the Phase 2 data indicates that the gains made in full-day kindergarten were not maintained in Grade 1. By the time the students entered Grade 2 there was no difference in reading performance between the students who completed a half-day program and the students who completed a full-day program.

The district was left with many unanswered questions: What happened to the gains experienced after students completed the full-day program? What do we do with this information? How do we move forward? Is full-day kindergarten worth the investment?

Critical Insight—Avoid Narrow Perspective

The implications of the findings in Phase 2 and the district's response to the findings reflect the contentions noted in the research. If the district approaches the situation from a narrow perspective and analyzes only what occurred in the full-day kindergarten program, the following determination could be made: Full-day kindergarten is not working; the gains fade out by the start of grade two; the money invested in full-day kindergarten is not worthwhile. As Shore (2009) reminds us, one localized strategy will not in itself solve the challenge of raising student achievement.

Leaders must approach decision making with consideration of the whole system.

When reading achievement drops, fades out, or flatlines in Grade 2, school leaders can no longer afford to localize the blame to one program. If the district approaches the situation from a systemic perspective—examining levels of the organization to determine what is working well, questioning what needs to be changed, and analyzing how data can be used in decision making efforts—the likelihood of establishing an aligned system focused on student achievement is heightened.

The school leaders of this midsized district must think about how to address the Phase 2 data systemically. They need to analyze what was done with the full-day kindergarten program that resulted in students demonstrating significant gains in reading when they entered Grade 1 and expand those practices into the primary grades.

The critical insight from this district's Phase 2 data is that an isolated program such as full-day kindergarten is insufficient in sustaining increased student achievement. The lesson for other districts is to focus broadly on creating a coherent and integrated PK-3 system and avoid pinning hopes on isolated programs that target a single year.

Critical Insight—Think Systemically

By examining the Phase 2 results from a systems-thinking perspective it becomes evident that significant structural, curricular, and instructional changes were made at the kindergarten level, which resulted in increased student achievement in reading.

In addition to students spending more time in school, kindergarten teachers were provided ongoing professional development and instructional materials through the Reading First federal grant program. The Reading First program focuses on putting proven methods of early reading instruction in primary grades. A common curriculum was identified, and teachers shared student work on a daily basis.

All 18 kindergarten teachers had common preparation time every day to meet and review student progress and monitor and adjust their curriculum and instruction based on formative reading assessments. The investments in increased instructional time, planning time, and teacher development, however, stopped at the kindergarten level.

When analyzing decisions from a systemic perspective, it is evident that similar investments were not made with Grade 1 students, teachers, and programming. Curriculum and student outcomes for Grade 1 students remained the same. Teachers did not receive additional training and common planning time.

The critical insight was that the district invested in curriculum alignment, professional development, and transition planning for full-day kindergarten but failed to expand this investment to the primary grades. The district now needs to expand the processes used to establish changes in kindergarten to include PK- 3.

It is also critical that the district continue to monitor student achievement by using collected data to inform their thinking and actions, allowing for a systemic approach, not a single solution approach, to sustain increased student achievement.

Additionally, in an effort to continue to examine and assess the effectiveness of the changes, this study should be replicated after the district makes the recommended investments in curriculum alignment PK-3. Efforts confined to narrow thinking do not lead to lasting student achievement—a critical

lesson other districts can learn from this district experience.

Preserve the Investment—Ready Primary Grades

Studies illustrate that achievement gaps between poor and non-poor children already exist at kindergarten. The larger the gap at the time children enter school, the harder the gap is to close. Lee and Burkham. (2002) share:

> By six-to-eight years of age, children achieve about 90 percent of their mature brain growth. If you were to compare children's brains at this age, the number and strength of the neural connections from one child to the next might vary by as much as 30 percent. Those differences would be directly related to the kinds of environments the children experienced. Optimal experiences provide benefits that last a lifetime. Lost opportunities and negative experiences are difficult to overcome (as cited in Kostelnik & Grady, 2009, p. 6).

Redefining school readiness as birth to age eight and creating a seamless, aligned PK-3 education system allows schools to build on the successes birth to age five readiness programs are experiencing.

The investment in the early years is essential, and the investment cannot stop at kindergarten. The National Association for Elementary School Principals (NAESP) and Foundation for Child Development (2006) supports the advancement of PK–3 systemic thinking by noting core elements found in successful programs:

- Strong PK–3 alignment.
- Strong principal leadership.
- High-quality, ongoing professional development.
- Strong focus on student achievement and results.

Research conducted by NAESP and the Foundation for Child Development (2006) also shows that "successful principals who ensure these elements work together create an environment of continuous improvement that helps young children come to school ready to learn and achieve in later grades" (p. 2). For one Midwest school district preserving the initial student success observed from full-day kindergarten is a real and immediate challenge.

In order to heighten their ability to ensure sustainable student achievement and avoid fade out, the district's school leaders must diligently invest the same energy and effort into the primary grades that was given to full-day kindergarten.

Skilled leadership is needed to preserve this district's investment by ensuring new practices and curricula are implemented with fidelity system-wide. For others, the district's experiences provide important lessons for the value of systemic thinking. This district and others across the nation need to conscientiously preserve their investment and expand it to the primary grades by creating a seamless and aligned PK-3 education system.

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Research Article

Why Teacher Leaders Don't Want to be Principals

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Abstract

This article examines reasons why teachers who were identified by their school principal as leaders or having leadership potential, chose not to become school principals. While the literature reports a shortage of qualified applicants for school administrative positions, the deterrents that teacher leaders most often identify include testing/accountability pressures, job stress, amount of time required, and societal problems that make it difficult to focus on instruction. The key factors for teacher leaders choosing not to pursue a career in school administration are broadly categorized as stress and time demands. Superintendents identified the same factors, but scored the importance of each factor higher than the teachers.

Keywords

Teacher Leaders, Principal, Leadership

Leadership, specifically the principalship, is often identified by researchers as the key component of successful schools. Sustaining quality school leadership is as essential to a high performing school as having a highly qualified teacher for every classroom (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Reynolds & Teddlie, 2000).

In a survey of 197 school districts, Carnine, Denny, Hewitt, and Pijanowski (2008) reported that school districts across all grade levels and locations experienced a reduced number of qualified applicants for the principalship over the previous ten years. School district superintendents reported that less than half of those applying for the principalship met the advertised criteria to be interviewed.

Overall, 50% of the school districts reported having a moderate to extreme shortage of qualified applicants. In a study commissioned by the National Association of Elementary School Principals, as reported by Guterman (2007), almost half of the school districts involved in the survey had a shortage of applicants for K-12 principalship openings.

