Assessing Learning-Centered Leadership

Connections to Research, Professional Standards, and Current Practices

Ellen Goldring
Andrew C. Porter
Joseph Murphy
Stephen N. Elliott
Xiu Cravens

Vanderbilt University

Prepared for the Wallace Foundation Grant on Leadership Assessment
March 2007

This paper was developed to provide the rationale for the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-Ed) project—an initiative to develop a national evaluation for school principals and school leadership teams. The project is being funded by a generous grant from the Wallace Foundation. This support is gratefully acknowledged by the authors

Assessing Learning-Centered Leadership: Connections to Research, Professional Standards, and Current Practices

Ellen Goldring
Andrew Porter
Joseph Murphy
Stephen N. Elliott
Xiu Cravens
Vanderbilt University

The core challenge facing America's schools, especially urban schools, is improving student achievement and decreasing the achievement gap. Such improvement ultimately depends on improving teaching practice. The available evidence suggests that schools that cultivate particular in-school processes and conditions such as rigorous academic standards, high-quality instruction, and a culture of collective responsibility for students' academic success are best able to meet the needs of all students (Bryk & Driscoll, 1985; Newmann & Wehlage, 1995; Purkey & Smith, 1983). School leadership, especially principal instructional and transformational leadership, is widely recognized as important in promoting these in-school processes and conditions (Lieberman, Falk, & Alexander, 1994; Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sheppard, 1996). Hence, meeting the excellence and equity challenge in urban schools depends on school leaders who effectively guide instructional improvement (Barth, 1986; Leithwood, 1994).

In many districts, the primary purpose of leadership assessment is to meet contractual obligations as part of an initial appointment review or documentation for tenure or contract renewals. Formative assessments are also used by some districts to identify areas of needed improvement of leadership practice. Whatever the purpose, summative or formative, there is general agreement that the current state of leadership assessment is lacking. In their comprehensive review of principal evaluation, Ginsberg and Berry (1990) concluded that "the policymaker seeking assistance in choosing a principal evaluation system is offered little sound guidance from these sources" (p. 212).

The identification and development of effective school leaders, both individuals and teams, however, has been significantly hampered by the paucity of technically sound tools for assessing and monitoring leadership performance. Finding practical ways to thoughtfully and appropriately assess and develop leaders can have an important impact on the quality of leadership, and through that, on the quality of education in our schools (Glasman & Heck, 1992; Thomas, Holdaway, & Ward, 2000). Leadership evaluation holds great promise in providing educators with much needed information which can be used to both improve leadership practices and provide information for accountability purposes (Reeves, 2005; Waters & Grubb, 2004).

It is against this backdrop that we present a conceptual framework for a leadership assessment system. With funding from the Wallace Foundation, we began a three-year project to develop a set of instruments to assess the effectiveness of educational leadership (both individual and team). The purpose of this paper is to present the rationale for the invention of our conceptual framework. This conception is the blueprint for the development of our assessment instrumentation. The focus is on the assessment of leadership job performance—that is, leadership behaviors and practices. The core of our assessment system is a set of instruments that measure leadership behaviors and measures of valued-added student achievement. Our conception is aligned with a research–based definition of educational leadership that is rooted in school improvement. We call this learning-centered leadership (Murphy et al., 2006). In our work, leadership is the individual or collective (team) "process of influencing others to achieve mutually agreed upon purposes for the organization" (Patterson, 1993, p.3).

Our conceptual framework and its corresponding leadership assessment instrumentation, the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-Ed), has the following characteristics: (a) the dimensions we propose to evaluate are grounded in the research literature, (b) the framework is standards-based, and (c) it is markedly different from current leadership evaluation and assessment frameworks employed by states and districts throughout the United States. The basis for each of these claims about our leadership framework and assessment instrument follows.

As noted, our conceptual framework and the corresponding assessment system are standards based, that is, they are anchored and aligned with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards. Our conception and instrumentation rests upon the same research base as the ISLLC standards (Murphy, 2005).

In this paper, we first present the conceptual framework, and we then discuss the supporting literature. We then relate our framework to the ISLLC standards and lastly, we highlight how our framework is different from prevailing leadership evaluation and assessment currently employed in states and districts.

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework that drives our leadership assessment instrument focuses on two key dimensions of leadership behaviors. We refer to these two dimensions as *core components* and *key processes*. Our framework states that school leadership assessment should include measures of the intersection of these dimensions. We propose to assess the intersection of *what* principals or leadership teams must accomplish to improve academic and social learning for all students (the core components), and *how* they create those core components (the key processes) (see Figure 1, but for now ignore the numbers in the body of the figure). In our framework, core components refer to characteristics of schools that support the learning of students and enhance the ability of teachers to teach (Marks & Printy, 2003; Sebring & Bryk, 2000). Key processes are leadership behaviors, most notably aspects of transformational leadership traditionally associated with processes of leadership that raise

organizational members' levels of commitment and shape organizational culture (Burns, 1978; Conley & Goldman, 1994; Leithwood, 1994).

