

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRINCIPAL TURNOVER IN
UNION AND NON-UNIONIZED SCHOOL
DISTRICTS IN OHIO

DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO
College of Education
ASHLAND UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
The Degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

Suzanne A. Hawthorne-Clay, B.S., M.Ed.

ASHLAND UNIVERSITY

ASHLAND, OHIO

2010

© Copyright by
Suzanne A. Hawthorne-Clay
All rights reserved
2010

A Dissertation
entitled
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRINCIPAL TURNOVER IN
UNION AND NON-UNIONIZED SCHOOL
DISTRICTS IN OHIO

by

Suzanne A. Hawthorne-Clay

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

The Degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

Dr. Harold E. Wilson, Committee Chair Date

Dr. Ann Shelly, Committee Co-chair Date

Dr. Larry Cook, Committee Member Date

Dr. Robert Shelly, Committee Member Date

Dr. James P. Van Keuren, Dean, College of Education Date

Dr. W. Gregory Gerrick, Dean of Graduate Schools Date

Ashland University
May, 2010

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRINCIPAL TURNOVER IN
UNION AND NON-UNIONIZED SCHOOL
DISTRICTS IN OHIO

By

Suzanne A. Hawthorne-Clay

ASHLAND UNIVERSITY, 2010

Harold E. Wilson, Ph.D., Chair and Ann Shelly, Ph.D, Co-Chair

This study compares the succession of urban principals working under negotiated collective bargaining agreements and conferred “memorandums of understanding” with particular school boards in three of Ohio’s major cities: Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo. Relying on the following information: tenure, licensure status, professional experience, and gender, as predictive indicators of individual principal movement, isolating common factors of those moved over a five year period, utilizing the Ohio Department of Education public access data base as the primary source of information to verify stability as one advantage of collective bargaining.

DEDICATION

To my parents, Stewart A. and Betty A. (Rogers) Hawthorne, who blessed me with a wonderful childhood and memorable stories to joyfully share with your grandchildren and great-grandchildren. Thank you for your unconditional love, your supportive and encouraging natures, and always trusting that I would find my way. You taught me that life was like a “field of diamonds.”

To my darling children Amber, Alex, and Alisha who struggled with me through every degree, who attended college classes with me, played and slept in university libraries, all the time believing that this was normal. Thank you for not complaining when I studied at baseball games, during your music and dance lessons, during dinner, late at night, and even on vacation.

To my husband, my love, my partner, my friend, John, for bringing out the best in me, supporting me during this process, and by taking up tennis (while I studied). I praise the Lord for blessing me with a good Christian man that loves me the way Jesus loves the church.

To all of my “Princ-a-PALS” in CCAS, and the dedicated teachers and support staff who stand by them, ready to take action, refusing the status quo in great efforts to educate the children of Cleveland.

Even youth will become weak and tired, and young men will fall in exhaustion.
But those who trust in the LORD will find new strength. They will soar high on wings like eagles. They will run and not grow weary. They will walk and not faint. Isaiah 40:31

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Harold E. Wilson, Ph.D.

Ann Shelly, Ph.D.

John K. “Joe” Bailey, Ph.D.

Larry Cook, Ph.D.

Ernestine Davis, Ed.D.

Tracy S. Goodwin, Ph.D.

K. Stacey Griffin, M.Ed.

Connie Lou Hagar

Robert Shelly, Ph.D.

Kim Tyler-Snyder, M.Ed.

Nicholus Spratlen

Linda Wheatt, M.Ed.

Cohort 5, 6, and 7 (especially Liz Puckowicz, Ed.D.;

Rhonda Horvatter, Ed.D., and Jan Kelly, Ed.D)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction to the Problem	1
Background of the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Overview of Methodology	3
Assumptions	4
Significance of the Study	4
Research Questions	5
Definition of Terms	5
Limitations	7
Summary of the Study	8
CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW	10
The Important Role of the Principal	10
The Principal and School Reform	16
Principal Turnover: The problem with the solution	19
Summary	27
CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY	28
Design	28
Selecting the Schools to Study	33
Procedures	37
Data Analysis	38
Summary	40

CHAPTER IV. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS	41
Descriptive Summary of Research Sample and Research Variables	41
Data Analysis Procedures	47
Results	49
Summary	59
CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	61
Summary	61
Discussion	62
Recommendations	67
Recommendations for Future Research	69
REFERENCES	71
APPENDIX	82
Human Subjects Review Board Approval	83

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Mid-Continental Research for Education and Learning Balanced Framework	12
Table 2. Ohio School Typology (excerpt) For Major Urban School Districts	29
Table 3. Deprivation Index Ratings (by least)	30
Table 4. Population of Adults (age 25 and over) Without High School Diplomas	30
Table 5. Per Capita Income (by highest)	30
Table 6. Percentage of Families That Speak Another Language Other Than English.	31
Table 7. Poverty Rates (ranked by lowest)	31
Table 8. Unemployment Rates (ranked by lowest)	32
Table 9. Violent Crime Rates Per 100,000 Population (ranked by lowest)	32
Table 10. Percent of Total Births to Teens (less than age 20) (ranked lowest)	32
Table 11. Child Poverty Rates (ranked by lowest)	33
Table 12. Percent of Families Headed by Single Mothers (ranked by lowest)	33
Table 13. Number of District Schools (EMIS 2007-2008)	36
Table 14. Student Enrollment	36
Table 15. Principal Data Sample	39
Table 16. Gender Composition of Research Sample	42
Table 17. Descriptive Statistics: Number of Years Since Certification	42
Table 18. Level of Research Sample by Year	43
Table 19. Job Position Experiences of Research Sample	44
Table 20. Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Summary for Research Sample	45
Table 21. Mid-Career Summary of Research Sample	45
Table 22. Descriptive Statistics: Number of Years Serving as Principal	46

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics: School Ratings of Level of Effectiveness	47
Table 24. Regression Results: School Ratings Predicting Number of Years at School	51
Table 25. Group Means: Mid-Career Status Comparisons	52
Table 26. Independent Samples <i>t</i> -Test: Mid-Career Status Comparisons	53
Table 27. Group Means: Female vs. Male Comparisons	55
Table 28. Independent Samples <i>t</i> -Test: Female vs. Male Comparisons	56
Table 29. Group Means: Female vs. Male Comparisons	57
Table 30. Independent Samples <i>t</i> -Test: Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Comparisons	58
Table 31. Organizational Trust	66
Table 32. Evolutionary Leadership Choice Model	68

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Whole School Reform Model	24
Figure 2. Scatter Plot: Standardized Predicted and Residual Values: Hypothesis One	51
Figure 3. Group Mean Comparisons: Mid-career Principals vs. Non Mid-career Principals	54
Figure 4. Group Mean Comparisons: Female Principals vs. Male Principals	57
Figure 5. Group Mean Comparisons: Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Principals vs. Non Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Principals	59

CHAPTER I

This dissertation is a summary of correlational research based upon current data and direct observation of the frequent turn-over experiences of urban school principals in three of Ohio's largest school districts during a five-year period. This first chapter presents the background of the study, describes its significance to the field of education, and provides an overview of the methodology used, along with the limitations.

Background of the Study

The urban school is a unique entity, within an even more complex and distinctive bureaucratic system of many schools. No two schools, even in the same district, present identical challenges. The urban academic experience may be characterized as one with a high percentage of poverty, violence, limited resources, truancy, less-qualified teachers, an aging workforce, less resourceful parents, and academic failure, along with a host of other obstacles that hinder success, such as high dropout rates, low graduation percentages, teen pregnancy, and such.

The primary key to addressing these and other urban school issues is strong, skilled, front-line building-level leadership, namely the principal. Yet, urban school communities often experience frequent building-level leadership changes due to resignations, reassignments, relocations, and of course, retirements. The school setting and climate, along with the district's setting and climate, may contribute to the phenomenon of principal turnover. Urban public schools continue to struggle with academic decline and lack of scholastic constancy, which regularly leaves its students behind their private school and suburban school contemporaries. Administrators are faced with issues that go beyond the realm of academics. Turnover of principals is so common

that neighborhoods rarely question the frequent changes and rarely utilize their voice in this decision-making process through letters of discontent, school board meeting attendance, or other types of protest. It is not unusual for an urban school to experience even yearly changes in principals.

Another extenuating dynamic that affects organization in large urban school districts is that the average superintendent tenure is three years or less, according to Hess (2000). This change in top-level, central office administration is often accompanied by other administrative reassignments, including principals. Additionally, urban-school teacher retention is a concern as schools fail to maintain supportive work climates.

Yet, whole school reform, the integrated effort to holistically bring together all stakeholders (home, school, and community) in educating our children, speaks to the internal and external role of the urban school principals and puts power, responsibility, and accountability into their hands. (Chubb & Moe, 1990). Simply put, it takes time for change to become embedded. Therefore, meaningful whole-school reform practices are seldom fulfilled in urban schools and, in this author's opinion, such frequent changes in leadership contradict the pedagogy of school reform.

Statement of the Problem

According to Partlow (2007), urban and rural districts experience a higher frequency of principal turnover than suburban school districts, possibly due to economic factors. Ohio is faced with the additional dilemma of addressing student achievement, as measured by the Ohio Achievement Tests at key grade levels. This dilemma also challenges districts of other states across the country, whose urban schools fail to meet state standards year after year. According to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001

(NCLB), this deficiency, the continued failure of a school to meet minimum academic standards may be addressed in one of the following ways: offer parents the option of transferring their child(ren) to academically successful neighboring schools; provide access to supplemental educational services, (i.e.) tutoring on or off-site; reconstitute the school by reassigning teaching staff; or alter building leadership. The latter seems to be the option most often chosen. Nevertheless, whether self-initiated (movement within or between districts) or central-office initiated (transfers/reassignments), such movement and the ensuing dynamics have tremendous impact on the principalship, limiting the ability to “build” community in the organization, or establish a healthy culture. Urban schools continue to exert great (often futile) efforts to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP).

Little conclusive research has been done to examine the effect of building-level leadership movement. It stands to reason that, if building leaders are being held accountable for academic growth, the foundational leadership work of building and bonding must take place to produce the desired outcome. The influence of principal assignment is a real and powerful aspect worth exploring, and it is essential to academic progress and school reform.

Overview of Methodology

This study compares the succession of urban principals in particular school districts in three of Ohio’s major cities. It relies on the following information: tenure, licensure status, professional experience, gender, education, and collective bargaining unit membership as predictive indicators of individual principal movement. It isolates common factors of those moved over the last five years, and utilizes the Ohio Department

of Education (ODE) and the Educational Management Information System (EMIS) public access data base as the primary sources of information to respond to the question, “Is it the individual principal’s attributes and nature of the relationship that contribute to this decision making?”

Assumptions

The following assumptions were present in this study:

1. It is assumed that all of the principals identified have earned degrees from accredited colleges and universities, from endorsed teacher education and preparation programs, and have taught for a minimum of 3 years (as required by the state of Ohio).
2. It is assumed that all principals have successfully passed the necessary qualifying requirements for Ohio state licensure in School Administration and are practicing at their levels of certification.

Significance of the Study

As policy makers and professional educators consider the effects of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (2001) (an amendment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act), and propose regulations to strengthen and increase accountability, resulting in better schools, higher achievement, and increased graduation rates, urban public school districts must consider strategies that support a nature of community in neighborhood schools. In short, frequent building-level leadership changes seem not to benefit or even correspond to the principles of school reform. Concurring, Sergiovanni (1994) and Fullan (1991) stated that meaningful and sustainable school reform requires 5– 8 years of building-level administrative service. Often not afforded the necessary time,

principals are inhibited by these frequent transitions from establishing bonding, banking, and binding at even the most elemental levels of leadership stages (Evans, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1994).

Research Questions or Hypothesis

My question, therefore, is, “Is it the nature of the organizational relationship that effects movement or do the individual principal’s attributes contribute to this decision making?” The following research hypotheses guide this study:

H₁: Principals of effective schools are moved more frequently.

H₂: Mid-career principals are moved more frequently.

H₃: Female principals experience turn-over more frequently.

H₄: Principals having collective bargaining unit membership are moved less frequently.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used operationally in this study.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): the measure by which schools, districts, and states are held accountable for student performance under Title I of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. A state definition of AYP is based on the statewide accountability system, student achievement measurements such as test scores and graduation rates, and statewide academic assessments at the elementary and secondary levels. (US Department of Education, 2008)

Building-level administrator: the principal

Collective bargaining agreement: Typically, the agreement establishes wages, hours, promotions, benefits, and other employment terms as well as procedures for

handling disputes arising under it. Because the collective bargaining agreement cannot address every workplace issue that might arise in the future, unwritten customs and past practices, external law, and informal agreements are as important to the collective bargaining agreement as the written instrument itself (Barrons Business Dictionary, 2009).

EMIS: Educational Management Information System (student accounting system) for the State of Ohio

Instructional leader: Significant educational ideas endure, but they also evolve over time. In the 1980s, "instructional leadership" became the dominant paradigm for school leaders after researchers noticed that effective schools usually had principals who kept a high focus on curriculum and instruction, ...driven by the relentless growth of standards-based accountability systems. Explicit standards of learning, coupled with heavy pressure to provide tangible evidence of success, have reaffirmed the importance of instructional leadership (Lashway, 2002).

Memorandum of Understanding (MOU): a brief, often unsigned communication circulated among professionals, especially one that summarizes an organization's position on an issue (Barrons Business Dictionary, 2009).