In a survey of 176 superintendents, Whitaker (2003) found that 39.8% of superintendents reported a "moderate" shortage of quality principal candidates and 50% reported a "somewhat extreme" or "extreme shortage" of quality candidates. Whitaker also found that superintendents perceived a decrease in the quality of applicants with 29% rating the quality of the candidate pool as being "poor" or "fair" and 51% rating the quality as "good." Only 20% of superintendents rated the principal candidate pool as being "very good" or "excellent."

Given the shortage of quality applicants for the principalship, we explored and defined the factors identified by teacher leaders as the reasons they opt not to pursue a career in school administration. Then we compare the teacher leaders responses with superintendent views of the same factors. The study concludes with recommendations for actions superintendents might take to increase teacher interest in becoming a principal as a way to increase the size of the pool of potential principals and the quality of that pool.

Review of Literature

A study of the principal shortage in Michigan reported that the number of applicants for the principalship experienced dramatic decline and the applicants were judged to be less qualified than candidates who had applied in the past (Cusick, 2003). A study by the Association of California School Administrators, as reported by Bell (2001), found a shortage of administrative candidates at all levels.

A shortage of applicants at the high school level was reported by 90% of the districts whereas 73% of the districts reported a shortage of elementary school applicants. The increasing job complexity of the principalship may have a profound effect on discouraging teachers from moving into school administration and this may be a significant factor nationwide (Bowles, King, & Crow, 2000; Fenwick, 2000).

According to Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, and Bjork (2004), one possible reason for the shortage of school administrative candidates include the retirement of *baby boomer* principals leaving a large number of vacancies to fill. A common theme in principal shortage studies is that the shortage is felt differently by different types of school systems. Whereas

some districts enjoy a surplus of quality leadership candidates there are many districts, particularly rural ones, that struggle to generate a strong applicant pool.

Deterrents to Becoming a Principal

Factors influencing the shortage of principal candidates are numerous. Murphy and Beck (1994) reported that the principalship has changed and now requires principals to meet more stringent student achievement standards, spend from 60 to 80 hours per week on the job, perform increasing amounts of state and federally mandated paperwork, supervise evening activities, and deal effectively with the challenge of getting entrenched veteran teachers to embrace change.

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, (2003) found that stress and time demands were the most significant factors discouraging potential candidates from applying for the principalship.

They also found that there is a variation in interest by grade level with almost twice as many elementary assistant principals seeking the principalship when compared to their high school counterparts.

According to DiPaula and Tschannen-Moran, principals are increasingly pulled away from the tasks that bring them the most satisfaction and spend more time on the tasks they find least satisfying. When all of the limitations and demands are considered together, 66% of current principals indicated they lack both the time and personnel required to meet the expectations for an effective instructional leader.

Cusick (2003) reported that principals often find their time consumed by conflicting demands and pressures. Among the most cited demands are an increased responsibility to implement reforms that include spending more time in the classroom, managing the overall operation of the school, and being accessible to parents who demand to see the principal. DuFour and Marzano (2009) advocate for a reduction of the tasks that demand much time and do not contribute to helping students learn at higher levels.

In a national study of 860 students enrolled in administrative preparation programs, Bass (2007) reported that stress was the primary factor discouraging potential candidates from entering school administration. The second and third factors include the increase in time commitment and the pressures of standardized testing.

Candidates' Personal Skills and Job Availability

It is also possible that passing over potential leaders early in their careers has a waning effect on job desirability. Pounder and Merrill (2001) found that the strongest predictor of both attraction to the principalship and intention to apply is the perceived likelihood of receiving a job offer. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) reported that many educators with administrative credentials might not be well-suited for the job.

Practicing school principals were surveyed to speculate on why teachers with administrative licenses did not currently hold positions as school administrators. The top reasons cited were "long hours (51%) or stress of the job (5%)" (p. 58). However, 48% of the principals surveyed thought that there could be a poor match between the demands of the job and the personality of the individual.

The principals suggested that poor match between job and personality, and inappropriate disposition or temperament could make someone ill-suited for a principal position.

Principal Satisfaction

Teachers, including teachers with administrative licensure might be hesitant to leave their current position where they find a high degree of satisfaction to assume the perceived pressures of the principalship. Winter, Rinehart, and Munoz (2004) surveyed 194 certified teachers from a large school district and found that the teachers believed their job satisfaction would drop if they became principals and their overall quality of personal life would negatively change. Consequently, less than 10% of those surveyed in the Winter et al. (2004) study reported they would be likely to apply for a principalship vacancy.

Despite the poor perception of the principalship reported in the literature, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) found some sources of satisfaction that keep veteran school leaders in the job, and also would compel them to choose the same career path again. When principals were asked to report on the aspects of the job they found most satisfying it was clear that relationships were the key.

Rapport with teachers, students, parents, and peers were clearly the most satisfying experiences in the principalship. Rapport with students was the top rated factor by current principals, gaining an 85% satisfaction rating (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Methodology

Prior studies exploring why teachers did not want to become principals looked at groups of teachers who were already in administrative training programs (Moore, 1999) or were already practicing school administrators (Cusick, 2003) including principals, directors of human resources, and superintendents. These samples did not include high quality teachers who were not interested in becoming school principals and therefore were only speculating on why they think teachers are chose not to become principals.

Howley, Andrianaivo, and Perry (2008) surveyed a large number of classroom teachers to determine why they did not want to be school administrators. Studies with a large untargeted group of teachers might include teachers who have never had any interest in being school administrators, those who might not be suited for the demands of a leadership role, and others who have not yet made the decision to become a school administrator. The lack of a targeted study group might not present a clear picture of the issues. This study attempts to address the limitation in the existing literature by using a targeted sample.

Sample

We identified teachers who had not entered an administrative program of study and yet possessed the leadership skills that would likely make them good principal candidates. Our sample was teachers in the state of Arkansas who were identified by their site principal as having two distinct characteristics.

First, they exhibited strong leadership potential and demonstrated leadership capacity at the school site with qualities that would make them likely to be successful principals. A letter to the principals provided instructions for choosing teachers to include in the sample with an operational definition of "strong leadership potential."

Second, the teachers stated openly that they did not want to be a school principal. The study also included a survey of school superintendents with the same survey items to determine how they viewed the reasons for teachers not becoming principals. This approach allowed for a comparison between responses of the teachers and the superintendents.

Surveys were sent to all 245 school district superintendents in Arkansas. The response rate for superintendents was 80%, or 197 respondents. The school superintendents were asked to distribute the surveys through their school site principals. The school principals were asked to identify only the teachers who are leaders at the school and have the personal and professional qualities that would make them outstanding school administrators, but who have chosen not to go into school administration. There were 391 teachers who responded from 139 different school districts.

Given the large number of responses, as well as a broad distribution from throughout the state, the teachers who responded for this study should be representative of teachers who established themselves as school leaders but have chosen not to move into careers in school administration.