Thus, the theory of action underlying the conceptual framework which drives our assessment system is that effective leadership, both individual and team, requires core components created through key processes. For example, one of the bedrocks of instructional leadership is creating a positive school culture (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In our framework, we refer to this as the core component Culture of Learning & Professional Behavior. We claim that to understand and measure leadership, it is not enough to assess the extent to which school leadership—the principal or teams of leaders—ensures that there is a culture of learning and professional behavior in the school. In assessing the school leader, it is also important to evaluate the leadership processes involved in establishing and nurturing a culture of learning and professional behavior. In other words, how is the leadership enacted around each core component? Does the leadership in the school support teachers to develop a culture of learning and professional behavior? Does the leadership implement programs to ensure there is a culture of learning and professional behavior? Does the leadership (individual leaders or teams of leaders) communicate effectively about the culture of learning? Thus, our conceptual framework calls for the assessment of leadership at the intersection of two dimensions: what leaders create and how they create it.

Consistent with the best empirical work on this issue (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Heck & Hallinger, 1999), our conceptual framework fits within a more general model of a leadership assessment system (see Figure 2). This model attempts to capture in broad strokes how education leadership should be assessed. We show most, if not all, of the major constructs that might be the focus of leadership assessment, and position our focus on leadership behaviors—that is, the intersection of core components and key processes—in that larger context. (We do not attempt to diagram a full explanation for how school leadership leads to instructional improvement and subsequent student success (for such a review, see Murphy et al., 2006)). The model shows leadership knowledge and skills, personal characteristics, and values and beliefs as precursors to leadership behaviors exhibited by individuals or teams in performing their leadership responsibilities. These leadership behaviors then lead to school performance on core components such as providing a rigorous curriculum and high-quality instruction. These school performances, in turn, lead to student success. Here we focus on value-added, for example, improvements in student achievement, student attendance, student graduation rates, and college enrollment. Thus, in assessing a leader or leadership team, some might focus on knowledge and skills, personal characteristics, and beliefs, but that is not our focus. In contrast, our assessment of education leadership focuses on leadership behaviors defined by the intersection of six core components of school performance and six key processes, which together make up our conception of principal and team school leadership. Our assessment model does not envision direct effects of leadership behaviors on student success. Rather, the leadership behaviors lead to changes in school performance which in turn lead to student success.

Our model posits that there are aspects of the context within which leadership and schooling takes place that bear on leadership evaluation (Goldring et .al., 2006; Manasee, 1985). For example, everything else being equal, the evaluation of leadership quality might

appropriately take into account the amount of experience of the leadership. For example, are we assessing a first-year principal or a seasoned principal? A newly established leadership team or a seasoned team? One might expect and demand higher quality leadership from an experienced leader or leadership team. Similarly, length of time in the school might appropriately be taken into account. A new leader or leadership team to a school may not have yet been able to establish patterns of behavior in his/her early work that he/she will establish over the longer haul. Even more likely, the effects of leadership may not be seen immediately in school performance or student success. Rather, good leadership should lead to increasing quality of school performance over time, and only after improved school performance has been in place for a while can one expect to see it reflected in improved student success. Thus, context must be taken into account in interpreting leadership accomplishment, and to a lesser extent, even when interpreting leadership behaviors.

Student body composition, staff composition, level of schooling, and geographic setting of the school can all have bearing on the challenges to providing high-quality education leadership. For example, Lortie, Crow, and Prolman (1983) found that principals in lower socioeconomic status schools were more focused on issues of student discipline and difficult staff relationships, and Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found that principals took a much more direct role in curricular and instructional issues and tended to be much more task-oriented in lower socioeconomic status schools. Martinko and Gardner (1983) found that principals' behaviors varied significantly with grade level and the school's degree of urbanization.

Taking these contextual features into account in evaluating leadership, however, has its dangers. On the one hand, evaluation of education leadership should undoubtedly take into account the challenges presented to providing high-quality leadership, high-quality school performance, and high-quality student success. For example, in the early days of taking over a troubled school, even the most effective of educational leadership cannot be expected to have immediate effects on school performance and student success. At the same time, these contextual factors should not be used as an excuse for poor-quality leadership.

Our intention is to focus our assessments of education leadership on leader behaviors. These assessments give weight to school performance and student success, and take into account additional contextual factors such as a leader's experience and length of time in the current school as well as the challenges to high-quality leadership presented by the school. Here, our assessment employs rubrics for scoring a body of evidence (e.g., work samples, student test scores, and other outcomes measures such as graduation rates). The shaded portions of our assessment model reflect these complexities.