Succession: [Human Resources] the assumption of a position or title, the right to take up a position or title, or the order in which a position or title is taken up (Barrons Business Dictionary, 2009).

Turn-over: [Human Resources] the number of employees hired to replace those who left, [were reassigned], or were fired during a [academic] year (businessdictionary.com, 2009).

Urban: relating to cities or intensively developed areas. Contrast with rural, which refers to sparsely developed areas, or suburb, which is a moderately-developed area.

Whole-school reform: “(also known as comprehensive school reform) is a process that seeks to simultaneously change all elements of a school's operating environment so those elements align with a central, guiding vision” (Keltner, 1998, p.1). The ultimate goal, of course, is to improve student performance.

Limitations

The following limitations were present in this study:

1. An inconsistent reporting of names (i.e., female name changes due to marriage and divorce, including hyphenations), inclusion or exclusion of middle initials, use of nicknames and variations of names was confounding.
2. The confining inability to differentiate between resignations, retirements, and out-of-district lateral moves and even in-district moves out of the principalship when a name no longer appears in the study presents some limitations.
3. There is a limited perspective when comparing such similar groups.
4. Information related to other administrative experience, such as assistant principalships and supervisory experiences was unavailable.
5. The considerations of principal assignments were limited to the 2002-2006 school years.
6. There was an inability to establish the number of years of classroom experience prior to assuming the role of principal.

7. The Cleveland Municipal School District adopted the K- 8 concept for all elementary and middle schools in 2005.
8. The quality of data was affected by poor record keeping limiting the availability of complete and accurate information.
9. The service histories are restricted to Ohio Department Education SAFE-Accounts.
10. And, this study was not designed to give individual district analyses.

Summary of the Study

Chapter 1 gave a brief synopsis of the important role of urban leadership in our schools and states the problems of frequent changes in building-level leadership and district headship. Key terms were defined depicting the urban milieu and the struggle to meet the ideologies of school reform during these NCLB years, with a brief introduction to the philosophical conflict of practices that are in opposition to community in schools. Although some movement of personnel is expected as district professionals advance to positions of increasing responsibility, and the natural consequences of retirements and resignations create open positions, urban districts seem to experience this phenomenon more regularly.

Chapter 1 presented a foundational platform for the theoretical and empirical literature references as related to the principal succession. This study focuses on principal succession in three of Ohio's largest public school districts: Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo from the 2002 through 2007 school years. These districts comparatively share a similar demography of economically-stressed neighborhoods, high minority enrollment,

increasing issues of safety, limited resources, and a less-than-significant commitment to education, all typical of the urban plight.

CHAPTER II

Replacing perceived ineffective principals may be the resulting decision of urban school superintendents and school boards to improve failing schools. On the other hand, resignation may be the response of the urban school principals who feel the frustration of the many urban barriers to success. For whichever reason, these solutions to academic and organizational disappointment often present greater problems (Achilles, 1997).

The Important Role of the Principal

According to McEwan's (2003) findings from interviews of principals, teachers, central office administrators, school board members, university professors, and parents, there are ten traits of highly effective principals; they must be (a) good communicators, (b) learning-centered, (c) visionaries, (d) people-centered, (e) change masters, (f) culture builders, (g) activators, (h) producers, (i) character builders, and (j) contributors.

The problems related to attracting and retaining qualified administrators, Richard Laine, director of education for the Wallace Foundation (Miller, 2004) noted, are problems related to difficult working conditions, a lack of incentives, and an unmanageable range of responsibilities. Many principals, for example, are expected to supervise cafeteria staff, coordinate bus schedules, attend athletic events, develop and maintain effective parent and community-school relationships, complete numerous mandated state and federal reports, and act as instructional leaders. Leading schools in ways that ensure that all students learn the knowledge and skills they need at each stage of education is a vitally important task. Now more than ever, it is important for districts to implement policies and practices to support principals in this work (Miller, 2004).

Proficient, qualified, effective, capable, and successful are often-used adjectives to describe principals having accomplished real, concrete, measurable standards. The “effective” principal, the most frequently used term, may be defined as someone whose school has produced satisfying quantitative results, as measured by standardized assessments and/or high stakes state testing, such as the Ohio Achievement Test (OAT) and the Ohio Graduation Test (OGT), along with other criteria such as attendance and graduation rates, or even less often, qualitative measures and less concrete assessments such as community standing, leadership style, and the climate and culture of the school.

Better known as McREL (Marzano, 1998), the Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning’s research meta-analysis conclusion, after 30 years and 70 studies of 2,894 schools, approximately 1.1 million students and 14,000 teachers, was that there are 21 leadership responsibilities (Marzano et al., 2005; Miller, 2004; Waters & Grubb, 2004; Waters et al., 2003) that are significantly associated with student achievement: affirmation, change agent, contingent rewards, communication, culture, discipline, flexibility, focus, ideals or beliefs, input, intellectual stimulation, involvement in curriculum, instruction and assessment, knowledge of curriculum, monitoring and evaluation, optimizer, order, outreach, relationships, resources, and situational awareness and visibility that are significantly associated with student achievement, which Marzano et al. (2005) called a balanced leadership framework. This framework describes the diverse role, knowledge, skills, strategies, and tools school leaders need to positively impact student achievement.

Table 1. Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning Balanced Framework

Leadership responsibilities associated with higher student achievement

<u>Responsibilities:</u>	<u>Description: The extent to which the principal</u>
Affirmation	... recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures.
Change agent	... is willing to and actively challenges the status quo.
Communication	... establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and among stakeholders.
Contingent rewards	... recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.
Culture	... fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.
Curriculum, instruction, assessment	... is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
Discipline	... protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus.
Flexibility	... adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.
Focus	... establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention.
Ideals or beliefs	... communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.
Intellectual stimulation	... ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school's culture.

Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning Balanced Framework (continued)

Knowledge of curriculum, instruction assessment	... is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
Monitors and evaluates	... monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.
Optimizer	... inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.
Order	... establishes a set of standard operating principles and procedures.
Outreach	... is an advocate or spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.
Relationships	... demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.
Resources	... provides teachers with the material and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.
Situational awareness	... is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.
Visibility	... has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.

<http://www.mcrel.org/SuccessInSight>

A more user-friendly and detailed description can be found in the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996), the core standards used for principal preparation and course design, plus performance evaluations, which state:

Standard 1: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation,

implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

Standard 2: ... an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

Standard 3: ... an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Standard 4: ... an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

Standard 5: ... an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

Standard 6: ... an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). (1996, p.12)

In summation, the effective leader must have a strong personal sense of purpose and principles which define them (Covey, 1999; DuFour, 1998; Sergiovanni, 1996).

Haberman (2004, p.1) stated, ... the effective principal does not take 'no' for an answer. If there are no resources within the system, s/he seeks ways of reworking the budget

to generate the needed funds, or s/he generates resources from outside the system and becomes even less dependent on the central office.

In addition, Haberman (2000) stated, the effective leader of an urban poverty school accomplishes three basic goals: s/he creates a common vision; builds effective teams to implement that vision; and engenders commitment to task, (i.e., the persistent hard work needed to engender learning). This means that the effective principal does not conceive of him/herself as the representative of the central office down to those in the school but as the advocate for all the constituent groups in the school community upward. (p.1)

Education practitioners have made great professional effort to redesign the role of the school principal, from management to instructional leadership, and from school administrator to educational leadership practitioner (Burns, 1978). However, urban principals often operate as “functional foremen,” assisting workers and eliminating trouble and delays and unraveling matters which defy organization and challenge their commitment to making instructional quality the top priority of the school and attempting to bring the vision of success to realization (Burns, 1978; Phillips, 2003; Yukl, 1998); while responding to the demands of many entities, (central office administrators, community leaders, and parents with varying expectations). Yet principals are being held accountable for all aspects of the schools’ success as measured through student achievement (Kaba, 2001; Thompson & Kelly, 2001). Referring to Burns (1978), “At the building level, leadership resides mainly in the role of the principal, both as the official authority and the probable source for transformational leadership” (Carlin, 1992) and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1985). The role of the principal receives special attention

because it offers the single most immediate route to school reform.

The Principal and School Reform

Historically, America's efforts to educate its children have transformed the face of public education, by defining and re-defining the characteristics of what constitutes a necessary and/or a quality education. As a nation, Americans have moved from a society that offered the privilege of formal learning to an elite few, distinctively European-American males, through the church with the intent of providing religious and moral training through endowments to a nation which proposes access to a free equitable public education for all of its children. *Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537 (1896) and *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka*, 347 U.S. 483 (1954) argued the interpretation of the 14th amendment of the United States Constitution, which challenged the then Jim Crow Laws outlawing the intermingling of races and establishing a separate, but equal, system of educating America's children. Even as Jim Crow Laws provided a blatant system of racial separation in the South, a more clandestine system of exclusion existed in the northern states, producing similar results: poor attendance, low achievement, and high dropout rates. During the 1950s and 1960s, urban areas lost their attractiveness. Unemployment, poverty, and school desegregation led to white flight or middle class flight to the suburbs, which increased as businesses and industries closed, reducing job opportunities even more. Shopping malls and businesses began to develop on the outskirts of the city rather than downtown, leaving barren buildings at the city center and neglected neighborhoods surrounding them. As safer, larger, more attractive housing became more available to middle class families more suburban developments sprang up and so did new, more innovative schools (Boyd & Shouse, 1997)

Then the milestone Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, Title I- Improving the academic achievement of the disadvantaged, acknowledged that access alone may not be enough. Urban school buildings were deteriorating with aging buildings resembling industrial edifices and lacking maintenance. By the 1980s, urban student enrollment and achievement were down and families became more transient. Across the nation, school board politics and teachers' union relations were tense. Teacher layoffs and teachers strikes were common (Boyd & Shouse, 1997). Further school reform legislature was enacted based on the National Commission on Excellence in Education report (authorized in 1981), *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform* (1983). Then Secretary of Education, Terrell H. Bell's concern was for "the widespread public perception that something remained seriously amiss in our educational system" (p.1). The study examined six major concerns: "assessing the quality of teaching and learning in our nation's public and private schools, colleges, and universities; comparing American schools and colleges with those of other advanced nations; studying the relationship between college admissions requirements and student achievement in high schools; identifying educational programs which result in notable student success in college; assessing the degree to which major social and educational changes in the last quarter century have affected student achievement; and defining problems which must be faced and overcome if we are successfully to pursue the course of excellence in education" (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983, p. 5).

The Goals 2000: Educate America Act Pub. L. 103-227, adopted as the National Education Goals for the children of the United States of America on March 31, 1994,

provides federal support for local and state educational reform plans to achieve higher standards, increase parental participation, and improve teaching (Jasper,1998).

Finally, Public Law 107-110, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, the most recent effort and by far the most precise edict intending to insure the educational equity to even the poorest of America's children, those with challenging and special needs, those with limited English proficiency, and on a larger scale minority children. As the title suggests, this act intended to reform American public education and close the achievement gap between America's privileged and less fortunate, by placing demands that are more stringent on America's schools and creating a competitive market by allowing parents to transfer their children from failing schools to more effective schools. Focusing on curriculum and classroom instructional performance, education professionals now are held solely responsible for student achievement and publicly accountable for school success. School choice and supplemental academic alternatives serve as interventions and are key concepts, thereby changing the traditions of our nations approach to educating its children.

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) expands the federal government's role in elementary and secondary education. ... NCLB emphasizes accountability by making federal aid for schools conditional on those schools meeting academic standards and abiding by policies set by the federal government.

This new law sets strict requirements and deadlines for states to expand the scope and frequency of student testing, revamp their accountability system and guarantee that every classroom is staffed by a teacher qualified to teach in his

or her subject area. The NCLB requires states to improve the quality of their schools from year to year. The percentage of students proficient in reading and math must continue to grow and the test-score gap between advantage and disadvantaged students must narrow. The NCLB pushes state governments and educational systems to help low-achieving students in high poverty schools meet the same academic performance standards that apply to all students. (IED, 2003)

As a final point, in spite of integrating public schools the process of school reform has been misleading. Urban school districts are still those serving children of explicitly poor families of color (Weiner, Lutz, & Ludwig, 2009). According to Weiner et al. (2009), there are five characteristics of urban school districts; they serve a large number of students and are bureaucratically organized and persistently under-funded, and have groups identified as “voluntary minorities” (such as immigrants and English language learners) and “involuntary minorities” (such as oppressed socio-economic groups), together with demographics of extreme poverty and social problems. “Reformed education requires principals with vision who have the opportunity to communicate and infuse it” (Bass, 1985, p. 46).