Survey Instrument

The survey questions addressed 11 factors that would discourage teachers from seeking a career in administration. The questions were taken from a 1998 Education Research Service (ERS) report of factors that deter teachers from becoming school principals.

The ERS study had respondents rank the major factors on why they believed teachers did not want to pursue careers in school administration. In our study, teachers responded using a five-point Likert-type scale, chosen to show both ranking and the strength of responses.

For example, the items ranked third and fourth might be viewed as being close in importance if only a rank was viewed. However, there might be a large gap between them which could mean that item three was much more important than item four. This difference could not be determined with only a rank ordering.

The teacher-respondents identified their teaching level as either elementary, middle, or high school. They also identified their school size, location (rural, urban or suburban), as well as their current assignment.

In analyzing the teaching assignments it appeared that the teachers could be disaggregated into two groups, regular classroom teachers and teachers with leadership responsibilities. Regular classroom teachers defined their job with descriptors such as Grade 3 teacher, high school social studies teacher, middle school math teacher, or any other regular school classroom teaching assignment. Teachers with leadership responsibilities had job titles reflecting duties beyond the scope of a regular classroom teacher. These positions included such job titles as athletic director, reading recovery teacher, math specialist, librarian, and counselor.

Analysis of the Data

The purpose of the study was to determine the factors teachers identified as being the most important in their choice not to become school administrators. The respondents were asked to rate the importance of 11 factors (Table 1).

The respondents rated each item on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*No Impact*) to 5 (*High Impact*). Therefore the highest score would be the most important factor and the lowest score being the least important factor.

Results

The most important factor that teachers chose for not becoming a school principal was "Testing/accountability pressures too great" with a mean score of 3.73 out of a possible 5.00 for the 394 responding teachers. The teachers'

second most important factor was “Job generally too stressful” following closely with a mean score of 3.70.

The top five items with a mean score above 3.0 all addressed stress or pressure related factors. Whether it was testing and accountability, the direct perception that the job is too stressful, there is a demand on time that is too great, societal problems make things difficult, or that it is difficult to satisfy the demands of parents or community, each of these areas involves stress and pressure that is placed on the individual in an administrative role, specifically the principal. When one looks beyond these first five items it should be noted that the score drops .50 points from 3.12 to 2.62 for “Salary/compensation not sufficient as compared to responsibilities." This .50 drop is the largest interval drop between any of the factors and could be construed to divide the top five factors from the bottom six factors. Based on the results (See Table 1), it appears that the perception that the job is too stressful is the single largest factor in deterring those teachers identified as teacher leaders from becoming school principals.

The results from an analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated there were no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) between regular classroom teachers and those identified as teacher leaders. For comparison with the superintendents, both Regular Classroom Teachers and Teacher Leaders were combined into "All Teachers."

Table 1

Comparison of Mean Scores for Teachers, Teacher Leaders, and Superintendents

Reason	*Teacher Leaders (n = 153)*	*Regular Teachers (n = 241)*	*All Teachers (n = 394)*	*Superin-tendents (n = 194)*
Testing/accountability pressures too great	3.63	3.78	3.73	4.35*
Job generally too stressful	3.65	3.74	3.70	4.36*
Too much time required	3.44	3.51	3.48	4.45*
Societal problems (poverty, lack of family support, etc.) make it difficult to focus on instruction	3.25	3.13	3.18	4.19*
Difficult to satisfy demands of parents and/or community	3.06	3.15	3.11	4.11*
Salary/compensation not sufficient as compared to responsibilities	2.74	2.55	2.62	3.99*
Inadequate funding for schools	2.48	2.56	2.53	3.46*
Job is less satisfying than it was in the past	2.41	2.36	2.38	3.76*
Continuing bad press/public relations problems for district place too much pressure on the principal	2.28	2.36	2.34	3.50*
Concerns about job security	1.93	2.10	2.03	3.15*
Openings not well publicized	1.65	1.69	1.68	2.14*

* $p < .05$
Responses ranged from 1 (*No Impact*) to 5 (*High Impact*)

The superintendents, with two slight differences, had almost exactly the same ranking as the total for all teachers. The major difference between the teachers and superintendents was the intensity with which they rated the factors. The superintendents rated each item statistically significantly higher than did the teachers.

Conclusions

Most studies in the past focused on teachers in general and even teachers who were in administrative training programs to identify the factors that lead practicing teacher to reject a career in school administration.

This study surveyed people who had leadership potential and in many cases had leadership roles at their school site, yet did not want to go into school administration and become a principal.

The study surveyed people who were identified by their principals as best situated to become future leaders and asked them why they chose not to pursue the next step in leadership.

In other words, why were the people who should be entering school administration choosing not to do it? Even though this study identified a unique and relatively unstudied group, the responses were similar to other studies.

We can only speculate why superintendents scored each item at such a high level. One factor might be the higher level of interest among the superintendents. For the teachers, the reason for choosing not to become a school principal is not critical to their current career, success, or livelihood.

For superintendents, a shortage of qualified candidates can have an influence on the success or failure of their school district. Combining this level of concern with a constant barrage of articles about a shortage of administrators might result in superintendents viewing the reasons for not becoming a school principal with a higher degree of intensity than the teachers.

The conclusion of this study is that teachers are choosing not to enter school administration because of the stress, time demands, and pressure of the job. Much of this stress is a result of the current testing and accountability mandates which did not exist 15 years ago.

However, we conclude that none of the top five reasons should be taken as an individual item. The teachers' responses lead to the conclusion that all five items should be viewed in totality as they all seem to interrelate as stress factors. Teachers view the principalship as extremely stressful and with unrealistic time and accountability demands. Put succinctly, the teacher leaders in this study did not believe the job demands and expectations were reasonable or that they could be effective given the current climate and circumstances in which they would have to work.

Recommendations

Given the dramatic need for quality school leaders, the findings of this study should concern those who are engaged in the development of education policy. Policy makers must be willing to address the unrealistic demands of the principalship and provide school principals with the support they need to effectively deal with the scope of the job. The resources might include additional personnel or a restructuring of the overall job demands.

Without recognition among policy makers, superintendents, and the general public of the resources that are needed to make the job more attractive to potential leaders, public education may not have the leaders needed to meet the future needs of our schools.

The superintendent must take a proactive role in recruiting future principals. This can be accomplished by setting up leadership training for potential school leaders that will internally build leadership capacity in

the school district even if the participants eventually choose not to become principals.

This effort at capacity building should include recruiting teachers for the assistant principalship as this position is traditionally the stepping stone for most principalship positions. Yerkes and Guaglianone (1998) found a shortage of assistant principal candidates and the reasons for the shortage were consistent with the research on the principalship. Therefore, a strategy to prepare people for the assistant principalship and the principalship should be a high priority.