Grounding in the Research Literature

In this section we present the research base that supports the core components and key processes in our conceptual framework.

Core Components

First we present the six core components. As noted above, the core components represent the focus of effective learning-centered instructional school leadership as grounded in the literature. We chose those leadership behaviors that are linked in the research literature to teachers' opportunities to improve their instruction and student learning, and that are aligned with the ISLLC standards. As noted above, we do not include in our assessment other aspects of leadership such as values and knowledge, which, while important, are not indicated as part of learning-centered leadership behaviors (Murphy et al., 2006).

High Standards for Student Learning

The first core component in our leadership assessment conceptual framework is the extent to which leadership ensures *there are individual, team, and school goals for rigorous student academic and social learning.* There is considerable evidence that a key function of effective school leadership concerns shaping the purpose of the school and articulating the school's mission (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Hallinger and Heck, 2002; Murphy et al., 2006). Traditionally, this aspect of leadership focused primarily on the principal's role in ensuring that the school has clear, measurable goals for student learning and academic progress. Setting clear goals for student achievement is central to effective leadership, as it guides the daily practices and decisions of all stakeholders. This may seem obvious today, but as the effective schools research was emerging in the 1970s, many schools had ill-defined goals that were often non-academic (Brookover et al., 1979).

In our framework, however, we do not assess the mere presence of goals for student learning, but specifically emphasize the quality of the school goals, namely, the extent to which there are high standards and rigorous learning goals. The research literature has supported the notion that high expectations for all, including clear and public standards, are key to closing the achievement gap between advantaged and less advantaged students, and for raising the overall academic achievement of all students. Early research on effective schools in lower socioeconomic communities found that these schools held high expectations for their students (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Purkey & Smith, 1983). More recently, Betts and Grogger (2003) found that on average, higher grading standards are associated with higher 12th-grade test scores. High standards for student performance focus on outputs rather than processes or inputs (Porter, 1994). In our framework, high standards mean those that "are intended to be absolute rather than normative. Second, they are expected to be set at high, 'world-class' levels…Finally they are expected to apply to all, or essentially all, students rather than a selected subset such as college bound students seeking advanced placement" (Linn, 2000, p. 10).

Rigorous Curriculum

Rigorous curriculum refers to the content of instruction (as opposed to the pedagogy of instruction, which is dealt with in the following section). *Rigorous curriculum is defined as ambitious academic content provided to all students in core academic subjects.*

Having a rigorous curriculum provided by teachers and experienced by students is at the core of standards-based reform, including standards-based reform as articulated in the *No*

Child Left Behind legislation. States must have challenging academic content standards that describe what students are to know and be able to do. School leaders, as has already been argued, play a crucial role in setting high standards for student performance in their school. These high standards, however, must be translated into ambitious academic content represented in the curriculum students experience. Murphy and colleagues (2006) argued, in their recent piece on learning-centered leadership, that school leaders in productive schools are knowledgeable about and deeply involved in the school's curricular program (Carter & Maestas, 1982; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Russell, et al, 1985). These leaders work with colleagues to ensure that the school is defined by a rigorous curriculum program in general and that each student's program, in particular, is of high quality (Newmann, 1997; Ogden & Germinario, 1995). Learning-centered leaders ensure that each student has an adequate opportunity to learn rigorous content in all academic subjects (Boyer, 1983; Murphy & Hallinger, 1985).

A number of empirical studies demonstrate that teaching focused on ambitious academic content covered in content standards and student assessments leads to increases in student performance (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1986; Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, 1992; Newmann & Wehlage, 1995; Teddlie & Stringfield, 1993; Turnbull et al., 1999; Wong et al., 1996). The content is defined not only by the topics that might or might not be taught (e.g., linear equations in mathematics), but also the cognitive demands that might or might not be taught (e.g. memorize, understand the concept, solve problems, conjecture and generalize) for each topic. Research shows a strong positive link between student achievement gains and content covered, as defined at the intersection of specific topics with specific cognitive demands (Gamoran et al., 1997). Other research shows that much of the problem with low-achieving students can be addressed by providing them with better content (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; McKnight et al., 1987; Peterson, 1988; Porter et al., 1988; Romberg, 1988).

Effective leaders understand the importance of a rigorous curriculum offered by teachers and experienced by students, and the effects of a rigorous curriculum on gains in student achievement. They are attentive to establishing adequate opportunities for all students to experience a rigorous curriculum in each core academic subject regardless of a student's race, sex, SES background, first language, or disability. Effective instructional leaders work with their teachers to insure that the content of instruction is rigorous and aligned to the school's high standards for student performance.