Principal Turnover: The Problem with the Solution

Gusky (1960) referred to this significant event as a “succession crisis,” and rightly so. There has been rising indication of possible problems of school principal turnover, or the leadership succession crisis in many urban school districts, with the potential to undermine school improvement projects being the most obvious one. The standards movement and the NCLB agenda brought tremendous frustration for existing principals. In addition, the retirement of many “baby boomers” increased the turnover of school

principals, leaving a short supply of proficient, professional, and primed replacements (Brooking, Collins, Court, & O'Neill, 2003; Earley, Evans, Collarbone, Gold, & Halpin, 2002; Gronn & Rawling-Sanaei, 2003; Williams, 2001). In the United States, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, (Fink, 2006; Quinn, 2002) stated that "leadership succession, whether planned or unplanned, has become an accelerated and cumulative process that is including people of increasing levels of inexperience" (p. 62). Succession is no longer a periodic occurrence, rather it has become a chronic process (Fink, 2006). Citing the study of Fink and Brayman (2006) on the subject of the growing phenomena of urban school principal turnover in three of Ontario, Canada's urban schools, principal transitions have often given rise to problems, challenges, and upset for teachers and principals alike:

However, [this] study indicates that the accelerating turnover of principals, resulting from the aging of the baby boom generation, principals' mobility, and the pressures of the standardization agenda have created additional difficulties that threaten the sustainability of school improvement efforts and undermine the capacity of incoming and outgoing principals to lead their schools. On the basis of our cases, four major factors have made principal succession increasingly problematic. First, in recent years, the turnover of principals has accelerated at an ever-increasing rate. Although Talisman Park had six principals in its first 68 years, it had two thirds as many (four) in scarcely a sixth of the time (12 years). From 1970, Stewart Heights had just four principals in 28 years, then three in quick succession in the next five years. Outside the three cases of this article, Lord Byron High School... had four principals in its first 14 years after opening

in 1970, then just as many in the past five. These and other cases support the view that to bring about sustainable improvement, principals need sufficient time to negotiate or renegotiate an identity and acceptance within their school's community of practice (p. 62).

More to the point, Fink and Brayman (2006) acknowledge, that ... in almost all cases, rapid leadership transitions limited leaders' abilities to create and leave a lasting legacy. [The] data seriously questions the effectiveness of regular, rapid, and bureaucratically predictable principal rotation, especially in turbulent times. This "revolving door" principalship only breeds staff cynicism, which subverts long-term, sustainable improvement. Whether it is because of administrative rotation, mobility, premature retirements, the growing unpopularity of the principalship, or the difficulty of retaining leaders in urban schools, the practice of predictable frequent principal succession must be brought into serious question. In particular, the possibility should be explored of assigning the longest principal tenures (beyond the customary five years) to those schools that have just begun to achieve significant school wide success to ensure that improvement efforts endure. Otherwise, schools become like early flying machines—repeatedly crashing just after takeoff. (p. 22)

According to Weiner et al. (2009), public school systems are deteriorating under the pressure of internal and external demands for school reform. Over the last 40 years, the public support has been on a steady decline. "Capitalism as a social system is now unrivaled, and the ideology of 'the free market' as the best regulator of social activity is dominant. We have witnessed a tremendously increased role of business in school reform

as well as a heightened focus on the school-to-work connection” (Weiner et al. 2009, p. 59). Progressively, the urban school bureaucracy is corroding. Charter schools, networks of alternative schools, parochial, private, and “for-profit” corporation owned-and-operated schools now compete for urban students under school choice. Federal regulations, the standards movement, and high-stakes testing have only further insulated urban school districts (Weiner et al. 2009).

The solution for Ohio schools which continue to not meet the states standards of ‘effectiveness’ is, school choice or supplemental education services, reorganization or reconstitution, or replacing building leadership. “Coerced change in the principal,” as an effort to improve achievement through better leadership, may at the same time undercut the stability of the organization (Partlow, 2007). According to Rowan and Denk (1984), it was in the second year after a change in the principal that academic deficits begin to surface. They also stated that the socioeconomic makeup of the school influenced its response to principal turnover. “In schools with low proportions of students who receive

Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), the effects of succession on achievement were negative, but as the percentage of AFDC students in a school increased beyond 20%, succession effects on achievement turned positive. The findings indicate that changes in school leadership can affect basic skills achievement, but that leadership effects are slow to develop and are conditioned by the socioeconomic context of the school” (p. 517).

Partlow (2007) stated that “...principal turnover has been implicated as a factor that influences school reform. Organizational stability might create conditions more amenable to effective change and possibly an indirect factor favorable to student achievement”

(p.23). The suggestion that organizational stability, as with principal permanence is related to school improvement as measured through student achievement, is based on the belief that for reform to have an important effect, it must take place at the school level (Carlin, 1992; Fullan, 1991, 1993; Hall & Hord, 2001; Partlow, 2007). Leadership is frequently described as a correlation in effective schools research (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Carlin, 1992; Edmonds, 1979). It connects plainly to vision and expectations (Calin, 1992; Dantley, 1989).

Anchoring change takes time, and placement of principals that personify the new approach to school reform is crucial to transformation. A common mistake made by school boards is to continue old promotion and hiring practices. “Only teams with the right composition and sufficient trust among members can be highly effective under these new circumstances” (Kotter, 1996, p. 55). A decade of hard work can be undermined by one bad succession decision, usually made by district administrators who are not an integral part of the effort and have no practical understanding of the problem(s) (Kotter, 1996), so they overlook the culture. As previously stated, it is estimated that it takes five to seven years for entrenched reform at any school (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Partlow, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1994; Villa, Thousand, Meyers, & Nevin, 1996). But, according to the publication, *NCLB: Let's Get it Right!* (2006), the average tenure of an urban principal is less than 5 years.

The components of school reform as illustrated in Figure 1 are the central guidelines of building level administration. Contrarily, in urban settings, administrators often fail to remain long enough to witness sustained change.

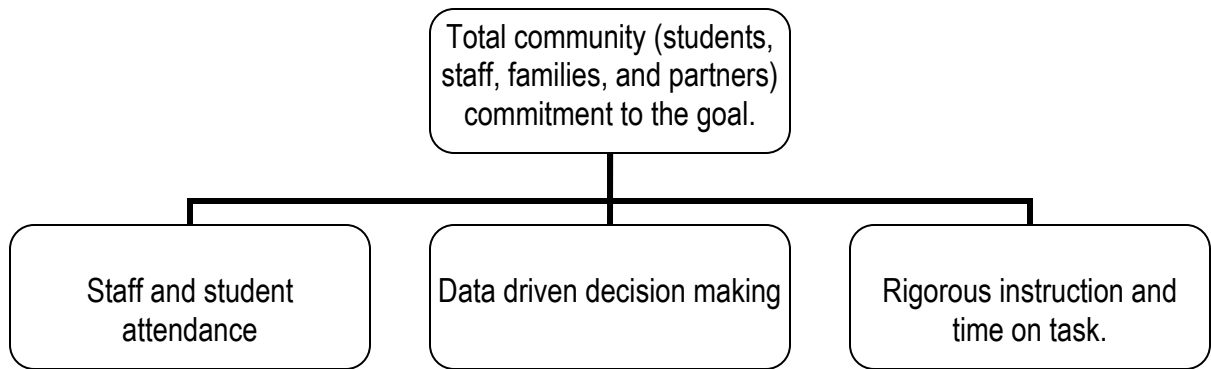


Figure 1. Whole school reform model.

Finally, Fink and Brayman's (2006) analysis of change in school leadership over time has not only exposed a great deal about leadership succession, but also illuminated transformations in leadership styles and the leaders themselves, along with others' perceptions of their position. In this characterization, leaders in the 1960s and 1970s were remembered as ambitious and heroic characters that took ownership of their schools, built relationships with those within the school, had a vested interest in the neighborhood they served, and stayed around long enough to make a long-lasting impression. In contrast, principals during the past decade are typically perceived as being more like nameless managers than distinctive leaders or even instructional leaders. They are less visible around the school and neighboring community and seem more dutiful to the central office agenda and their own careers rather than the needs of the students, teachers, and neighboring community, and are more of a passing presence in the school than a lasting influence on its growth. Even beyond these facts, as society changes and our ideas of neighborhood, and even family, are redefined, urban districts seemingly attempt to respond likewise, providing the superficial supportive and substantive resources as dictated by the community's demands (Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higarda, 2005; Rumberger, 1987). The principal is under the pressure of learning new behaviors and

shifting mind-sets, the pressure to make change stick, and the pressure to grow to the place where the organization will begin to say, “this is the way we do things around here” (Kotter, 1996). But, bureaucratically-aligned organizations tend to slow down new initiatives. Creating redundant conflict, provoking the workforce continuously, and sometimes covertly, oppressing sought-after change causes tension, failure, and harm to the community (Kotter, 1996). Communities become frustrated by the efforts associated with change, often demanding relief from the pressure of learning something new and different, contrary to the status quo, and opting for what is familiar and comfortable in spite of the faults. The external factors of politics and the media inspired social influences have also contributed to the changing face of school leadership (Ansolabehere, 1993; Hess, 1999; Patterson, 1994). Schools and their external stakeholders must develop focused relations with parents, confronting teachers about weakness and school leaders about desired programs; district school boards must engage the community in strategic planning; and secondary and post-high school institutions must partner with business. Organization restructuring depends on establishing new and redefining old role relationships. It is important that our customers’ (students, families, external community members, and policy makers) and even our employees’ perceptions and attitudes about urban school education change (Schmuck & Runkel, 1985) .

Taking a lesson from the business world, Kotter (1996) stated that some shortcomings to change are foreseeable; after all, whenever organizations are forced to alter their circumstances, it will be met with pain and opposition. He further suggested that organizations fail in the process of change by “allowing too much complacency, failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition, [failing to understanding] ...

the power of vision, under communicating the vision . . . , permitting obstacles to block the new vision, failing to create short-term wins, declaring victory too soon, and [finally], neglecting to anchor changes firmly in the [community] culture” (p. 16). These errors to reform are costly to slow-moving bureaucratic organizations in the new fast-paced, competitive market.

Principal succession cannot be thought inconsequential as it inadvertently changes the nature of school leadership. It is a rarity to find a principal that has been able to build powerful learning communities and empower teachers. Instead, increasing deterioration of the autonomy between the principal and teachers has forced more and more school leaders to lean on managerial strategies to achieve short-range shifts to meet the terms of standardized school reform, rather than instructional leadership to create an enduring culture of learning. Again, as data suggest, school leaders, when given time to empower others and have considerable autonomy with their school community, are able to establish goals and achieve meaningful school reform (Fink, 2006). When standardized mandates, like NCLB and the resulting reforms, are micromanaged by external authorities and prevent school-based or local inventiveness, they reduce school leaders to mere symbols of authority. Fink and Brayman’s (2006) study indicated that the frequent turnover of principals creates significant barriers to change. According to this study, if principals are viewed by teachers, parents, and students as temporary, functionary, interchangeable agents of authorities outside the school, then the kind of leadership required for long-term, sustained organizational change, powerful learning communities, and improvement of learning for all students will remain lacking.

Summary

In spite of the United States history of education reform over the past 50 years, urban schools continue to struggle in academic despair, as evident in the student achievement scores. As our nation transformed and middle-class families became more mobile and suburban sprawl trends developed, our major metropolitan areas lost businesses and employment opportunities, leaving aging schools and abandoned city centers to the urban poor.

Legislature such as the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform*, and the current *No Child Left Behind Act*, all acknowledge that access to education alone is not enough. Through these findings, additional funds and human resource were increased, along with earlier and extended opportunities for learning. Yet, even more so now than in the 1950s, urban students and children of poor families of color continue to lag behind. In combination with these, urban school districts struggle to attract and retain quality administrators to accept leadership in challenging work environments with the added detriment of the aforementioned overtly-prominent academic deficits. Unlike the 1950s when the school principal was a respected personality in the neighborhood, led the same school for many years, and often resided in the communities in where they worked, contemporary principals rarely have the advantage of establishing these types of relationships. Present-day school leaders who take on these urban challenges, seldom remain at the same school or in the same community for long, yet seem to possess special qualities of perseverance which gives them self-imposed virtual authority to act as Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of their buildings and prioritize the difficult tasks of educating the urban student.

Chapter III

This study compares the succession of urban principals within particular school districts in three of Ohio's major cities: Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo. It relies on the following information: years of service, licensure status, professional experience, gender, education, academic rating, and collective bargaining unit membership, as predictive indicators of individual principal movement. It isolates common factors of those moved over the last five years and utilizes the Ohio Department of Education (ODE) Educational Management Information System (EMIS) public access data base as the primary sources of information to respond to the question, "Is it the individual principal's attributes and nature of the employment relationship that affects the assignment decision making?"

Design

A data base was created categorizing all 307 schools of the Cincinnati Public Schools, Cleveland Municipal Schools, and Toledo City Schools. The schools were classified by type (elementary, middle, and high school) and by annual state report card ratings. According to the Ohio Department of Education's district classifications, all Ohio school districts are categorized into one of eight types; Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo school districts are identified as "5-major urban". The Ohio Department of Education describes major urban as a very high poverty district. Table 2 reveals the typology of Ohio schools. The variables used to determine the group ranking are as follows and reflect the community. The 2000 U. S. Census is the source for workforce, education level, and population density per square mile percentages.

Table 2 Ohio School Typology (excerpt) For Major Urban School Districts.

 5 Major Urban – very high poverty

This group of districts includes all of the six largest core cities and other urban districts that encompass major cities. Population densities are very high. The districts all have very high poverty rates and typically have a very high percentage of minority students.

N [school districts] =15,

Approximate total ADM [average daily membership] = 360,000.

Ohio Department of Education, EMIS

The Ohio Department of Taxation serves as the source for income facts. Then data pertaining to Disadvantaged Pupil Impact Aid (DPIA) calculations, a funding source formula which provides \$3700 per qualifying child, also derived from FY2004, measures the districts' poverty percentages. Lastly, the Ohio Department of Education's EMIS figures provide key school district records such as average daily attendance (also referred to as average daily membership, ADM) and social grouping statistics such as ethnicity and race.