This training would benefit from including an opportunity for current principals to share with prospective principals the benefits and rewards of being a school leader (Lankford, O'Connell, & Wyckoff, 2003).

Teachers' perception of the principalship is often dominated by seeing firsthand the frustrations and personal demands that principals experience, therefore there must to be a concerted effort to insure teachers hear directly from principals about the rewards that keep them in the position.

Superintendents should work with principals to ensure they use high quality time management practices that allow them to spend more time working with teachers on instruction, interacting with students, and building the relationships that make the job satisfying. The active engagement in these activities by the principal will also provide a positive model for the principal as educational leader.

This modeling will demonstrate to teachers the most positive elements of the principalship and provide a positive image for the position.

Walt Kelly, the writer of the classic comic strip Pogo, wrote a classic line in an Earth Day poster in 1970: "We have met the enemy, and he is us." Principals and superintendents might often be a major part of the problem of teachers not wanting to become administrators.

Principals and superintendents must move beyond only emphasizing the stress of the principalship and strive also to communicate the rewards and personal satisfaction that come from leadership.

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Research Article

Technology Pedagogy: Software Tools for Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

Adoption of technology for teaching and learning is not as significant as the adoption and use of software that is used as a pedagogical extension of a teacher's approach to classroom instruction. It is the dynamic and integrated use of software that extends the pedagogical role of the teacher beyond the traditional lecture and discussion format. Students were motivated to use dynamic and engaging software to enhance the learning experience. Multimedia, Internet connectivity, dynamic software, networking and the simple issue of organizing for learning made adoption of laptop computers a valuable tool for enhancing teaching and learning in an eighth grade pilot project in a Midwestern school district. Teachers and students recognized the shift toward a student-centered constructivist approach to learning.

Keywords

Pedagogy, Constructivism, Technology Integration

The advent of the digital age brought technology into the classroom as an enhancement of teaching and learning. Yet the drill and rote aspect of computers during the initial era of adoption and integration made educators aware of the limited use and value of the computer as a pedagogical tool.

Educational software programs developed in the 1970's and 1980's such as *Oregon Trail*, and *Where in the World is Carmen San Diego?*occupied students in exercises that reinforced basic knowledge acquisition. *Math Blaster* and other game-based programs were staples of drill and practice used by teachers to help students master content.

Teachers utilized computers as one-dimensional learning tools that supplemented skill acquisition by turning electronic drill and practice games into the digital equivalent of paper and pencil worksheets.

It has taken a full generation of computer software and hardware development to bring the computer to the point of meaningful pedagogical use for enhanced student learning. The personal computer began to have real value to individual teachers and individual students when it became a robust and dynamic learning tool.

It was a combination of dynamic and useful software allied with innovations in usability and portability of the personal computer that made learning personal.

Pedagogical Convergence of Hardware, Software, and Money

In this qualitative study a K-12 school district explored the use and function of the computer as a significant pedagogical device and learning tool. A determination was made to use laptop computers as pedagogical enhancements of classroom teaching and as learning tools for individual students within a typical junior high education environment.

The Study

This research was a descriptive non-experimental case study (Merriam, 1998) of students and their teachers as they described the value and use of digital tools and devices that were adopted by a school district to improve teaching and learning.

Interviews of the teachers and randomly selected students occurred at the beginning of the school year when students first received the computers, and again, at the end of the same school year. Periodic observations of the after-school teacher meetings for the purposes of developing teacher knowledge using technology also occurred.

The interview data with teachers and students were compiled under one data set. Rather than report findings that distinguished aspects of teaching or learning, the findings were aggregated and analyzed within the frame of pedagogy that affected and influenced the overall teaching and learning environment.

Six eighth grade teachers from a Mid-western suburban school district were selected to participate in a laptop pilot study based on their interest in technology. The teachers involved in the study were selected for their interest in developing technology skills, but were *not* chosen for advanced ability or prior technology use in their teaching. Students assigned to the teachers for the school year were advised of the pilot program and their parents were given an opportunity to opt out before the pilot began.

A cohort of 34 students took classes for one academic year with teachers who taught the typical mix of eighth grade classes of English,

math, science, social studies, and special education, with one significant addition to the educational experience: All 34 students and six teachers were issued a laptop computer with factory installed software that included wireless connectivity to the Internet. Students were permitted to take the computers home soon after receiving them with 24/7 use during the school year.

Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the use of technology as a teaching and learning tool. The research question was: Is face-to-face teaching and learning altered by technology (in the form of laptop computers) for students and teachers? The researchers interviewed the students and teachers to gain insight into the use of laptops as teaching and learning tools over the course of one school year.

An emerging focus of the study was the use of software that had been factory installed, fully integrated with other software on the laptop, and could be used in a multitude of ways to enhance teaching and learning. Teachers and students used the same model laptop computer with the same commercially installed software during the school year.

Apple computers were chosen as the laptop of choice because of the perceived integration of software and hardware to produce teacher and student generated outcomes.

For example, the built-in camera enabled ease of use for creading iMovies that could be produced and edited in Garageband, which could then be transferred to iTunes, to be uploaded onto the Internet, for download onto an iPod.

The software integration was such that the process of production could be accomplished by learning to use the software appropriately and with a level of skill to take advantage of its capabilities.

Data Analysis

Interviews of students and teachers were transcribed and downloaded into NVivo to sort, analyze, and code common themes that were discussed and described during the interviews.

The teachers and students were analyzed as two groups. Individual responses were then analyzed across the two groups to determine common themes. Common themes emerged and "lessons learned" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) from cross-case analysis of the statements made by both teachers and students.

Findings

The evidence that emerged from the cross-case analysis supported the conclusion that a computer was only as valuable as the software in making pedagogy more engaging and learning more meaningful.

Constructivist-based and Student-Centered Learning

Students used software for school-related work, more or less, depending upon the individual teacher's mastery of the software and comfort level in using the software as a pedagogical tool to facilitate learning. However, the most significant adaptation of the software was in how much students took responsibility for, and expanded their own learning, because of their own desire to use the tools.

As teachers incorporated technology into their pedagogy the shift to student-centered responsibility to complete school assignments became an accepted expectation of the students.

The shift from teacher driven face-to-face lessons toward inquiry-based constructivist lessons was described by one

student as a change introduced by the computer:

> Sometimes they'll, not really like teach the lessons on the laptop, but they'll give us all the work that we need on the laptop and they just explain it like that. Sometimes in an email when they send us the work, they'll say what to do in the email.
>
> For movies they use it. They don't really use them for presentations. But we do. We do our projects on there and present them to the class.

The online environment opened up communication and networking that enhanced learning responsibility. The networking within the cohort kept classmates more tuned in to expectations and requirements for schoolwork. As another student said:

> I feel more responsible with it. I have all my work on there [computers]. Well most of it. Not all the worksheets. I know what I have to do because I talk to my friends who have the same homework as me. So we just talk and we get it done because I have it on there.