Quality Instruction

A rigorous curriculum (i.e., ambitious academic content) is insufficient to insure substantial gains in student learning; quality instruction (i.e., effective pedagogy) is also required. *Quality instruction is defined as effective instructional practices that maximize student academic and social learning.* Teachers must deliver a rigorous curriculum in ways that actively engage students, are clear, and recognize naive conceptions that students bring to the classroom about the academic content to be learned. Effective teachers are clear about their instructional goals, communicate to their students what is expected of them and why, make expert use of existing instructional materials, are knowledgeable about their students, adapt instruction to their students' needs, and anticipate misconceptions in students' existing knowledge. Particularly at the elementary grades, effective teachers provide the

metacognitive strategies students need to comprehend the material. They monitor students' understandings by offering regular appropriate feedback, and they accept appropriate responsibility for student outcomes (Porter & Brophy, 1988). Newmann and Wehlage (1995) defined authentic pedagogy as teaching that requires students to think, to develop in-depth understanding, and to apply academic learning to important realistic problems.

Quality instruction (effective pedagogy) reflects research findings over the course of the past few decades about how people learn (National Research Council, 1999). That work makes clear that teachers' pedagogical practices must draw out and work with the pre-existing understandings that students bring with them to the classroom. Quality instruction provides students with many examples in which the same concept is at work and uses ongoing assessments designed to make students' thinking visible to both the teachers and the students.

Effective instructional leaders understand the properties of quality instruction (effective pedagogy) and find ways to ensure that quality instruction is experienced by all students in their school. They spend time on the instructional program, often through providing feedback to teachers (Clark, Lotto, & McCarthy, 1980) and supporting teachers to improve their instruction (Conley, 1991; Leithwood & Janzi, 1990).

Culture of Learning and Professional Behavior

Another core component in our assessment framework is leadership that *ensures there are integrated communities of professional practice in the service of student academic and social learning. There is a healthy school environment in which student learning is the central focus.* Research has demonstrated that schools organized as communities, rather than bureaucracies, are more likely to exhibit academic success (Bryk & Driscoll, 1988; Lee, Smith, & Croninger, 1995; Louis & Miles, 1990). Further research supports the notion that effective professional communities are deeply rooted in the academic and social learning goals of the schools (Little, 1982; Rosenholtz, 1989). In other words, the communities are not for the mere purpose of creating pleasant work environments. In fact, Phillips (1997) found that in schools where teachers are more concerned with affective relations than academic learning, test scores tend to be lower. She cautions that school community must place academic learning at its center. Often termed teacher professional communities, these collaborative cultures are defined by elements such as shared goals and values, focus on student learning, shared work, deprivatized practice, and reflective dialogue (Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996).

Another strand of the literature that supports the importance of this core component is the research on school climate. The early research on effective schools indicated that a safe and orderly environment is associated with academic success (Clark, Lotto, and McCarthy, 1980; Rutter et al., 1979). More recently, Heck, Larsen, and Marcoulides (1990) found that "the principal's role in establishing a strong school climate….strongly predicted school achievement" (p. 117). However, a healthy school environment encompasses more than a "safe and orderly climate." Research and program development by Crone and Horner (2003) and Charney and Wood (1981) have focused on school-wide prosocial programs and their effects on both social behavior and academic outcomes. This work with school-wide positive

behavior support and school-wide social curriculum collectively indicates that schools that are supportive, responsive environments for students have better attendance, fewer office referrals, more academic engagement from students, and greater gain in achievement test results in comparison to schools without such programs (Charney, 1982; Elliott, 1993, 1997; Gresham, Sugai, Horner, Quinn, & McInerney, 1998). Thus, healthy schools are also supportive of students' social and academic needs.

School leadership plays a central role in the extent to which a school exhibits a culture of learning and professional behavior and whether there are integrated professional communities. Louis, Marks, and Kruse (1996) found that schools with supportive principals tended to have higher levels of professional community. Similarly, Bryk, Camburn, and Louis's (1999) research in the Chicago public schools indicated that principal leadership is an important facilitating factor in determining the level of professional community. Leaders play a central role in promoting a climate of respect and support for students and teachers (Bryk & Driscoll, 1988).

Connections to External Communities

Leading a school with high expectations and academic achievement for all students requires robust connections to the external community. These connections include *linkages to family and/or other people and institutions in the community that advance academic and social learning*. There is a substantial research base that has reported positive relationships between family involvement and social and academic benefits for students (Henderson & Mapp, 2002). A study of standards-based reform practices, for instance, found that teacher outreach to parents of low-performing students, such as meetings, sending materials home, and communicating with parents when their child was having problems, was related to improved student achievement (Westat and Policy Studies Associates, 2001). Similarly, schools with well-defined parent partnership programs show achievement gains over schools with less robust partnerships (Shaver & Wells, 1998). Community-wide involvement, such as school-linked social services, parent education programs, and community organizing initiatives, aim to change the underlying conditions associated with low student achievement (Mediratta & Fruchter, 2001).