The following tables (3-12) represent the social indicators for Cincinnati, Cleveland, Toledo as ranked among the nations 100 largest cities, based on the 1990 and 2000 United States Census Reports which undeniably illustrate the similarities for the purpose of this study. To better comprehend the magnitude of poverty, Table 3 illustrates that, when compared to the national distribution of the 100 largest cities in the United States in the year 2000, Cleveland ranked number 66. In other words, there were only 34 major U. S. cities ranked more deprived than Cleveland.

Table 3 Deprivation Index Ratings (by least).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank
Cincinnati	53	48
Cleveland	73	66
Toledo	41	23

Table 4 Population of Adults (age 25 and over) Without High School Diplomas.

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank
Cincinnati	23	30
Cleveland	3	8
Toledo	34	44

In the same vein, there were 70 cities which ranked higher than Cincinnati having more adults over 25 years of age with high school diplomas.

Table 5 Per Capita Income (by highest).

City	1990 Rank	1990 Income	2000 Rank	2000 Income	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	52	\$16,857	42	\$19,962	18.4%
Cleveland	82	\$12,439	80	\$14,291	14.9%
Toledo	62	\$15,980	64	\$17,388	8.8%

Table 6 Percentage of Families That Speak Another Language Other Than English.

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	16	8	24.50%
Cleveland	45	34	6.80%
Toledo	31	12	6.40%

Notice Cincinnati, 92 of the 100 cities compared, had fewer families who speak languages other than English. Cincinnati experienced a 24.50% increase in other language families from 1990 to 2000. This may be decoded into non-English speaking, dual-language speaking, and immigrant families. Furthermore, it may reflect an increase for the need to provide ELL (English Language Learners) services for the students of these families under the No Child Left Behind Act. According to Table 7, the 2000 U. S. Census data Toledo fared better than 54 of the 100 cities. And (Table 8) there are only 56 US major cities that placed better than Cincinnati. There were 24 cities which surpass Cleveland. Furthermore, 51 outdid Toledo.

Table 7 Poverty Rates (ranked by lowest).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	70	64	-10.00%
Cleveland	80	79	-8.40%
Toledo	51	46	-6.30%

Table 8 Unemployment Rates (ranked by lowest).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	48	44	-6.8%
Cleveland	80	76	-19.9%
Toledo	71	49	-22.3%

Table 9 Violent Crime Rates Per 100,000 Population (ranked by lowest).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	37	35	-0.3%
Cleveland	61	60	-0.3%
Toledo	29	30	-0.3%

Once more, based on violent crime data, Toledo experienced much less violence in 2000 than Cleveland. According to this data, there are only 29 major cities in the United States that are safer than Toledo.

Table 10 Percent of Total Births to Teens (Less than Age 20) (ranked by lowest).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Births	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	71	70	6178	-9.60%
Cleveland	77	76	8614	-9.90%
Toledo	61	47	5201	-16.20%

Table 11 Child Poverty Rates (ranked by lowest).

City	2000 Rank	1990 Rank
Cincinnati	68	72
Cleveland	79	80
Toledo	50	48

Table 12 Percent of Families Headed by Single Mothers (ranked by lowest).

City	1990 Rank	2000 Rank	Percentage of Change
Cincinnati	73	74	17.3%
Cleveland	74	79	19.1%
Toledo	49	55	22.8%

Toledo showed the greatest percentage increase in female-headed families, although they ranked lower by comparison to both Cincinnati and Cleveland.

Selecting the Schools to Study

Cincinnati Public School District, Cleveland Municipal School District, and Toledo City School District were chosen from Ohio's largest school districts, "the big eight": Akron, Canton, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo, and Youngstown because they represent slight variations from the urban public school norm. First of all, there are 612 local school districts in the state of Ohio. There are city school district superintendents, exempted village school district superintendents, local school district superintendents, and a municipal school district superintendent in the Cleveland school district. Local superintendents are appointed by local school boards. However, the

municipal school district superintendent in the Cleveland school district is appointed by the mayor of Cleveland (ECS, 2008). The Cleveland Municipal Schools have been under mayoral authority since 1998 following the district's failed 1994 compliance of a desegregation order and the federal decree. Then, in 2002, the citizens of Cleveland voted approval of continuance of a mayoral-led school system and mayoral-appointed governing board, rather than an elected school board as in the past. Cleveland joins other mayoral-led school districts such as Baltimore, Maryland; Boston, Massachusetts; Chicago, Illinois; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; Jackson, Mississippi; Los Angeles, California; New York, New York; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Providence, Rhode Island; and Washington, D.C., while a few other urban mayors are eager to take control as well (Crigger, 2002; Hess, 2008; Howell, 2005). To date, Cleveland has had two CEOs or superintendents approved and appointed by the city's mayor(s). In 1998, Barbara Byrd-Bennett (former regional superintendent of New York City Schools) was appointed by Mayor Michael White and she continued through the terms of Mayor Jane Campbell and Mayor Frank Jackson, until 2006. Eugene T. Sanders (former CEO of Toledo Public Schools) then followed and still serves as the Cleveland Municipal School District CEO. As an aside, Cleveland Municipal Schools had been the state of Ohio's largest school district until recently, when during this decade, Columbus City Schools, of the state's capital located in central Ohio, reported over 2,000 more students than Cleveland Municipal School District. Cleveland's student enrollment declined 38%, and Toledo Public Schools shrunk by 10%. While Cincinnati Public Schools experienced a 14% decrease from 2002 – 2007 as shown in Table 14.

Lastly, Cleveland Municipal School District principals have the opportunity to be a part of the Cleveland Council of Administrators and Supervisors (CCAS). This professional organization, though affiliated with the Ohio Association of Elementary School Administrators (OAESA), Ohio Association of Middle School Administrators (OAMSA), and the Ohio Association of Secondary School Administrators (OASSA), is not a recognized bargaining unit (or union) and has no collective bargaining and negotiation rights. Over the years, unionization of the CCAS has never moved beyond conversation. However, there is a memorandum of understanding (MOU) as a means of defining the professional relationship between the school board and central office.

Cincinnati Public Schools and Toledo City Schools were chosen as comparative groups, first because their combined number of schools and enrollment (see Tables 14 and 15) were comparable to Cleveland Municipal Schools on several demographic measures. And, like Cleveland, both districts have experienced changes in the superintendency over the period of this study. Beginning with Alton Fraily, the superintendent of the Cincinnati Public Schools from 2002 – 2004, following successes as assistant superintendent of the Spring Branch School District in Texas. Subsequently, Rosa E. Blackwell, a product of the Cincinnati Public Schools, worked her way through the ranks to be appointed the district's superintendent following Alton Fraily's unforeseen resignation. As stated earlier, Eugene T. Sanders led Toledo Public Schools from 2002–2005 before assuming the superintendency of Cleveland Municipal Schools. After that, John Foley, groomed by Toledo Public Schools, took the title. Likewise, both districts have very high poverty rates, are largely minority, and all of the urban idiosyncrasies as Cleveland, with two exceptions. First, Cincinnati Public Schools and

Toledo City Schools have traditional community-elected school boards and school board-appointed superintendents. And secondly, the major distinction relative to this study, the principals of these districts have the added benefit of membership to a professional association which provides distinct collective bargaining rights. The Cincinnati Association of Administrators and Supervisors (CAAS) are affiliated with the American Federation of School Administrators (AFSA) and the Toledo Association of Administrative Personnel and joined the United Automobile, Aerospace & Agricultural Implement Workers of America International Union (UAW), both of which are unions of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO). Another interesting aside which may or may not prove relevant is that all of the superintendents were formerly administrators in districts with collective bargaining rights for administrators.

Table 13 Number of District Schools. (EMIS 2007-2008)

District	Number of Schools
Cincinnati Public Schools	59
Cleveland Municipal Schools	112
Toledo City Schools	64

Table 14. Student enrollment

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Cincinnati Public Schools	39,173	37,708	35,995	35,839	35,382	33,881
Cleveland Municipal Schools	71,672	69,534	66,532	62,542	57,698	52,769
Toledo City Schools	36,408	34,570	32,952	31,359	29,157	27,984

Note. ADM student enrollment data from 2002-2003 thru 2006-2007 school years shows consistent enrollment decline as an additional unifier.

Procedures

The Ohio School Directories published by the Ohio Department of Education for each school year from 2002–2007 were used to obtain the names of each school, elementary, middle or junior high, and high school in each of the three districts, in addition to specialty schools, such as alternative (for at-risk students), career and vocational, magnets (theme-structured schools), and small (school-within-a-school) concept organized schools. This annually-published reference directory provides IRN (internal retrieval numbers, which serve as state identification numbers) codes for districts and schools, grade levels, enrollment, staffing, and names of principals and assistant principals at the time of EMIS (Ohio’s Education Management Information System) reporting.

Next, the Ohio Department of Education, SAFE (Secure Application for Enterprise portal), data account was accessed to obtain professional information such as date of first Ohio certification, certification and licensure specialties, state identification numbers, school assignments, and birthdates. This site also provides Bureau of Criminal Identification (BCI) and Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) information, status, college or university attended, and current assignments. It is important to note that this site is only accessible to registered users (such as this researcher). Then, the Ohio Department of Education, iLRC (interactive Local Report Card), data reporting system was used to obtain district and individual school report card ratings, based on state student test outcomes and state standards met. Numeric assignments were given from 1-6

for report card scores beginning with 1-Excellent with distinction (the most desirable rating), 2-Excellent, 3-Effective, 4-Continuous Improvement, 5-Academic Watch, and 6-Academic Emergency (the least desirable rating). The assignments for schools were 1-Elementary, 2-Middle, and 3-High School. Numeric interpretations were then given to gender, certification, and district membership.

Data Analyses

Exactly 1255 entries were made for each principal employed between 2000–2007 in Cincinnati Public Schools, Cleveland Municipal Schools, and Toledo Public Schools. The first sample consisted of a list of principals whose names appeared twice consecutively at any time during the five-year period. This produced 276 cases. This initial sample was not large enough, so gradually additional sample groups were created to increase the data pool. Groupings of those whose names appeared only once at any given school, producing those whose names occurred three times at a school, then those yielding four, and eventually those who remained at the same school for all five years. Simultaneously, the Ohio state license numbers, birthdates, credentials, and date of first certification were also noted for 366 principal (see Table 15).

The smallest and final groups were those without a principal assigned and those with inconsistencies, such as cases where new names of schools surfaced with existing IRN building codes formerly assigned to other schools and the schools disappeared and, then reappeared, from year to year. It became much more reliable to use building IRN numbers than formal names.

The analysis began by examining the frequencies of movement within each school district and the trajectory of principals who led schools which produced

achievement scores that were better, equal to, or worst than their district's overall scores. Then Cleveland was compared and contrasted with the combined results of Cincinnati and Toledo. Cincinnati and Toledo were coupled to construct a sample size analogous to that of Cleveland.

Table 15 Principal Data Sample.

Last name	Turner
First name	Susan Ann
ID#	CU1019061
Birth date	10.12.56
Age	52
Gender	1 (female)
First Ohio Cert	1980
Certification or licensure	Elementary teaching 1 (yes)
	High school teaching 2 (no)
	Elementary principal 3 (yes)
	Middle school principal 4 (yes)
	High school principal 5 (yes)
	Assistant superintendent 6 (no)
	Superintendent 7 (yes)
	School counselor 8 (yes)
	Supervisor 9 (yes)
	Other 10 (no)
District	2 (Cleveland)
District IRN	043786
Year	2007
District report card rating	5 (Academic Watch)
School	Rolling Hills
Grade level	Elementary
School IRN	987563
School report card	4 (Continuous Improvement)

Overall, Ohio state report card ratings were compared with the expectation of identifying a correlation between low rating scores and principal turnover, and then high ratings scores and principal turnover. Where stability was identified, correlations were tested to identify the link between union membership and non-union membership, along with the relationship of successful outcomes.

Summary

Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Toledo are merely a fractional glimpse of the nationwide portrait of America's urban schools. Chapter 3 presented data driven facts depicting the social indications of each city. These deepen understanding of the magnanimous predicament of urban school leadership, as school leaders respond to the issues surrounding and ultimately affecting their schools. Clearly, urban school districts are manifesting, at great depth, the cyclical symptoms of economic deprivation in these communities of children of poor families continuing not to be educated adequately, thereby further perpetuating the generational indications of poverty. Yet, having the same in some cases, and closely similar demographics in others, the Cleveland Municipal School District's organizational design is a contrast to Cincinnati Public Schools and Toledo Public Schools.

CHAPTER IV

The purpose of this non-experimental study was to examine the relationship between organizational characteristics, principal attributes, and principal turnover in elementary, middle and high schools. The purpose of this chapter is to present the data analysis findings in order to address the following research hypotheses:

H₁: Principals of effective schools are moved more frequently.

H₂: Mid-career principals are moved more frequently.

H₃: Female principals experience turn-over more frequently.

H₄: Principals having collective bargaining unit membership are moved less frequently.

This chapter consists of four major sections which include a descriptive summary of the characteristics of the principals in the study and the research variables, a description of the data analysis procedures used, a discussion of the results for each research hypothesis, and a summary section based on the overall findings of the study.