Students were not bound by a past culture of learning or traditional conventions about what learning had to be or how it had to be experienced. In fact, the students were more receptive to the potential of the software—and using it—to complete homework or assignments. The students became proficient in using and creating with the software tools. One teacher indicated that lesson planning became more student-centered because students were motivated to use the software to its full creative potential:

> With the laptop kids, all of those timeframes are out the window. It seems like they'd be able to process this information in twenty minutes. But then, it took them thirty-five because they'd go so much more in-depth.
>
> It was whole restructuring of the strategy to implement lesson plans. It's different than not using laptops the way the lesson flows. Or something would happen quicker than I had previously planned.
>
> I knew how long it would take kids to finish certain tasks and kids with computers changed that thinking. Quicker on some things, and then longer on other things. It wasn't anything I could predict.
>
> For example, in Comic Life, we made a book of all the presidents. They did presidents one through ten and I thought teaching them the program would take most of forty-five minutes. It took them fifteen.
>
> I introduced three key parts and they were off and

> running … it's that readjusting the thinking and timing of lessons. I had to redevelop those strategies.

Networking and Communication

There was one significant additional software tool that had a bearing on the shift toward a more teacher facilitated and student-centered (more constructivist) learning environment.

The Internet opened up an avenue of communication and social/educational networking that provided a synergy to teacher-facilitated lessons. Students went beyond the teacher-directed facilitation of a lesson to contact friends via e-mail, engage in continuous instant messaging, and interact with classmates in a social network that had an educational benefit.

Although teachers took advantage of the Internet to communicate with students via e-mail, set up forums for reviewing papers and homework, and responding to student questions about homework after the school day, social networking with friends about school related assignments emerged as a student-driven, student oriented, student-centered environment for putting greater meaning into learning.

Students did not just gravitate to using the available communication and networking opportunities as they acquired confidence about using communication software. As soon as these students learned how to use the Internet software to network and communicate (the first week) they began doing so with keen interest and motivation.

Networking and communication was immediately integrated into the daily routine of student use 24/7 and continued throughout the year. Every student achieved mastery of the available software tools to communicate and network with other members of the group.

One student indicated the move to ninth grade without the laptops meant he would miss:

> being able to contact friends from class easier and being able to know people better through the computer … everybody really knows each other a lot better … and we wouldn't know each other better because we have all four classes together. Everybody just knows everybody better because of the iChat and whatever. Because they help each other out.

Effectively, social networking and communication via the Internet were extensions of a teacher's pedagogical approach.

The Internet was available to these teachers and students not only because of the software, but the commitment of the school district and community to purchase and maintain an infrastructure to support high-speed wireless connectivity. This connectivity enhanced teacher and student contact to support a more individualized learning environment.

The introduction of computers with Internet capability, and software to communicate, altered student behavior and social interaction among friends and classmates about the process of learning. Networking via the Internet increased the amount of time students interacted with friends and classmates to socialize and discuss school work.

The other aspect of Internet connectivity that was observed was direct communication with teachers. Those teachers who adopted practices that utilized the Internet

to disseminate work assignments, hand in homework via digital drop boxes, responded to homework questions by e-mail during the evening, or utilized the Internet to capture, read, and review student work enhanced student and teacher contact around learning tasks that took on a digital form.

Student Responsibility: Efficiency and Organization

Teachers and students agreed that using time to get things done more easily, and in being more organized to get things done, were virtues of using the computer.

A teacher explained the benefit of this increased efficiency as, "The laptop program has allowed me to spend time with the kids helping them learn and understand what they are learning."

The single and most reported response of the students was the basic utility of keeping learning organized. One student captures the general feeling of all:

> It makes me be able to be more organized in work and makes me keep track of what I have and haven't done so I can complete it. It's easier to turn in when I need to. Teachers have inboxes that you can put it in whenever you finish. It's an attachment to an email. Yep, you can do that or put it to her folder that she has on our network server. It's easier to do it that way compared to waiting for class and sometimes you lose the papers. But, you can't lose them on the computer.

There were two direct benefits to using the computer stated by these eighth-grade students:

1) more homework was turned in to teachers in a timely manner; and

2) homework, draft assignments, projects, communication with friends about homework, and all other school related work was saved and stored on the computer.

The computer helped to organize student work so that it could be saved, found, revised, and turned into each teacher's digital mailbox in a timely manner.

Student Achievement

If there was a noticeable content winner in using technology to enhance learning it was in the areas of writing, communication, and networking. Students did not indicate using the computer alone resulted in a direct learning benefit. They did, however, indicate how it helped to improve the possibility of better grades:

> I think it works best for me in English. Because with all of our assignments I get to turn them into her email box and she does the inbox where we turn in assignments. She uses it a lot. I'm doing stuff the same. It's just more convenient.

Another student indicated having the computer:

> makes you want to write more. I find that I write a lot more than last year when I didn't have the laptop . . . I've gotten a lot better at writing and so have a lot of people.

When asked about grades, in general, students did not make a connection between computer use and improved achievement:

> They probably stayed the same except it's faster because I can find information easier if I don't know something. Instead of going to find a book. My grades haven't really been different than if I hadn't had the computer.

There were students who did indicate that grades benefited from computer use. But, even in the positive responses, it was a more indirect and general help that reflected its utility:

> My grades have gone up a lot and I think it's helping me more to understand what it is. I think that making it more fun and interesting has made me more involved in school more.

Discussion: Adapting Software to Enhance Pedagogy for Learning

A number of studies explored pedagogical aspects of direct instruction as the foundation for classroom teaching during the past forty years (see for example, Rosenshine, 1971; Waxman & Walberg, 1999; Newmann, 2000; Good & Brophy, 2003). The advent of the digital age brought technology into the classroom as a supplement for directed teaching.

The *drill and kill* aspect of computers during the initial era of computer adoption (1970's to the present) left educators with limited use for a pedagogical tool. The computer was considered by many educators to be a supplemental teaching tool with limited classroom use.

In this study teachers began utilizing software as a pedagogical extension of an individual's own directed teaching style. The directed teaching style has often been equated with Madeline Hunter's (1994) Instructional Theory into Practice (ITIP) steps in the teaching process that was used to develop and present classroom lessons throughout the last decades of the twentieth century.

During this project individual teachers presented some lessons that depended upon an integrated use of software that required mastery of that software to make points, facilitate student learning, and to improve desired learning outcomes.

The use of software was the key factor in considering a pedagogical approach that offered the potential for an enhanced presentation, clearer explanation, or improved facilitation of a lesson.