Learning-centered leaders play a key role in both establishing and supporting parental involvement and community partnerships. These leaders model the importance of collaborating with parents and others in the extended school community (Corcoran & Wilson, 1985; Goldring & Sullivan, 1996; Russell et al., 1985). External collaboration is part of the strategic vision of the school; this collaboration is closely linked to the academic and social learning goals of the school. Learning-centered leaders focus collaboration and engagement with the external community on learning goals; they do not engage the external community for pubic relations as an end in itself. Learning-centered leaders "model community collaboration for staff, establish norms about the importance of parent connections, and provide opportunities for staff to develop the collaborative skills needed to work effectively with parents" (Murphy et al., 2006, p. 34).

The relationship between schools and communities is not just one way, from the school outward to the community. Effective leadership also ensures that expectations,

information, and interests from the community are part of the school's goals, culture, and decisions (Murphy et al., 2006; Rowe, 1995). To achieve these school-community partnerships, school leaders develop working relationships with religious, business, and political leaders in the school community (Goldring & Hausman, 2001). Leaders "invest time, energy and resources in community and family work because they know that they and their schools cannot be successful without them.…They choose their involvement strategically with an eye toward building supports for children and schools" (Lawson, 1999, p. 12).

Systemic Performance Accountability

There is individual and collective responsibility among leadership, faculty, and students for achieving the rigorous student academic and social learning goals. Accountability stems from both external and internal accountability systems (Adams & Kirst, 1999). External accountability refers to performance expectations that emerge from outside the school and the local community. Recent research reported a positive relationship between the strength of a state's accountability system and student achievement (Carnoy & Loeb, 2002; Hanushek & Raymond, 2004). Simultaneously, schools and districts have internal accountability systems with local expectations and individual responsibilities.

If external policies help to set some of the broader targets for schools, then internal goals comprise the practical steps that schools must take to reach those targets. Schools with higher levels of internal accountability are more successful within external accountability systems, and they are more skillful in areas such as curricular decision making, addressing instructional issues, and responding to various performance measures (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Elmore, 2005).

School leaders must integrate internal and external accountability systems by holding their staff accountable for implementing strategies that align teaching and learning with achievement goals and targets set by policy. As noted by Murphy and colleagues (2006), school leaders play an integral role in focusing their staff and students on the particular criteria for success embodied in performance standards and school goals. They do so through frequent reference to and use of these criteria in meetings, performance reviews, classroom observations, discussions of curriculum and instructional strategies, and other interactions with staff. Effective leaders enhance accountability by offering individualized support to staff, challenging teachers to think critically about their teaching, and promoting an atmosphere of collaboration in the school.

Assessment systems are central to systemic performance accountability, and in schools with learning-centered leaders, these systems are characterized by a variety of distinguishing elements. First, they are comprehensive. They address classroom and school-based activity. They feature the use of a wide variety of monitoring and data collection strategies, both formal and informal. They insist on multiple and complementary indicators of student learning. For example, comprehensive designs often include teacher record-keeping systems, end-of-level or end-of-unit reports, student work products, criterion-referenced tests, and standardized measures of student performance. They also use information gleaned from direct observations in classrooms. Second, they disaggregate

information on the important conditions and outcomes of schooling (e.g., program placement of students, test results) by relevant characteristics of students (e.g., gender, race, social class). Third, they are constructed in ways that foster the triangulation of data from multiple sources in order to arrive at judgments about the effectiveness of curricular and instructional programs and organizational operations. Lastly, as noted above, these systems implement tight alignment between local school-based and external assessments.

Key Processes

Key leadership processes refer to the ways in which leadership, individually and collectively, influences organizations and their constituencies to move toward achieving the core components of High Standards of Student Performance, Rigorous Curriculum (content), Quality Instruction (pedagogy), Culture of Learning & Professional Behavior, Connections to External Communities, and Systemic Performance Accountability. As noted by Fullan (1982), "change is a process, not an event" (p. 41).

There is agreement regarding many of the key processes of leadership. Adair (1983) suggests that leadership involves juggling three key overlapping domains in an organization: group maintenance needs, task needs, and individual needs. He goes on to suggest elements (or "processes," in our words) in each of these leadership domains, including defining the task, planning, briefing (communicating), controlling, evaluating, motivating, organizing, and setting an example. Clark, Lott, and Astuto (1984) highlight the importance of planning, implementing, and evaluating in the change and school improvement process. Others have complied similar lists of leadership processes.