Descriptive Summary of Research Sample and Research Variables

Data was extracted from a sample of principals from three districts over a five-year duration beginning in 2003 and ending in 2007. The majority of the principals included in this study had multiple data points given that they served as a principal in one or more schools over the five-year study period. For example, if a principal served for the entire five years of the study, regardless of the school, that particular principal was associated with five data points, one school rating per year. Therefore, this study focuses on both the principal and the school.

The analyses conducted for this study were based on five years of data resulting in a total of 1154 observations, of which 366 principals and 307 schools were represented. The gender composition of the sample, which is summarized in Table 16, indicates that the majority of the principals in this sample were female (65.3%).

Table 16 Gender Composition of Research Sample

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	239	65.3
Male	127	34.7

The dates when principals received certification ranged from 1967 to 2007, although not all of the principals had data for this variable. Of the 339 principals for which the year of certification data was available, the mean number of years in the field was 23.37 years, with a standard deviation of 10.02 years (see Table 17). Furthermore, the number of years ranged from as few as zero years (certified in 2007) to as many as 40 years (certified in 1967).

Table 17 Descriptive Statistics: Number of Years Since Certification

Variable	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
	339	0	40	24.37	10.02

The next variable summarized was level (elementary, middle, or high). However, since the school level for any given principal could change depending on the academic year, the number and percentage of principals in each of the school levels per academic year were examined. Table 18 provides a descriptive summary of the results, which

indicates that the principals in this study were most likely to be from elementary schools followed by high schools and finally middle schools, regardless of the academic year at the school.

Table 18 Level of Research Sample by Year

Academic year	Frequency within year	Percentage within year
2003	252	100.0
Elementary	177	70.2
Middle	24	9.6
High	51	20.2
2004	251	100.0
Elementary	183	72.9
Middle	22	8.8
High	46	18.3
2005	218	100.0
Elementary	168	77.1
Middle	11	5.0
High	39	17.9
2006	217	100.0
Elementary	161	74.2
Middle	9	4.1
High	47	21.7
2007	216	100.0
Elementary	164	75.9
Middle	8	3.7
High	44	20.4

The data regarding the principals' positions held are summarized in Table 19.

Table 19 indicates that data was missing for 12 principals with regard to whether or not they had experience as an assistant superintendent, a superintendent, a counselor and/or a supervisor. In all cases, the majority of the principals had a response of "no" indicating that they had not held the position at any time in the past. The most common position within the sample was supervisor (23.5%) and the least common was counselor (4.6%).

Table 19 Job Position Experiences of Research Sample

Position	Frequency within position	Percentage within position
Asst. superintendent	366	100.0
No	307	83.9
Yes	47	12.8
Missing	12	3.3
Superintendent	366	100.0
No	294	80.3
Yes	60	16.4
Missing	12	3.3
Counselor	366	100.0
No	337	92.1
Yes	17	4.6
Missing	12	3.3
Supervisor	366	100.0
No	268	73.2
Yes	86	23.5
Missing	12	3.3

The number and percentage of principals with collective bargaining unit membership is summarized in Table 20. The results indicate that a small majority had collective bargaining unit membership (54.1%).

Table 20 Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Summary for Research Sample

Bargaining unit membership	Frequency	Percentage
No	168	45.9
Yes	198	54.1

The descriptive summary, based on the number and percentage of the principals in the research sample who were defined as a mid-career principal (e.g., between 11 and 19 years since certification) is presented in Table 21. The results in Table 21 indicate that 7.4% of the principals did not have data available for this variable. Also, a large majority were not classified as mid-career principals (68.3%), resulting in approximately 25% who were defined as mid-career principals.

Table 21 Mid-Career Summary of Research Sample

Mid-career principal	Frequency	Percentage
No	250	68.3
Yes	89	24.3
Missing	27	7.4

The last principal level variable summarized was the number of years serving as principal. The results in Table 22 indicate that the range was one year to five years with

the mean being 2.56 years. Therefore, on average, the principals in this research sample tended not to last three years or more.

Table 22 Descriptive Statistics: Number of Years Serving as Principal

Variable	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
	366	1	5	2.56	1.40

A descriptive summary of the research variables at the aggregate school level is provided in Table 23. With regard to the school rating variable, the rating scale was as follows: (1) excellent with distinction, (2) excellent, (3) effective, (4) continuous improvement, (5) academic watch, and (6) academic emergency. Also, it is important to note that mean values in Table 23 differ from the principal means represented in Table 22 because the principal means were aggregated to the principal level while the school means were aggregated to the school.

The descriptive statistics in Table 23 indicate that the schools tended to have ratings at the continuous improvement level to the academic watch level, given a mean rating of 4.65. Also, none of the schools was rated as “excellent with distinction”.

Approximately 30% of the schools had a mid-career principal at some point.

Approximately 54% of the schools had a female principal at some point. Approximately 67% of the schools had a principal with collective bargaining unit membership at some point. Finally, the average number of years that a principal was retained at the school was 2.84 years.

Table 23 Descriptive Statistics: School Ratings of Level of Effectiveness

Variable	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
School rating	306	2	6	4.65	0.93
Percentage mid-career	307	0	1	0.30	0.40
Percentage female	307	0	1	0.54	0.50
Percentage bargaining unit	307	0	1	0.67	0.42
Years principal retained	307	1	5	2.84	1.37

Data Analysis Procedures

This section of the chapter provides an outline of the data manipulation and analysis procedures. The raw data were extracted and compiled in an Excel file. The data were uploaded into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Predictive Analytics and checked for accuracy by conducting some preliminary analyses such as frequency distributions, minimum values, and maximum values. Once the data were cleaned, two additional files were created by (1) aggregating to the principal level in order to compute accurate demographic summaries of the principals represented in the study, and (2) aggregating to the principal by school level for hypothesis testing. Finally, two new variables were created. The first variable was created by taking the CCR (career beginning) year and subtracting it from 2007 in order to compute the number of years in the field. The second variable was created to classify the principal as a mid-career principal or not. Principals with between 11 and 19 years since certification were categorized as mid-career principals while those with 10 years or less and 20 years or more were not considered to be mid-career principals.

The primary research variables were summarized descriptively prior to hypothesis testing. The categorical research variables were summarized using frequency distributions while the scaled research variables were summarized using means and standard deviations. The descriptive summaries for the principals and the schools were presented in the previous section of this chapter. All of the hypothesis tests were conducted based on the aggregated principal data at the school level. Therefore, each principal had one data point associated with each school that he or she ran from 2003 through 2007.

Research hypothesis one was analyzed by examining the association between the mean school effective ratings and the principals' numbers of years at the school (e.g., higher values reflect fewer moves). Regression analysis was used to test this research hypothesis given that both the independent variable and the dependent variable were scaled (Creswell, 2005; Cronk, 2008). Specifically, the school's rating was included as the independent variable and the number of years at the school was included as the dependent variable. The statistical assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (constant error variance) were tested and reported. Statistical significance was determined by an alpha of .05.

Research hypothesis two was analyzed by comparing mid-career principals to non mid-career principals with regard to their mean number of years as principal at the school(s) using the independent samples *t*-test. The independent samples *t*-test was used given that the independent variable was categorical with two levels and the dependent variable scaled (Creswell, 2005; Cronk, 2008). The statistical assumption of homogeneity

of variance was tested and reported. Statistical significance was determined by an alpha of .05.

Research hypothesis three was analyzed by comparing female principals to male principals with regard to their mean number of years as principal at the school(s) using the independent samples *t*-test. The independent samples *t*-test was used given that the independent variable was categorical with two levels and the dependent variable scaled (Creswell, 2005; Cronk, 2008). The statistical assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and reported. Statistical significance was determined by an alpha of .05.

Research hypothesis four was analyzed by comparing principals with collective bargaining unit membership to principals without collective bargaining unit membership with regard to their mean number of years as principal at the school(s) using the independent samples *t*-test. The independent samples *t*-test was used given that the independent variable was categorical with two levels and the dependent variable scaled (Creswell, 2005; Cronk, 2008). The statistical assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and reported. Statistical significance was determined by an alpha of .05.

Results

The data analysis results for each research hypothesis are presented in this section of the chapter. In addition, the decision to retain or reject the research hypothesis was made based on the statistical significance value obtained. Significance values ($p \leq .05$) indicate that a statistically significant result has been obtained while significance values ($p > .05$) indicate that no statistically significant result has been found.

Research Hypothesis One. The first research hypothesis states that principals of effective schools are moved more frequently. Therefore, in order to address this research

hypothesis, a regression analysis was conducted whereby the school ratings were included as the predictor (independent) variable and the number of years that the principal was retained at the school was included as a predicted (dependent) variable.

A scatter plot of the standardized predicted values by the standardized residual values is presented in Figure 2. The scatter plot was used to assess the statistical assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

The scatter plot in Figure 2 indicates that there was no linearity or normality violation. Linearity was established given that the line of best fit through the center of the data points was a straight line. Normality was not violated given that the data points were not clustered near the top or the bottom of the scatter plot. However, there was a violation of the homoscedasticity assumption, given that the data points were not perfectly centered (left to right); although the heaviest concentration of the data points (darker outlined stars) was near the center of the scatter plot; therefore, the violation appears minor (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005) and was not considered to be a serious violation.

The results from the regression analysis are provided in Table 24. The results indicate that the school's rating was not a statistically significant predictor of the number of years that the principal stayed at the school ($\beta = -.058, p = .205$) with less than 1% of the variability in the principals' number of years explained by the schools' ratings. The negative association, although not statistically significant, indicates that higher school ratings (e.g., lower effectiveness) were associated with lower retention as measured by the number of years that the principal stayed at the school. Therefore, the results for

research hypothesis one indicate that the research hypothesis was not supported given that no statistically significant relationship was detected and given that higher

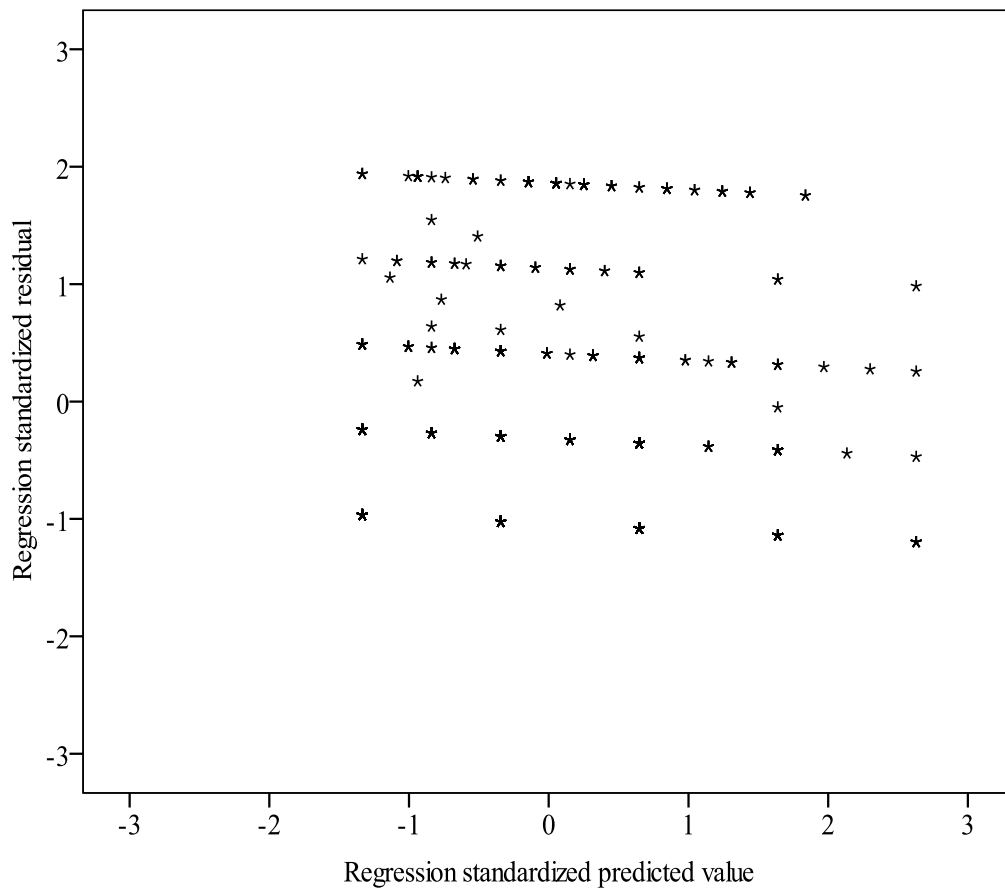


Figure 2. Scatter Plot: Standardized Predicted and Residual Values: Hypothesis One.

effectiveness was associated with better principal retention (e.g., fewer moves). Since the research hypothesis was not supported, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 24 Regression Results: School Ratings Predicting Number of Years at School

Variable	β	SE β	t	p
School rating	-0.079	0.062	-0.058	0.205

Research Hypothesis Two. The second research hypothesis states that mid-career principals are moved more frequently. In order to address this research hypothesis, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted where the principals' mid-career status was the independent variable and the number of years that the principal stayed at the school was the dependent variable.

Table 25 provides the group means, standard deviations, and standard errors. The results in Table 25 indicate that the principals in the non mid-career group had a higher mean than did the principals in the mid-career group (2.534 and 2.167, respectively). Therefore, the mid-career principals in this study tended to move more frequently given that they had a lower mean number of years at their school. However, in order to determine if the difference between the two groups was statistically significant, and if the difference detected is a reliable difference, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted.