The teacher's technological pedagogical approach was structured around software that could be used if that software had been mastered to make relevant points about content. The following software was available to every teacher and student:

1. Microsoft Word for Apple
2. Microsoft Excel for Apple
3. Microsoft Powerpoint for Apple
4. iMovie
5. iChat/Skype
6. Garageband
7. iPhoto
8. Firefox/Safari
9. Comic Life

Software use depended upon the teacher's own belief that the applied and creative use of it during teaching made a difference in what the student experienced.

As critical was the teacher's mastery of the software and the ability to integrate it into the teacher's overall teaching approach. Thus, teacher knowledge of the pedagogical use and adaptation of software was the difference in how lessons became more or less technology enhanced.

Some teachers utilized software to create opportunities for students to engage in learning activities that were only marginally different from a paper and pencil assignment. However, the differences were subtle but significant. For example, English homework papers were turned in via the Internet and posted in an online forum for everyone in the class to read.

As one teacher said about the significance of using software to facilitate lessons, "You can get the kids to move deeper into what you're trying to teach them at a more rapid pace."

The software was what drove computer use for teaching and learning. Internet access through a browser and a word-processing program were seamlessly integrated even though they were separately developed.

Software use allowed the teacher to create an online forum for writing. The student experienced an integrated use of word processing and Internet posting within a forum that allowed for all of the students in the class to read a student's work.

The teachers interviewed for this project were representative of an educational interest to embrace technology … if it could enhance teaching and learning. Students were disposed to use the software because it was useful, meaningful, and engaging. Although a direct link to student achievement was not the intent or purpose of this study, it was evident that aspects of learning were supported by the commercially installed software applications to enhance the student's personal experience as a learner.

The computer was the package of plastic, computer chips, and exotic metals that contained the software used for teaching and learning. The computer, quite literally, served as the carrier of teaching potential in the form of software that was slowly and gradually adapted to teaching and learning.

Although teachers were far from software mastery at the end of the school year, they gained confidence during the course of the year to use it to enhance their teaching.

Summary

There were two broad findings that emerged from this study about using laptop computers as teaching and learning tools.

The first finding related to the importance of using software to facilitate teaching. Teachers used a mix of software in direct and indirect ways to develop, shape, and facilitate learning.

The motivation for teacher use of the software was to make learning more meaningful and engaging. There was evidence that the available software was useful in making lessons more interesting and meaningful to the students.

A second finding was that students were keen to take advantage of the many software tools. Students extended teacher facilitated lessons by advancing their own mastery of the software into a repertoire of organizational, communication, practical, entertaining, and

social uses that shaped how they personalized their own learning.

It was apparent that students were motivated to use the computer and software tools to do schoolwork linked to teacher facilitated lessons.

However, it was also apparent that the students adapted more easily, and more readily, into using all of the software to communicate, network, create, and extend the capability of the computer to *include* schoolwork within a wide range of use that encompassed entertainment, social networking, and communication that personalized the computer.

Educational classrooms are about to go through a transformation that will alter teaching pedagogy and student learning. This qualitative study highlighted a global, cultural, and technological movement that, at the present, does not reflect a typical American classroom. The teachers and students involved in this study represent the momentum of a global technological movement as it reaches further and deeper into the K-12 classroom. Three convergent forces shaped the adoption and successful use of laptop computers for 34 students and six teachers, enhancing teaching pedagogy and student learning:

1. The school district supplied (bore the cost) of high quality laptop computers.

2. All of the teachers and students had school-based Internet access.

3. The installed software applications on the computer were dynamic, integrated, utilitarian and engaging. The computer software used by the teachers and students represented a value added enhancement of teaching pedagogy and learning outcomes.

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Commentary

Ethical Leadership: What Is It Really?

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Abstract

There has been much discussion regarding the apparent lack of ethics in leaders of public and private organizations, and elected officials. This commentary proposes a foundation that can be used to establish a standard for ethical leadership. The commentary is grounded in classical ethical theories that can be applied to today's leaders. The author concludes that ethical leaders will not compromise the good of the whole for the privilege of a select few. If leaders keep this in the forefront of their leadership and decision-making, it is likely we will see a rise in ethical leadership. It will not be necessary to define ethical leadership in words. Instead it will be demonstrated by our leaders.

Keywords

Ethics, Leadership, Leaders

Introduction and Ethical Foundations

The study of ethics and leadership has been a focus of scholars such as Immual Kant (Categorical Imperative), Thomas Hobbes (Social Contract Ethics), John Dewey (Scientific Methods in Ethics), and John Rawls (Ethics and Social Justice) throughout the last several centuries. These scholars debated and discussed moral character and ethical behavior. They specifically looked at what constitutes behavior that is ethical and results in decisions that are made for the good of all. A brief review of their ideas is relevant here.

Thomas Hobbs stated that if people were left to their own devices there would be anarchy. Hobbs contended that people by nature are entirely selfish and devoid of any genuine feelings of sympathy, benevolence, and sociability. Each person is preoccupied with personal gratification. Consequently, people needed a "social contract" in order to avoid conflict. Hobbs' social contract was the agreement between people to maintain some ethical behavior in society. People would accept this social contract and consequently would agree to not aggress against each other. For Hobbs, the basic concepts of morality, right and wrong, justice and injustice, arise with the establishment of a civil society, the "social contract."

Immual Kant's categorical imperative required people to act toward all mankind as if they are an end and not just a means. Kant contended that people need to see humanity never as a means only. This is the foundation of his "categorical imperative." Kant's premise of his categorical imperative is that humans must seek an end that is void of any desires. He did not see any rational being as existing to be arbitrarily used by this will or that will. According to Kant, this is social justice and constitutes ethical behavior. People and good will, according to Kant, represent the efforts of people to do what they ought to do, rather than to act from an inclination of self-interest. According to Kant, it is not a moral law if it is not applied to all without contradictions.

John Dewey built his theory of ethics on the principles of pragmatism. He contended that human beings are problem-solvers, constantly making adjustments to the changing conditions that confront them. He identified a person's response to these uncertainties as impulsive, habitual, or reflective. Dewey's theory is summarized as follows:

> Evaluated in terms of effectiveness in solving problems, impulsive behavior fails because it leads to random reactions and a habitual action fails because it is not adaptable to new conditions. However, reflective thinking, which Dewey equates with scientific inquiry, is a satisfactory method of problem solving, because it is guided to a solution by both past experience and creative idea (as cited in Denise p. 249).

Dewey believed that the concept of what is good must change as society, the natural environment changes, and the knowledge of our physical environment changes. This is the foundation of the scientific method. This methodology, according to Dewey, needs to be applied to the theory of ethics.

John Rawls proposed that members of society should operate under a "veil of ignorance." Rawls contends that people will want what is best for even those with the least because they too could be at lowest level of society. He further postulates that "no individual would agree to a social compact that

reduces them to a mere means" (Denise, page 332). Rawls' theory of justice is summarized by stating that "the rights secured by justice are not subject to a political bargaining or to social interest" (Denise, page 333).