Our conceptual framework features six key processes, based upon the prevailing views of effective leadership and the research on school improvement: planning, implementing, supporting, advocating, communicating, and monitoring. Following a systems view of organizations, we acknowledge that the processes are interconnected and recursive, and are highly reactive to one another, although we review each individually. For example, to monitor teaching for high-quality instruction, leaders first need to plan for the collection of key data; they need to communicate both the need for the data and the results. Leaders need to implement changes based on the information gleaned from the monitoring, and they need to support teachers to help them improve their instruction. In this section, we review the key processes and provide examples of how each process is enacted in relationship to a few of the core components.

Planning

Planning is an essential process of leadership. *We define planning as articulating shared direction and coherent policies, practices, and procedures for realizing high standards of student performance.* Planning helps leadership focus resources, tasks, and people. Change studies document the importance of planning (Clark et al., 1984). Learning-centered leaders do not see planning as a ritual or as overly bureaucratic. They engage in planning as a mechanism to realize the core components of the school. Effective principals are highly skilled planners and in fact, they are proactive in their planning work (Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). Planning is needed in each of the core components; it is an engine of school improvement that builds common purpose and a shared culture. For example, to

ensure high-quality instruction, one of the core components in our framework, learning-centered leaders devote considerable time and undertake careful planning to guarantee that the school employs excellent, highly qualified teachers, as well as faculty whose values and instructional frameworks are consistent with the mission and the culture of the school (Levine & Lezotte, 1990; Teddlie, Stringfield, Wimpleberg, & Kirby, 1989).

Another example of the importance of planning for high-quality instruction involves professional development. In order to continue providing high-quality instruction, teachers must participate in ongoing professional development. Effective leaders assume an active role in planning staff learning activities along with the overall professional development system of the school (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Clark, Lotto, & McCarthy, 1980). Contrast this planned approach to the more typical scenario where teachers simply choose workshops from a menu of options offered through the district or the state.

Planning is key to other core components as well, for example, effective leaders place a high priority on curriculum planning (Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). They also actively plan for the collection of data needed to both implement systemic accountability in the school and to monitor the curriculum and instructional quality. Further, effective leaders create systematic plans to engage the larger school community (Goldring & Hausman, 2001).

Implementing

After planning, *leaders implement; they put into practice the activities necessary to realize high standards for student performance.* In a comprehensive review of the research on implementation of curriculum and instruction, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) concluded that "implementation is not simply an extension of planning…it is a phenomenon in its own right" (p. 336). Effective leaders take the initiative to implement and are proactive in pursing their school goals (Manasse, 1985).

Learning-centered leaders are directly involved in implementing policies and practices that further the core components in their schools. For example, effective leaders implement joint planning time for teachers and other structures as mechanisms to develop a culture of learning and professional behavior (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampton, 1998). Similarly, they implement programs that build productive parent and community relations as a way to achieve connections to external communities (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

School leadership engages with school staff to implement rigorous curriculum that is aligned with high standards for student performance. They implement high-quality instructional programs (Austin, 1978; Weber, 1971; Wellisch et al., 1978) and, as noted by Murphy and colleagues (2006), they are personally involved with school faculty to implement assessment systems at the classroom and school levels for systemic accountability (Clark & McCarthy, 1983; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Weber, 1971).

Supporting

Leaders create enabling conditions; they secure and use the financial, political, technological, and human resources necessary to promote academic and social learning.

Supporting is a key process that ensures the resources necessary to achieve the core components are available and used well. This notion is closely related to the transformational leadership behaviors associated with helping people be successful (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

The literature is clear that learning-centered leaders devote considerable time to supporting teachers in their efforts to strengthen the quality of instruction (Conley, 1991; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). This support takes varied forms, as noted by Murphy and colleagues (2006). For example, from a financial and technological perspective, leaders make sure that teachers have all the necessary materials and resources required to be highly effective instructors. In terms of social and human capital, leaders provide access to new sources of knowledge and make certain that teachers have high-quality opportunities to expand, enhance, and refine their instructional skills (Cawelti, 1997; Newmann, 1997; Wilson & Corcoran, 1988). Leaders demonstrate personal interest in staff and make themselves available to them (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Leaders also provide support for high-quality instruction by ensuring that teachers have guidance as they work to integrate skills learned during professional development into their instructional behaviors (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978).

Support is also a key process in ensuring a culture of learning and professional behavior. Murphy and colleagues (2006) note that leaders support integrated communities of practice by providing the infrastructure, such as time and space, that nurtures informal learning throughout the school (Little, 1982; Newmann, 1997; Venezky & Winfield, 1979). Shared decision making and other participatory mechanisms and structures provide a framework of support for cultures of learning and professional behavior (Lezotte, Hathaway, Miller, Passalacqua, & Brookover, 1980; Little, 1982; Rutherford, 1985). Leaders realize that communities of professional practice require resources as well, and they take advantage of their unique position in garnering and allocating resources to bring communities of professional practice to life (Little, 1982; Rutter et al., 1979).