Table 25 Group Means: Mid-Career Status Comparisons

Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error
Mid-career: no	325	2.534	1.422	0.079
Mid-career: yes	158	2.167	1.246	0.099

The results from the independent samples *t*-test in Table 26 indicate that the groups did not have equal variances ($F = 10.368, p = .001$); therefore, the results based on unequal variances must be used. The results also indicate that the two groups were statistically significantly different with regard to their mean number of years at the school [$t(350.73) = 2.896, p = .004$]. Finally, the 95% confidence interval (CI) indicates that the

true mean difference between the two groups could be as small as 0.106 years to as large as 0.628 years.

Table 26 Independent Samples *t*-Test: Mid-Career Status Comparisons

	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	10.368	0.001	2.767	481	0.006	0.106	0.628
Unequal variances			2.896	350.73	0.004	0.118	0.616

Figure 3 shows the group means broken down by year. The results indicate that the two groups (mid-career and non mid-career) principals had similar profiles from 2003 to 2007, with the mid-career principals having a lower mean number of years at the school.

The results for research hypothesis two indicate that mid-career principals were moved more frequently than non-mid career principals and therefore the research hypothesis was empirically supported and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research Hypothesis Three. The third research hypothesis states that female principals are moved more frequently. In order to address this research hypothesis, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted where the principals gender was the independent variable and the number of years that the principal stayed at the school was the dependent variable.

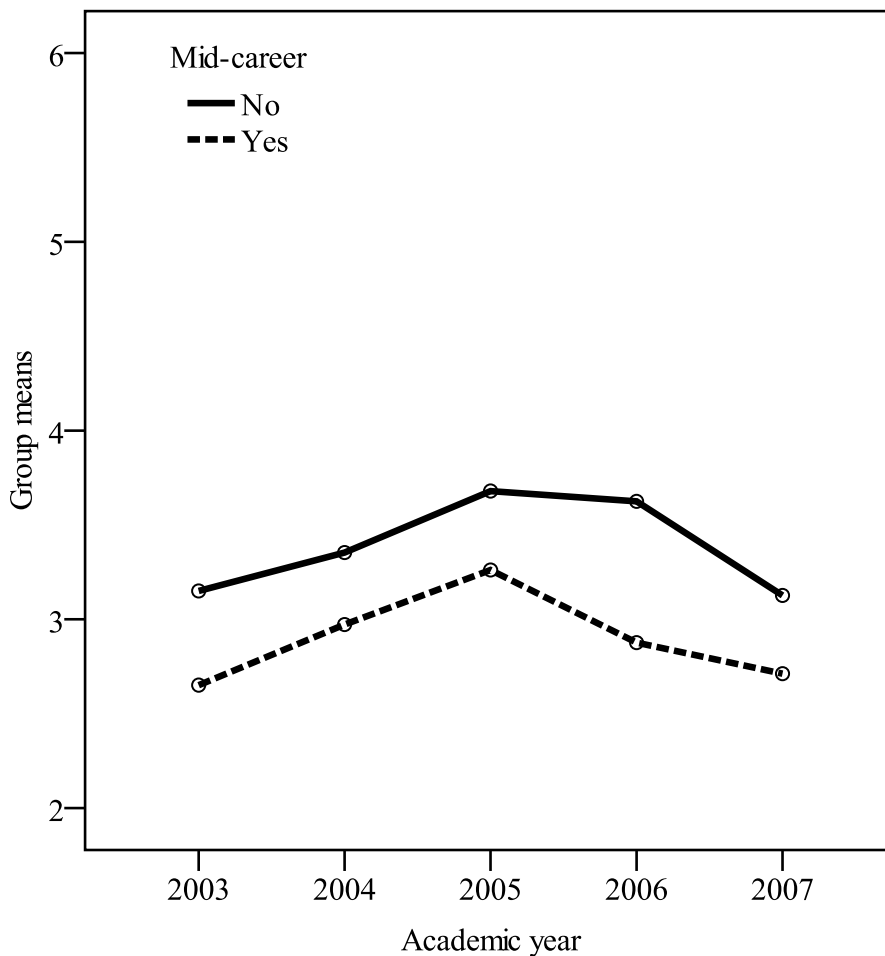


Figure 3. Group Mean Comparisons: Mid-career Principals vs. Non Mid-career Principals

Table 27 provides the group means, standard deviations and standard errors. The results in Table 27 indicate that the male principals had a very slightly lower mean than did the female principals (2.414 and 2.428, respectively). Also, the male sample had a slightly larger standard deviation despite a smaller sample size, which indicates that there was more variability in the male group with regard to the degree to which they move throughout the system (1.410 and 1.365, respectively). Therefore, male principals in this study tended to move more frequently, given that they had a lower mean number of years

at their schools, and they tended to have more variability within their respective group than the female principals. However, in order to determine if the difference between the two groups was statistically significant; therefore, if the difference detected is a reliable difference, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted.

Table 27 Group Means: Female vs. Male Comparisons

Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error
Male	160	2.414	1.410	0.111
Female	326	2.428	1.365	0.076

The results from the independent samples *t*-test in Table 28 indicate that the two groups had statistically equivalent variances ($F = 0.481, p = .488$); therefore, the results based on equal variances must be used. The results also indicate that the two groups were not statistically significantly different with regard to their mean number of years at the school [$t(484) = -0.104, p = .917$]. Finally, the 95% confidence interval indicates that the true female mean could really be 0.276 years higher than the male mean. However, the true male mean could really be 0.248 years higher than the female mean in the overall population. In other words, when taking the margin of error into consideration, the two groups could be the same in the overall population, females could have a larger mean in the overall population or males could have a larger mean in the overall population.

Figure 4 shows the group means broken down by year. The results indicate that the male and female principals had overlapping profiles from 2003 to 2007 in that both groups were equally likely to stay at (or move from) their schools.

Table 28 Independent Samples *t*-Test: Female vs. Male Comparisons

	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	0.481	0.488	-0.104	484	0.917	-0.276	0.248
Unequal variances			-0.103	307.07	0.918	-0.279	0.251

The results for research hypothesis three indicate that female principals did not experience more turn-over than male principals since the two groups had a statistically equivalent mean number of years in which they stayed at a given school. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Research Hypothesis Four. The fourth research hypothesis states that principals having collective bargaining unit membership are moved less frequently. In order to address this research hypothesis, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted where the principals collective bargaining unit membership status was the independent variable and the number of years that the principal stayed at the school was the dependent variable.

Table 29 provides the group means, standard deviations and standard errors. The results in Table 29 indicate that the principals without collective bargaining unit membership had a lower mean than did the principals with collective bargaining unit membership (2.274 and 2.566, respectively). Therefore, the principals with collective bargaining unit membership in this study tended to move less frequently given that they had a higher mean number of years at their school. However, in order to determine if the difference between the two groups was statistically significant and therefore if the difference detected is a reliable difference, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted.

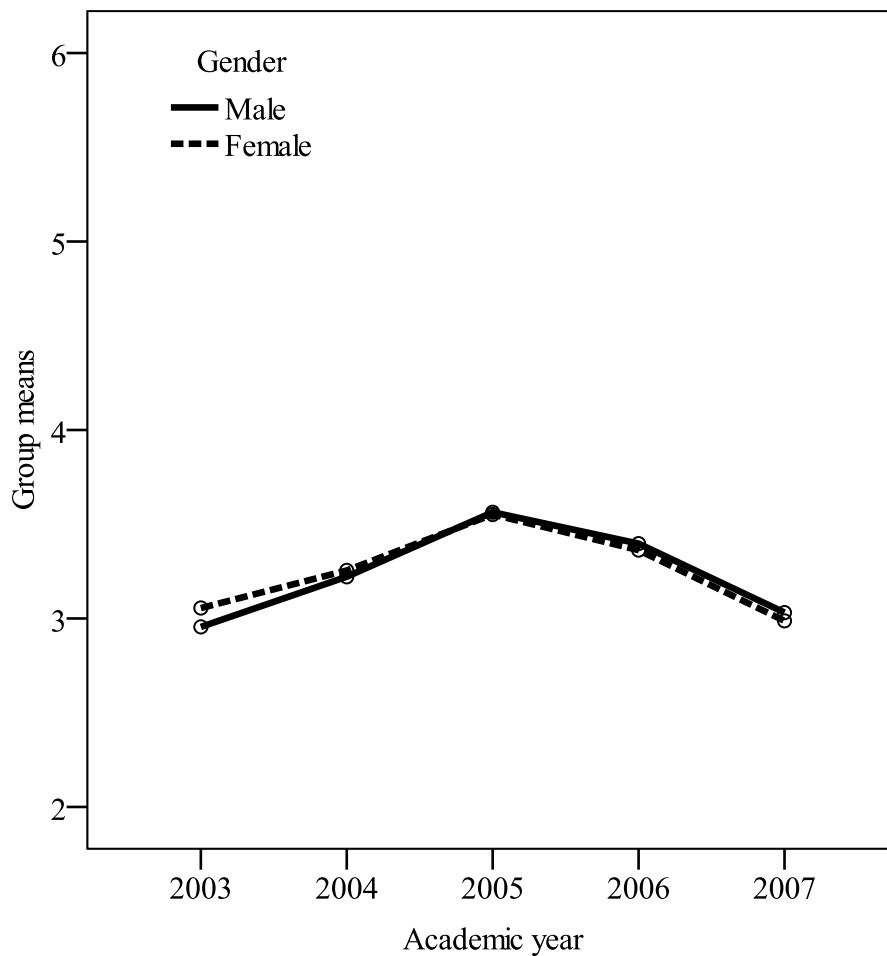


Figure 4. Group Mean Comparisons: Female Principals vs. Male Principals

Table 29 Group Means: Female vs. Male Comparisons

Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error
Bargaining unit: no	238	2.274	1.301	0.084
Bargaining unit: yes	248	2.566	1.437	0.091

The results from the independent samples *t*-test in Table 15 indicate that the two groups had unequal variances ($F = 6.111, p = .014$); therefore, the results based on

unequal variances must be used. The results also indicate that the two groups were statistically significantly different with regard to their mean number of years at the school [$t(482.37) = -2.353, p = .019$]. Finally, the 95% confidence interval indicates that the true mean difference between the groups could be as small as 0.048 years to as large as 0.536 years.

Table 30 Independent Samples *t*-Test: Collective Bargaining Unit Membership

Comparisons

	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Equal variances	6.111	0.014	-2.349	484	0.019	-0.537	-0.048
Unequal variances			-2.353	482.37	0.019	-0.536	-0.048

Figure 5 shows the group means broken down by year. The results indicate that the two groups had very similar profiles with the principals who had collective bargaining unit membership having a higher mean number of years at their school, regardless of the year.

The results for research hypothesis four indicate that principals with collective bargaining unit membership were moved less frequently than principals without collective bargaining unit membership; therefore, the research hypothesis was empirically supported and the null hypothesis was rejected.

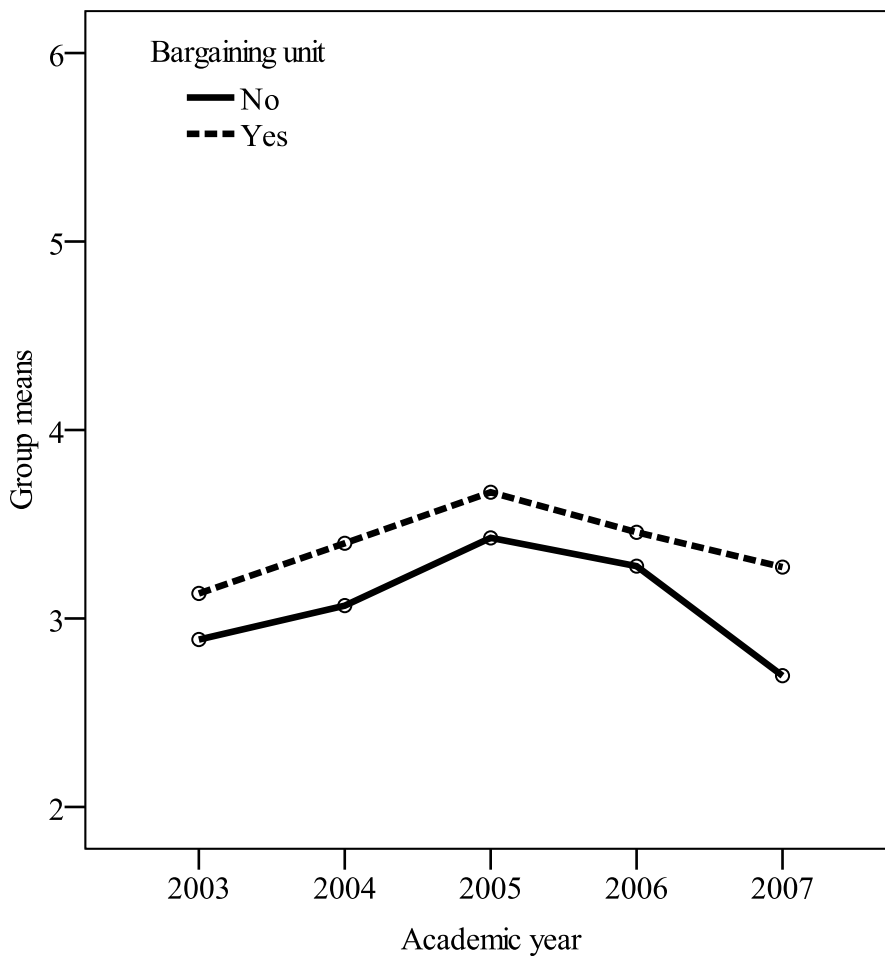


Figure 5. Group Mean Comparisons: Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Principals vs. Non Collective Bargaining Unit Membership Principals

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of (1) school effectiveness, (2) being a mid-career principal, (3) principal gender, and (4) principal collective bargaining unit membership on the degree to which principals move from one school to another (e.g., retention of principals as measured by their number of years at a given school). Since the same principal was represented repeatedly for a given school if the principal stayed for more than one year during the 2003 to 2007 time frame, the data

were aggregated to the principal and the school level. Therefore, the results of this study were based on a total of 366 principals from a total of 307 schools, resulting in 486 unique data points for the hypothesis testing phase of the study.