The above brief review is an attempt to provide a synopsis of the complexity of arriving at an ethical decision and how these decisions impact leadership. Nonetheless, it is assumed that leaders should model ethical behavior, possibly by using one of the theories presented in the historical literature. If leaders were to accept one of the theories posited by one of these scholars, and they are ethically committed to lead in an ethical way, we would see more ethical leadership. Unfortunately, we see little of this foundation in the behavior of some of our leaders.

Building A Case For Ethical Leadership

There remains limited research on what constitutes ethical leadership. Much of what has been written and theorized about ethics and leadership has led to more questions than answers.

No clear understanding has surfaced as to what it means to be an "ethical leader." However, there is no more critical time than the present to clearly define and expect school leaders to model ethical leadership. Perhaps it is the very lack of discussion about what it means to be an ethical leader and a clear definition of ethical leadership that has created the public's lack of faith in organizational leadership.

A current example is when the U.S. government intervened into the leadership of corporations. Wall Street leaders seem to have responded more to a threat of litigation and regulation than to a commitment to act in an ethical manner.

One of the most recent examples in the U.S. is the collapse of Enron. Enron Corporation was a gas pipeline company that turned into a huge enterprise. In 2001, the company collapsed due to unethical leadership. Basically, the reason why the company failed was due to a conflicting set of values. Due to this disconnect of values and other important facts, the company went bankrupt. The ethical issues continued for the next several years.

During the recent economic meltdown that started in 2008, publicly held companies such as Fannie Mae, Citicorp and others registered large profit loses. Much of this was blamed on a lack of ethical leadership.

The economic crisis in the U.S., which is now a worldwide recession, might be founded on an assumption that CEOs and boards of directors were unethical in their dealings with stakeholders.

This unethical behavior was that 'leaders' were more interested in their own rewards than the interest of their stakeholders, employees, or the larger society. These examples have led to the demise of corporations, CEOs falling from grace, and ultimately the mistrust of the general public of organizations and the government.

With all the unethical behavior and mistrust in the leadership of organizations it is appropriate to consider a study conducted by The Ethics Resource Center. The study probed how employees view ethics within their organizations.

This study, the National Business Ethics Survey: An Inside View of Private Sector Ethics (2007), found the following: (a) The number of formal ethics and compliance programs are on the rise and in companies with well-implemented programs there is an increase

in reporting and reduction of ethical risks; (b) companies that incorporate more than a singular commitment to compliance with ethics have an organizational culture that reduces risk; and (c) there is a blue print for individuals within companies responsible for governance and compliance.

However, the study also found that, in spite of the positive findings, there were some discouraging findings: (a) Ethical misconduct remains very high; (b) employees do not report what they observe and are fearful of retaliation; and (c) since 2005, the number of companies that incorporated ethical culture has declined.

It is the responsibility of leaders acting in an ethical manner to assure that the ethical decline does not continue. Consequently, the need is critical for stronger ethical leadership in business, public organizations, and government.

Definition of Ethical Leadership

One definition of ethical leadership are leaders who are aware of their core values and have the courage to live them in all parts of their lives. Moreover, it is a leader who demonstrates ethical behavior in all actions, public and private, and embeds these ethical behaviors in their decisions and knows and recognizes how these actions affect the common good.

Ethical leadership, as professed by Lashway (1997), is one that is built on characteristics of trust, respect, honesty, integrity, caring, and grace. Moreover, it is the act of leading with moral purpose. It holds that happiness is the ultimate goal, one where the best decisions are the ones that will result in the greatest good for the greatest number.

This definition of ethical leadership is grounded on three constructs: (a) It includes moral leadership, (b) it is evident in the outcomes of the leader's behavior, and (c) the leader acts ethically. A cursive review of the literature and how it aligns to these constructs is needed and appropriate, and may assist in further framing this definition of ethical leadership.

However, it is not an easy task to specifically define ethical leadership. Some of the difficulties center on the concept of "situational ethics." That is, leaders will act according to the situation or issue they confront. They might, for example, make a decision based on facts they have in one case but yet act quite differently in another because of different circumstances.

It would be permissible, however, to state that ethical leadership at its foundation is leadership that is grounded in behavior that will result in the good of the whole. Ethical leaders should make decisions that are not driven by ego or egocentric means.

Construct 1: Moral Leadership

Ethics and ethical leadership refers to the development of one's ethical standards. A leader's feelings, laws, and social norms can deviate from what is ethical. So, it is necessary to constantly examine one's moral standards to ensure that they are reasonable and well-founded.

Ethics also means making a continuous effort of studying one's own moral beliefs and moral conduct, and striving to ensure that leaders, and the institutions they lead shape, live up to standards that are reasonable and moral.

Velasquez, Shanks, and Meyer (1997) stated that ethics refers to well-based standards of right and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues. Ethical standards also include virtues of honesty, compassion, and loyalty.

Ethical standards also relate to rights, such as the right to life, the right to freedom from injury, and the right to privacy. Such standards are adequate standards of ethics because they are supported by consistent and well-founded reasons.

Lashway (1997), referencing Aristotle in an effort to define a virtuous/ethical leader, stated that it is more than acting with reason. It is to live well always and not just when there is a crisis. It is striving to live well and do the right thing even when tempted to do the opposite.

Lashway listed seven virtues of a virtuous, moral, ethical leader:

(a) honesty, an ethical leader is always honest in their approach to decisions and has an honest commitment to being moral,

(b) loyalty, the leader is loyal to the commitment to being moral,

(c) courage, a virtuous ethical leader has the courage to take a stand on issues that challenge their ethical behavior,

(d) respect, the ethical leaders will be respectful of contrary positions and respect the dignity of the people they lead,

(e) caring, the ethical leader will show compassion for the people they lead,

(f) justice, the ethical leaders will be just in all of their actions by not showing favoritism or discriminating, and

(g) grace, one of the most difficult virtues is the ability of the ethical leader to show grace in all of their behavior.

Kidder (1995) defined the core moral values of ethical leadership. He proposed that the core values consist of: (a) Love or solidarity the love of all ages, (b) truthfulness, (c) fairness, (d) freedom, (e) responsibility, and (f) respect for life.

Fullan (2001) contends that it is critical for leaders to act with moral purpose. He defines moral purpose as "acting with the intention of making a positive difference in the lives of employees, customers and society as a whole … leaders must be guided by moral purpose" (page 5).

Fullan concludes that moral purpose is critical to the long-term success of all organizations: "Organizations without moral purpose die sooner than later" (page 27). It is important to state here that moral purpose is equated to ethical leadership.