Advocating

Leaders promote the diverse needs of students within and beyond the school. Advocating for the best interests and needs of all children is a key process of learning-centered leadership. Learning-centered leaders advocate for a rigorous curriculum for all students. They ensure that policies in the school do not prevent or create barriers for certain students to participate in classes that are deemed gateways to further learning, such as algebra. They ensure that special needs students receive content-rich instruction. Similarly, effective leadership ensures that all students are exposed to high-quality instruction; they manage the parental pressures that often create favoritism in placing students in particular classes. Both the instruction and content of the school's educational programs honor diversity (e.g., the use of culturally rich educational materials) (Ogden & Germinario, 1995; Roueche & Baker, 1986). Through advocacy, learning-centered leadership works with teachers and other professional staff to ensure that the school's culture both models and supports respect for diversity. Learning-centered leaders make their advocacy public. Further, advocacy is central to the systematic accountability processes in the school, as teachers are held accountable for the academic and social learning of the diverse student body.

Learning-centered leaders advocate on behalf of all children in their relationships with the external community. As Murphy and his colleagues (2006) note, "learning-centered leaders proactively respond to external policy initiatives (e.g., speak at public forums, address civic organizations) to ensure that public policy advantages the students in their schools—and their families." Effective leaders model their advocacy by developing civic capacity with key institutions and organizations in the school's community (Goldring & Hausman, 2001). They guide service providers, youth development specialists, and private organizations to create opportunities to serve children with multiple and varying needs (Butty, LaPoint, Thomas, & Thompson, 2001). Learning-centered leadership advocates on behalf of parents and their students to the political community and the educational bureaucracy.

Communicating

Leaders develop, utilize, and maintain systems of exchange among members of the school and with its external communities. In studying school change, Loucks and colleagues (1982) found that "principals played major communication roles, both with and among school staff, and with others in the district and in the community" (p. 42).

Learning-centered leaders communicate unambiguously to all the stakeholders and constituencies both in and outside the school about the high standards of student performance. "Effective principals continually communicate their high expectations to students and staff" (Manasse, 1985, p. 447). These communications allow for clear, focused articulations of the goals of the school (Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).

Leaders communicate regularly and through multiple channels with families and community members, including businesses, social service agencies, and faith-based organizations (Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1978; Garibaldi, 1993). Through ongoing communication, schools and the community serve as resources for one another that inform, promote, and link key institutions in support of student academic and social learning.

Communication plays a key role in systemic performance accountability as well. As noted by Murphy and colleagues (2006), learning-centered leaders hold faculty and students accountable by communicating the results of accountability data (Eubanks & Levine, 1983). Effective leaders provide teachers and parents with assessment results on an ongoing basis (Levine & Stark, 1982; Venezky & Winfield, 1979). Information about student progress is communicated regularly to students and parents in an accessible form, at multiple times, across an array of forums, and in multiple formats (Eubanks & Levine, 1983; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1984; Wynne, 1980).

Communication is central to developing a culture of learning and professional behavior in the school. Integrated communities of practice cannot emerge nor can they function if there is not open and adequate communication amongst teachers, between teachers and leaders, and amongst teachers, leaders, and students. Bryk, Camburn, and Louis (1999) noted that strong professional communities emerge when the school engages in

reflective dialogue, “engaging in extended conversations” (p. 754). Leadership must support and participate in these important conversations.

Monitoring

Monitoring refers to systematically collecting and analyzing data to make judgments that guide decisions and actions for continuous improvement. A key transformational leadership behavior is monitoring school activity (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Early on, the effective schools literature identified monitoring school progress in terms of setting goals, assessing the curriculum, and evaluating instruction, as a key role of instructional leadership (Purkey & Smith, 1983).

In terms of our core components, learning-centered leaders monitor the school’s curriculum, assuring alignment between rigorous academic standards and curriculum coverage (Eubanks & Levine, 1983). They monitor students’ programs of study to ensure that all students have adequate opportunity to learn rigorous content in all academic subjects (Boyer, 1983; Murphy & Hallinger, 1985).

Learning-centered leadership also undertakes an array of activities to monitor the quality of instruction, such as ongoing classroom observations. Heck (1992) found that ineffective elementary-school principals were less likely than principals in effective elementary schools to monitor classroom instruction through regular classroom visits. Effective leaders also actively monitor the procedures put into place to improve quality instruction, such as the use of cooperative planning time by teachers or professional development. Leadership monitors the effectiveness of professional development by assessing the extent to which staff instructional practices are changing and improving, and ultimately impacting student learning and achievement (Eubanks & Levine, 1983).