The results of this study indicated that the level of school effectiveness and the gender of the principal were not significantly related to the degree to which principals moved throughout the system. However, mid-career status and collective bargaining unit membership status were significantly related to the degree to which principals moved throughout the system. Specifically, mid-career principals moved more frequently than did non mid-career principals, and principals with collective bargaining unit membership moved less frequently than principals without collective bargaining unit membership. These relationships persisted across all five years examined (2003 through 2007).

This chapter presented the data analysis results and addressed each research hypothesis. Chapter 5 will discuss these findings with regard to their relevance to and consistency with the pre-existing literature, and with regard to their practical implications for administrators and educators. Finally, recommendations for future research will be provided.

CHAPTER V

The purpose of Chapter 5 is to discuss general ideas, common themes, and patterns of this study given the four research hypotheses:

H₁: Principals of effective schools are moved more frequently.

H₂: Mid-career principals are moved more frequently.

H₃: Female principals experience turn-over more frequently.

H₄: Principals having collective bargaining unit membership are moved less frequently.

Summary

The assumption relating gender or principal's effectiveness and success to turnover was disproved. In other words, both female principals and principals of effective schools are not moved more frequently. On the other hand, the data presented supports the premise that mid-career principals experience frequent turnover and those principals having collective bargaining membership are moved less often. Furthermore, although all three school districts have similar demographics and social indicators, academically Cleveland schools continuously ranked lower than both Cincinnati and Toledo schools as measured by the Ohio School Report Card. Over the 2002–2007 school years, Cleveland Municipal School District averaged an Academic Watch status, while Cincinnati Public Schools ranked just above with an averaged Continuous Improvement category and Toledo Public School's slightly better with a grade which fell midway between Effective and Continuous Improvement classifications.

Discussion

What is the rationale for the practice of moving mid-career principals and non-union principals more often than others? Mid-career principals are those who are established, but have many more working years remaining. They are the group of professionals who have honed their craft, are moving from skilled to expert, and have much to share from their experiences (Evans, 1996).

According to Ohio's State Teacher's Retirement System, the average years of professional service in education is 31.3, and the average age at retirement for an Ohio principal is 58 years old. Given these numbers, mid-career may be at or about 15-16 years of career experience in education and approximately 42-45 years of age. This group is experienced and confident in their abilities. They have developed networking potential, having developed relationships with other professionals over the years. At this stage in educators' lives, they are usually making retirement plans and sometimes making the transition to administration as a means of increasing earning potential (Evans, 1996; Fenwick, 2002; Neugarten, 1975).

Paralleling with mid-career is the phenomenon of middle-age. Middle-age is the time when one's children are adults, or have become more independent. (Neugarten, 1975) The U.S. Census Bureau (2000) lists middle-age as including both age categories 35-44 and 45-54. In Erickson's study of developmental stages, he identified the period "middle adulthood," and defines it as between 40-65 (Levinson, 1986). This group of professionals may also be described as "empty nesters," no longer caring for children at home; (Rossi, 1980; Srivastava & Oliver, 2003) or the "sandwich generation," balancing

responsibilities for raising adolescent children as well as maturing parents, often with health concerns.

Another pivotal life change is the death of a spouse, separation, or divorce which also seem to occur most often during the middle-age years, and are strong motivators for reentry into the workforce (Levinson, 1986). Given these circumstances, the principalship may be an attractive avenue for a more rewarding and lucrative salary.

Traditionally, school principals had been those who have risen through the ranks and paid their dues, so to speak, following having spent a considerable amount of time as a classroom teacher. For female leaders especially, the trend seemed to suggest that leadership roles were pursued after child-bearing and child-rearing (Pitt-Catsouphes, 2004; Whittington, 2000). Even still, in the United States, the female is still the primary caregiver for children, and usually the parent most likely to put her career on hold. Some choose to resume their career when children are school-aged and others when children leave the home or when the empty-nest stage arrives. Even more, working mothers balancing the demand of work and family may choose administration as children approach adolescence, rather than during the early childhood and elementary years (Moya, Exposito, & Ruiz, 2000; White, 1995).

the mid-career principals professional and life experience, often displays a motivating confidence and commitment for their work, and take on interpersonal relationships with subordinates much like coaching and mentorship and have developed the social skills which allow them to navigate the political arena with ease. According to Gabarro (1987), an urban principal may have had 6-8 change experiences during his or

her career. The practical knowledge and vast references to past practices of these principals is inestimable.

Then again, according to the Fordham University teachers' labor agreement study, the Cleveland Municipal School District was ranked one of the least principal-friendly districts out of the 50 largest urban school districts in the nation. The study further concluded that school leaders in the Cleveland Municipal School District needed flexibility to lead strong teams (Hess & Loub, 2008). When principals no longer have the autonomy of cooperative planning, staff recruitment and hiring, district professional development, textbook selection, curriculum design, policy making, and more, collegial respect and trust is threatened (Kaba, 2001; Lipman, 1998; Mizell, 2001; Vann, 2006). A justified side effect is that central office relationships with building-level administrators become stressed. Urban principals tend not to be representatives of central office, but middle management instead, carrying out directives of upper-level superiors and having little or no participation in the decision-making process. They are caught in the middle with subordinates who tend to be reluctant to submitting to leadership authority and respect, or look for confirmation and or consent from their union chairperson. It is here that contracts or collective bargaining agreements would serve as a stabilizer, even when the leadership changes, the administrative and supervisory associations would guarantee a standard of normalcy (Hess & Loub, 2008).

It follows that, as school reform and the free market system (vouchers, school choice, privatization, high-stakes testing, etc.) threatens the traditions of public education that to a greater extent professionals are seeking protection and job security as collective bargaining units. Prior to 1970 few such [school administrator] units existed in this

country; almost seven years later approximately 1275 units are sitting on the opposite side of the bargaining table from boards of education. At least 300 of these units have negotiated written agreements in an effort to reduce their vulnerability to boards of education and pressure groups” (Cooper, 1976, p 202).

Professional associations bring professional solidarity and the added career services of collective bargaining, legal counsel, contract negotiations and enforcement, over and above insurances and other group benefits. National associations such as the National Education Association (NEA) founded in 1857 originally represented school administrators and supervisors, along with higher education personnel. NEA currently opens membership to administrators employed by public school districts. Active public school administrator members can serve as voting delegates to the representative assembly and hold elected and appointed positions in the association. However, the Ohio affiliate, Ohio Educational Association (OEA), excludes school administrators.

The American Federation of School Administrators (AFSA) like the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) founded in 1976, is under the AFL-CIO collection of unions, and is only the second group of employees to be given union status since 1955. The only national education union exclusively for school administrators, AFSA provides labor relations, professional, and occupational services to public school principals, vice principals, administrators, and supervisors in diverse school districts across our nation, in Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands (Cooper, 1976, p 202).

Collective bargaining agreements are clear-cut contracts between a labor union membership and its employer. These contracts are periodically renegotiated and intended to serve not only as a conduit for job security, but for stability of working conditions as

well. As aforementioned, Cleveland Municipal School principals are not collective bargaining members, but it seems that another absent element of their relationship with central office and the school board is trust. Bryk and Schneider (2002) affirm that without connectedness through trust the academic community has little chance of improving (Gewertz, 2002). Quoting Covey (2006), “If you’re not trusted, you tend to reciprocate with distrust. That’s how the vicious cycle of mistrust starts and spirals downward. There is a risk in trusting people, but the greater risk is not trusting people” (p.6). Covey describes the phenomenon of trust as high-trust and low-trust competencies as illustrated through Table 31.

Table 31 Organizational Trust (excerpts)

<u>High trust, high performance organizations</u>	<u>Low trust, low performance organizations</u>
Information is shared openly	Facts are manipulated or distorted
The culture is innovative and creative	People spin the truth to their advantage
There is real communication and collaboration	Mistakes are covered up or covered over
There is a high degree of accountability	People tend to over-promise and under-deliver
There is palpable vitality and energy – people can feel the positive momentum	There are a lot of violated expectations for which people make many excuses
	The energy level is low

<http://www.emorymi.com/covey.shtml>

When the contributions of urban principals (and other stakeholders) are not considered by decision and policy makers the response is distrust and cynicism. Covey contends that trust produces increased value, accelerated growth, and enhanced innovation, as opposed to redundancy, bureaucracy, and politics. Trust supports collaboration and partnerships, rather than disengagement and turnover. And, could it be

that real trust brings better implementation of school reform and refined loyalty to the organization and its vision, instead of fraud.

Recommendations

According to Sergiovanni (1994) and Evans (1996), the four stages of leadership are bartering, building, bonding, and banking and binding. Bartering is the most basic level of need; it refers to security and survival. Building recognizes the human potential and motivation. Bonding, a higher-order need refers to significance and desire for purpose. Banking and binding, the highest need, produces collaboration and institutionalization. As previously stated, diverse school transformation on average last a period of at least five years; even beyond the initiation of change, Gross & Rawlings-Sanaei, (2004) indicates that the stages which follow are also crucial to progress, especially following leadership succession. Gross & Rawlings-Sanaei, (2004) stated that given the departure of the change activating leader, the staff then has choices to make in response to receiving and submitting to new leadership as described in his Evolutionary Leadership Choice Model (Table 32). Stage two of the Evolutionary Leadership Choice Model implies that a staff may either continue to support the initiatives of the departing leader or make paradigm shifts by reevaluating or modify the mission or vision of the organization. Then there is stage three which indicates that the group must then choose between renewal or indifference and stagnation. The outcome is that success is fixed when schools progress through stage after stage in succession.

Table 32 The Evolutionary Leadership Choice Model

First Stage	Initiation		Tradition
Second Stage	Continuity	OR	Mission Shift
Third Stage	Renewal		Perceived Stagnation

Gronn & Rawlings-Sanaei, (2004)

“The processes of principal succession and the new principal’s practices have the potential to change a school culture and both positively and negatively affect teacher and institutional morale. Findings suggest that several factors influence the degree to which morale is affected during principal succession: informal leaders, experience level of staff and the degree to which the principal is considered to be an integral part of the school”. (Macmillan, Meyer, & Northfield, 2004)

At the core of all beneficial school improvement efforts are committed teachers and staff; informed and involved parents; concerned and charitable community and business partners; accommodating and data-driven central office administrators and school boards who consider professional best practices as guiding decision-making concepts, along with energetic, innovative, and optimistic school principals and other building-level administrators; and most importantly enthusiastic and inquisitive students anxious to learn, all of which must share leadership functions in spite of the changes (Senge, 1990). For these reasons, frequencies of principal turnover in urban school districts necessitate a blueprint of alternative strategies or succession plans that address the effects on

stakeholders and school processes as an organization, when faced with building level leadership changes (Miskel & Cosgrove, 1985).

Former Secretary of Education, Rod Paige was quoted as maintaining that, "Good communities have good schools. Most communities get the schools they deserve. You don't have to tolerate failure" (Wood, 2001). In other words, marginalized communities are tolerating failing schools. Although Paige may be an advocate of school choice, is it not the moral responsibility of the community and those with consequential political influence to sway opinion for comprehensive school reform? What is needed is the retention of urban school principals as innovative instructional leaders who are compensated for the challenging work of transforming failing schools. This rare breed of academic forces needs to have the autonomy to establish resourceful partnerships with teachers, parents, community leaders, and such, in addition to the assurance that developed tactics and efforts for success will extend beyond a one- or two-year period. The urban principal deserves genuine support, straight-forward communication, and dependability from central office administrators. To reiterate, district policy makers must consider their social practices and how their decisions impact the entire school community, governance and organizational efforts, and instructional reform (Gewertz, 2002).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study, as is the case with most studies, in addition to answering the posed research questions raises new questions which need to be studied. For example, how does principal succession impact student achievement and how does principal succession impact professional learning communities? What are the residual social and political

effects of principal succession on the relationship between urban neighborhoods and district leadership? How is it that some Ohio principals have unionized even though Ohio Revised Code 4117.01 exempts management-level employees and supervisors from collective bargaining rights? What are the advantages of NEA membership as opposed to AFSA membership? And, what are the urban administrator recruitment and retention trends?

These and similar questions need to be explored if meaningful educational change is to be achieved. The role of the principal is increasingly important as the focus of educational change shifts from the district level to the building.