Construct 2: Evident in Outcomes of Leader's Behavior

One test of ethical leadership is in a leader's behavior. This behavior is manifested in how the leader's behavior will respond to the dilemmas and how their behavior will reflect their ethical conscious and the psychology of the leader.

Freeman and Stewart (2006) reported that ethical leaders demonstrate eight characteristics:

(a) articulate and embody the purpose and values of the organization,

(b) focus on organizational success rather than one's personal ego,

(c) find the best people and develop them,

(d) create a living conversation about ethics, values and the creation of value for stakeholders,

(e) create mechanisms of dissent,

(f) take a charitable understanding values and ethical principles they live,

(g) frame actions in ethical terms, and

(h) connect the basic value proposition to stakeholder support and societal legitimacy.

The authors further contend that ethical leaders need to ask themselves the following questions:

(a) What are my most important values and principles?
(b) Does my calendar—how I spend my time and attention—reflect these values?
(c) What would my subordinates and peers say my values are?
(d) What mechanisms and processes have I designed to be sure that the people who work for me can push back against my authority?
(e) What could this organization do or ask me to do that would cause me to resign for ethical reasons?
(f) What do I want to accomplish with my leadership?
(g) What do I want people to say about my leadership when I am gone?
(h) Can I go home at the end of the day and tell my children (or a loved one) about my leadership and use my day's work to teach them to be ethical leaders?

Enomoto and Kramer (2007) identified four sources of ethical tensions that ethical leaders will face:

(a) virtue ethics—what is a good person, and what are the qualities of a good person;
(b) desires of ends-based ethics—how can we maximize the good of most people;
(c) good society ethics—how a good society should treat people; and
(d) duties-based ethics—what are the duties, beliefs, and moral obligations of people?

Enomoto and Kramer content that if leaders navigate the ethical tensions and recognize them they will be inclined to act ethically.

Construct 3: Leader Acts Ethically

Ethical leaders will act ethically. They will model such attributes as trust, respect, and integrity. By acting ethically their acts will result in the good of the whole. Moreover, their organizations will create "society-minded" outcomes.

James Gehrke (2009) stated there are six steps to ethical leadership:
(a) reflect on values,
(b) establish trust,
(c) establish a shared ethical vision,
(d) communicate an ethical vision and code of conduct,
(e) show you are serious about ethical behaviors, and
(g) monitor and sustain ethical behavior.

Starratt (2004), writing specifically for education leadership, suggests there are three virtues to ethical leaders: responsibility, authenticity, and presence. He suggests that ethical leaders are:
(a) responsible for creating and sustaining authentic relationships with all stakeholders, creating healthy environments, and practicing civic leadership,
(b) authentic in all relationships, support, more or less, the rights of all members of a society to an authentic life, and create a learning environment that is authentic to learning, and
(c) have a presence and are fully aware of self and others, have presence that allows others to be who they are; a critical presence helps to identify a problem and works to remove any obstacles to the solution, enabling presence that invites others to exercise their own autonomy.

Dennis Thompson, writing in *The Ethics Edge* (1998), contends that government

ethics provides the precondition for the making of good public policy, "it is more important than any single policy because all other policies are dependent on it" (page 48). Good public policy framed around sound ethical tenets will build confidence in government. It will allow citizens to view decisions (laws) that the government makes to be in the best interest of all citizens. Consequently, ethics does not become an issue.

Senge, (2008) provides an example of how ethical leadership can be applied. He uses the example of the Uganda Rural Development Training Program (URDT). Senge sited the URDT as one example of the type of leadership needed in the future, ethical leadership. He writes, "the story of URDT shows that, in its essence, *ethical* leadership [italics added] often comes down to how people move from fatalism to an awakened faith that they can shape a different future" (page 369): "Ultimately leadership is about how to shape the future" (page 372).

The authors referenced in Construct 3 represent how complex ethical leadership can be. Consequently, it is essential for ethical leaders to hold a solid foundation so that if they act ethically they can, as Senge states, "shape the future."

Conclusion/Observations

More leadership theorists are asserting that leaders have the responsibility for ensuring standards of moral and ethical conduct. Ethical leadership refers not only to competence in a leader, but they must model ethical behavior. It is believed that the nurturing aspect of leaders can raise organizational cultures and employee values to high levels of ethical concern. Ethical leadership requires ethical leaders. If leaders are ethical, they can ensure that ethical practices are carried out throughout an organization.

Ethical leaders' decisions will be founded on data and facts that are relevant to the situation. Shapiro and Gross (2008) would argue that situational ethics may arise out of (a) a clash between individual personal ethics and professional code of ethics, (b) conflicts within the professional code of ethics, (c) a clash among professional peers, or (d) a clash between a professional code of ethics and what the organization expects. It will then be the leader's responsibility to sort out the best possible solution to the situation.

Ethical leadership requires the leader to act according to the best possible outcome that will have the greatest positive impact and be for the good of the whole. It is the ethical leader's responsibility to prevent a situation from causing turbulence within the organization.

Ethical leadership is not organizational-specific. Ethical leadership is needed in public and private organizations and government. Ethical leadership is needed in education as much as it is needed in the private sector.

Educational leaders are faced with a plethora of issues that challenge their ethical foundations. The issue of accountability and public scrutiny require educational leaders to be well-grounded in their ethics beliefs. They must ask themselves if their decisions are founded in what is best for the good of the whole.

Ethical leaders must have as their backdrop for decisions, as Lashway contends, honesty, respect, trust, integrity, caring, hold justice high, and have grace in their decision. Ethical leaders must establish a moral/ethical contract that will state very specifically how an organization does business. Ethical leaders will not compromise the good of the whole for the privilege of a select few.

If leaders focus on the three constructs of ethical leadership proposed in this commentary and they demonstrate them in their behavior, it is likely we will see more ethical leadership Further, if leaders keep these constructs in the forefront of their leadership and decisions, it is likely we will see a rise in ethical leadership. It will not be necessary to define ethical leadership in words. Instead it will be demonstrated by our leaders. That behavior will lead us to a more definitive answer to the question—ethical leadership, what is it really?

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Mission and Scope, Upcoming Themes, Author Guidelines & Publication Timeline

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* is a refereed, blind-reviewed, quarterly journal with a focus on research and evidence-based practice that advance the profession of education administration.

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The **mission** of the Journal is to provide peer-reviewed, user-friendly, and methodologically sound research that practicing school and district administrations can use to take action and that higher education faculty can use to prepare future school and district administrators. The Journal publishes accepted manuscripts in the following categories: (1) Evidence-based Practice, (2) Original Research, (3) Research-informed Commentary, and (4) Book Reviews.

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Authors must also provide a 120-word abstract that conforms to APA style, a few key words and a 40-word biographical sketch. Articles are to be submitted to the editor by e-mail as an electronic attachment in Microsoft Word 2003 or 2007.

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