REFERENCES

- Achilles, C. M. (1997). *Problem analysis: Responding to school complexity*.
Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Ansolabehere, S. (1993). Does attack advertising demobilize the electorate? *The American Political Science Review*. 88(4), 829-839. Retrieved from
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/2082710>
- Artiles, A., Rueda, R., Salazar, J., & Higarda, I. (2005). Disproportionate representation: English language learners in urban schools districts. *Exceptional Children*. Retrieved Oct. 1, 2009.
<http://www.questia.com/googlescholar.qst;jsessionid=LPyJ1Jm21zx1zgWm;y7wRVkgGrzsQBzCb7x7DBxZKlvPJV4wxP4!-1727646373!>
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectation*. New York: Free Press.
- Barrons Business Dictionary (2009). www.barronseduc.com/business
- Boyd, W., & Shouse, R. (1997). The problems and promise of urban schools. In H. Walberg, O. Reyes, & R. Weissberg (Eds.), *Children and Youth: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*. New York: Sage Publications. Retrieved March, 1999 from
<http://www.ed.psu.edu/edadm/shouse/pandpurb.html>
- Bridges, E. & Cooper, B. (1977) Collective bargaining for school administrators: A significant development in the field of labor relations. *Thrust for Education Leadership*. 64 (4) p. 25-29. Retrieved November 2009.

- Brooking, K., Collins, G., Court, M. & O'Neill, J. (2003). Getting below the surface of the principal recruitment crisis in New Zealand primary schools. *Australian Journal of Education*, 45(2), 146-158.
- Brookover, W.B., & Lezotte, L.W. (1979). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement* (Occasional Paper No.17). East Lansing: Michigan State University, East Lansing Institute for Research in Teaching. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No ED 181 005)
- Brown v. Board of Education. 347 US 483, 74S. Ct. 686, 98 L. Ed. 873 – Supreme Court, 1954.
- Bryk, A. & Schneider, B. (2002). *Trust in schools: A core resource for improvement*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row.
- businessdictionary.com, 2009
- Carlin, P. (1992). The principal's role in urban school reform. *Education and Urban Society*. 25: 45-56.
- Carlin, P. & Goode, H. (1999) Leadership and management in education: Restoring the balance in pursuit of a more just and equitable society. *The values of educational administration: A book of readings*. Routledge, UK
- Chubb, J. & Moe, T. (1990). *Politics markets and America's schools*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institute.
- Cooper, B. (1976). Collective bargaining comes to school middle management. *Phi Delta Kappan*. 58 (2) p. 202-204. Retrieved February 2010.
- Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). (1996, p.12)

- Covey, S. (1999). *The seven habits of highly effective people*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Covey, S. (2006). The speed of trust: Trust, branding and competitive advantage. An interview. Retrieved February 26, 2010 from www.emorymi.com/covey.shtml
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluation quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Crigger, J. (2002). Cleveland meeting: Conference, broad foundation promotes mayoral leadership in public schools. *The United States Conference of Mayors*. Washington, DC: US Mayor Newspaper.
- Cronk, B. C. (2008). *How to use SPSS: A step-by-step guide to analysis and interpretation* (5th ed.). Glendale, CA: Pyrczak.
- Dantley, M. (1989). A critical perspective of leadership vision: Its source and influence upon the educational reform movement. *Urban Education*, 24(3), 243-262.
- Dantley, M.E. (1990). The ineffectiveness of effective schools leadership: An analysis of the effective schools movement from a critical perspective. *Journal of Negro Education*. 59(4), 585-98.
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1990). *The principal's role in shaping school culture*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC document reproduction service no. ED325914).
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1999). *Shaping school culture: The heart of leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1998). *Professional learning communities at work: Best practices for enhancing student achievement*. Bloomington, IN: National Educational Service.
- Earley, P., Evans, J., Collarbone, P., Gold, A., & Halpin, D. (2002). *Establishing the current state of school leadership in England*. London: Department for Education and Skills.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37(1), 15-18, 20-24.
- Educational Management Information System (EMIS)
- Evans, R. (1996). *The human side of school change: Reform, resistance, and the real-life problems of innovation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fenwick, L. (2002). *Who will lead? Crisis in the principal's office*. The Principals' Center. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Graduate School of Education.
- Fink, D. (2006). *Leadership for mortals: Developing and sustaining leaders of learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Fink, D., & Brayman, C. (2006). School leadership succession and the challenges of change. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42(1), 62. Retrieved April 23, 2006, from ProQuest Research Database.
- Fink, D., & Resnick (2001). Developing principals as instructional leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82, 598- 606.
- Fullan, M. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

- Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. New York: The Falmeair Press.
- Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Fransico: Jossey-Bass.
- Gabarro, J. (1987). *The Dynamics of Taking Charge*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gerwertz, C. (2002). Trusting: School community linked to student gains. *Education Week*. Retrieved August 8, 2008 from www.edweek.org/ew/articles.
- Gordon, G. E., & Rosen, N. (1981). Critical factors in leadership succession. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 27, 227-254.
- Gronn, P., & Rawlings-Sanaei, F. (2003). Principal recruitment in a climate of leadership disengagement. *Australian Journal of Education* 47(2).
- Gross, S., & Promises, J (2004). *Kept: Sustaining school and district leadership in a turbulent era*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).
- Gusky, O. (1960). Administrative succession in formal organizations. *Social Forces*, 39, 105-115.
- Haberman, M. (1999). *STAR: Principals serving children in poverty*. Indianapolis, IN: Kappa Delta Pi .
- Haberman, M. (2000). *Star teachers of children in poverty*. Houston: Haberman Educational Foundation.
- Haberman, M. (2004). *Creating effective schools in failed urban districts*. University of Wisconsin. Milwaukee: Myriad

- Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2001). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Hargreaves, A., & Dean, F. (2003). Sustaining Leadership (making improvements in education). *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84 (9), 693–700.
- Hargreaves, A., & Dean, F. (2005). *Sustainable Leadership*. USA: Jossey- Bass.
- Hess, F. M. (1999). *Spinning wheels: The politics of urban school reform*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institute Press.
- Hess, F. (2000). Why urban school reform doesn't deliver. *The School Administrator*. Retrieved April 28, 2008, from <http://www.aasa.org/publications/saarticledetail.cfm?ItemNumber=3818>
- Hess, F., & Loub, C. (2008). *The leadership limbo*. New York: Thomas B. Fordham
- Howell, W. (2005). *Besieged: School boards and the future of education politics*. Washington DC: Brookings Institution.
- IED (2003)
- Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium. (1996) *Standards for School Leaders*. Washington, D.C. Retrieved October 11, 2005 from <http://www.ccsso.org/isllc.html>
- Jasper, C. (1998). Competition by the book. *State Government News*, 41(1), 24-26.
- Kaba, M. (2001). So much reform, so little change: Building-level obstacles to urban school reform. *In Journal of Negro Education*. Chicago: Northwestern University. February 2001, v.2.
- Keltner, Brent R. (1998). *Funding comprehensive school reform*, CA: Rand.
- Kotter, J. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

- Lashway, L. (2002). *Trends in school leadership*. University of Oregon ERIC Digest. Number 162.
- Levenson, M., & Crumpler, C. (1996). Three models of adult development. *Human Development*, 39, 135-149.
- Levinson, J. (1986). A conception of adult development. *American Psychologist*. 41(1) 3-13.
- Lipman P. (1998). *Race, class, and power in school restructuring*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Macmillan, R. B., Meyer, M. J., & Northfield, S. (2004). Trust and Its Role in Principal Succession: A Preliminary Examination of a Continuum of Trust. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*. 3(4) 275–294.
- Marzano, Robert J. (1998). A theory-based meta-analysis of research on instruction. Mid-continent Aurora, Colorado: Regional Educational Laboratory. Retrieved May 2, 2000 from <http://www.mcrel.org/products/learning/meta.pdf>
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- mcrel.org/SuccessInSight
- McEwan, E. K. (2003). *Ten traits of highly effective principals: From good to great performance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mertler, C. A., & Vannatta, R. A. (2005). *Advanced and multivariate statistical methods: Practical application and interpretation* (4th ed.). Glendale, CA: Pyrczak.
- Miller, A. (2009). *Principal turnover: Student achievement and teacher retention*. Princeton University: NJ

- Miller, K. (2004). *Creating conditions for leadership effectiveness: The district's role*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Aurora, Colorado: Regional Educational Laboratory. Retrieved May 2, 2000, from <http://www.mcrel.org>
- Miskel, C., & Cosgrove, D. (1985). Leader succession in school settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 55(1), 87-105.
- Mizell, H. (2001). How to get from here to there. *JSD: National Staff Development Council*. 22(3), 18-20.
- Moya, M., Exposito, F., & Ruiz, M. (2000). Close relationships, gender, and career salience. *Sex Roles*, 42(9/10), 825-846.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- NCLB: Let's get it right! (2006)
- Neugarten, B L. (1975). The future and the young-old. *The Gerontologist*, 15(1/2), 4-9.
Retrieved October 2008. <http://psycnet.apa.org/?fa=main.doiLanding&uid=1975>.
- No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. PL 107-110. U.S. Department of Education.
Retrieved March 2009. <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html>.
- Ohio Department of Education (ODE)
- Patterson, J. A. (1994, March). *Shattering the glass ceiling: Women in school administration*. Paper presented at the Women's Studies Graduate Symposium, Chapel Hill, NC.
- Partlow, M. C., & Ridenour, C. (2008). Frequency of principal turnover in Ohio's elementary schools. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, 21 (2) 15-23.

- Partlow, M. C. (2007). Contextual factors related to elementary principal turnover. *Accepted by Planning and Changing: An Educational Leadership and Policy Journal*. 38(1/2) 60-76.
- Phillips, J. (2003). Powerful learning: Creating learning in urban school reform. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 18(3), 240-258.
- Pitt-Catsouphes, M. (2004). What an aging workforce can teach us about flexibility. Interview. *The Network News*. Sloan Work and Family Research Network, 8(4).
- Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 US 537, 16 S. Ct. 1138, 41 L. Ed. 256-Supreme Court, 1896.
- Quinn, D. (2002). The impact of principal leadership behaviors on instructional practice and student engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 40(5), 447-467.
- Rossi, A. (1980). Life-span theories and women's lives. *Signs*, 6, 4-32.
- Rowan, B., & Denk, C. E. (1984). Management succession, school socioeconomic context, and basic skills attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 21(3), 517-537.
- Rumberger, R W. (1987). High school dropouts: A review of issues and evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 57, 101-121.
- Schmuck, R. A., & Runkel, P. J. (1985). *The handbook of organizational development in schools*. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Press.
- Senge, P. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and science of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. (1979). *Supervision: Human perspectives*. New York: McGraw Hill.

- Sergiovanni, T.J. (1994). *Building community in schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. (1996). *Leadership for the schoolhouse: How is it different? Why is it important?* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Srivastava, S., & Oliver, J. (2003). Development of personality in early and middle adulthood: Set like plaster or persistent change? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(5), 1041-1053.
- Thompson, L., & Kelly, V. (2001). The impact of mentoring on academic achievement of at-risk youth. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 23(3), 227-242. Retrieved from Social Work Abstracts database
- United States Department of Education. (2008). <http://www.ed.gov/>
- Vann, A. (2006). When it's time to retire. *Principal*, 86(1), 12-16
- Villa, R. A., Thousand, j. S., Meyers, H., & Nevin, A. (1996). Teacher and administrator perceptions of heterogeneous education. *Exceptional Children*, 63(1), 29-45.
- Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. A. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.
<http://www.mcrel.org/topics/productDetail.asp?topicsID=7&productID=144>
- Waters, T., & Grubb, S. (2004). *Leading schools: Distinguishing the essential from the important*. Aurora, CO: McREL.
- Weiner, D. A., Lutz, B. F. & Ludwig, J. (2009). The effects of school desegregation on crime. NBER Working Paper No. w15380.
http://www.nber.org/cgi-bin/get_bar.pl?bar=pub

- White, B. (1995). The career development of successful women. *Women in Management Review*, 10(3), 4-15. Retrieved June 2006 from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/10.1108/0964949510085053>
- Williams, T. (2001). Unrecognized exodus, unaccepted accountability: The looming shortage of principals and vice principals in Ontario public school boards. Toronto, Canada: *Ontario Principals Council*:
- Wittington, M. (2000). Using standards to reform teacher preparation in career and technical education: A successful reformation. *Career and Technical Education Research*. Virginia Tech, 30(2), Retrieved May 2007 from <http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/CTER/v30n2/whittington>.
- Wood, S. (2001). Educator's news. Archived for August 27-September 1, 2001. Retrieved February 2010 from www.Mathditto2.com.
- Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in Organizations*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX



The Graduate School

MEMORANDUM

TO: HSRB Member, Professor Edlefson
FROM: Randy Gearhart, Chair
DATE: August 21, 2008
SUBJECT: STUDENT RESEARCH PROJECT REQUEST

Please review the enclosed application from Suzanne A. Hawthorne-Clay using the *Guidelines for the Conduct of Research Involving Human Subjects*.

Please put a check mark beside one of the following. Your prompt response to this request is appreciated.

APPROVED:
This project has been approved and the applicant may begin immediately.

PENDING:
This project is not yet approved pending full-board review.

RETURN TO INVESTIGATOR:
This project needs additional *Guidelines* compliance.
Please see attached comments.

Carla Edlefson 8/27/08
Board Member (reviewer) Date

Please return this memo along with the application to:

Mary Dietz
Graduate School Dean's Office
100 Gill Center
Ashland University
Ashland, OH 44805

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Randy Gearhart, Chair, at phone: 419-207-6198, Fax – 419-289-5460, E-mail: rgearhar@ashland.edu