Monitoring student achievement is central to maintaining systemic performance accountability. Murphy and colleagues (2006) have noted that learning-centered leaders are knowledgeable about assessment practices and are personally involved with faculty in monitoring assessment systems at the classroom and school levels (Clark & McCarthy, 1983; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Learning-centered principals help teachers use data to identify individual students who need remedial assistance, tailor instruction to individual students’ needs, identify and correct gaps in the curriculum, improve or increase the involvement of parents in student learning, and assign or reassign students to classes or groups. Furthermore, effective leaders use data to help teachers identify areas where they need to strengthen content knowledge or teaching skills. In other words, monitoring is used to focus professional development. Heck (1992) found that effective principals use test results to monitor program improvement as a mechanism to focus on systematic accountability. Monitoring through data is also used to engage the external school community by analyzing strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities for school improvement.

Linkages to the ISLLC Standards

Our conceptual framework, with its focus on assessing leadership behaviors, is anchored in and significantly aligned with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure

Consortium (ISLLC) standards (CCSSO, 1996). Both the learning-centered leadership assessment conceptual framework and the ISLLC standards are rooted in the research literature (Murphy, 2005; Murphy et al., 2006). The content of the ISLLC standards and our conceptual framework is aligned such that the standards are well covered in the leadership assessment framework and the leadership assessment framework covers the ISLCC standards. Figure 1 shows the intersection between the conceptual framework and the ISLLC standards (as described in more detail in this section). Here, we present some examples of how our conceptual framework is aligned with the ISLCC standards. One key difference between the ISLLC standards and our conceptual framework is that the standards typically refer to a person in a leadership position (a school administrator), while our framework pertains to both individuals and leadership teams. Another difference is that our conceptual framework makes finer grained distinctions than do the ISLLC standards.

ISLCC Standard 1 refers to a vision of learning. Specifically, "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." The components of professional practice that are embedded in this standard include developing, communicating, implementing, and monitoring the vision. In our conceptual framework, the intersection of the core component high standards for student performance and the key processes of planning, implementing, supporting, advocating, communicating, and monitoring are consistent with Standard 1. For example, items that measure the intersection of high standards for student performance and planning and supporting, such as *develops rigorous growth targets in learning for all students* and *allocates school resources primarily toward reaching academic and social learning goals,* are rooted in Standard 1. These items provide evidence of leadership behavior that develops and implements a vision (for student performance).

ISLLC Standard 2 refers to the school culture and teaching and learning. Specifically, Standard 2 states, "A school administrator is 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." Included in this standard are such leadership behaviors as valuing students and staff, developing and sustaining a culture of learning, ensuring an inclusive culture, and monitoring and evaluating the culture. In our conceptual framework, Standard 2 is covered in a number of areas, but primarily in the intersection of the core components rigorous curriculum, quality instruction, and a culture of learning and professional behavior with the key processes of planning, implementing, supporting, advocating, communicating, and monitoring. Examples of the types of behaviors in our framework that are aligned with Standard 2 include *provides teachers with time to work on developing and strengthening the curricular program; observes each teacher's instructional practices routinely to provide feedback;* and *develops a culture of shared responsibility for the social and academic learning of students*.

Standard 3 refers to the management of the school to support learning. Specifically, Standard 3 states, "A school administrator is 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." This standard is aligned with our core

component Culture of Learning and Professional Behavior and its intersection with each of the six key processes. Key items from our framework that match this standard are *secures and allocates resources to build a culture focused on student learning; implements a learning environment in which all students are known and cared for;* and *secures and allocates resources to build a culture focused on student learning.*

Standard 4 refers to the role of leadership in fostering relationships between the school and its broader external community: “A school administrator is 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.” This standard articulates such leadership behaviors as understanding community needs, involving community members, and understanding and valuing diversity. It is anchored in the intersection between our key processes and the core component Connections to External Communities. Specific items from our framework that are aligned with Standard 4 include *builds relationships with individuals and groups in the community to promote high standards of academic and social learning; allocates resources that build family and community partnerships which advance student learning;* and *challenges the community to meet the needs of children at risk.*

Integrity, fairness, and ethics are at the core of Standard 5: “A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.” This aspect of the ISLLC standards is evident in our core components of Culture of Learning and Professional Behavior and Systemic Performance Accountability as they intersect with advocating and communicating. We address these issues with such items as, *advocates that leaders are accountable for meeting the needs of diverse students in acquiring academic and social learning; advocates a culture of learning that respects diversity of students; encourages a culture of respect and fairness for students;* and *discusses standards of professional behavior with faculty.*

Lastly, Standard 6 refers to the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context of learning: “A school administrator is 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.” This standard reflects professional practices that include communicating to the external community, working within policies and regulations, and advocating on behalf of students and families. This standard is anchored in our framework in the key process of advocating and communicating and the core component of Connections to External Communities. We assess this aspect of leadership in our conceptual framework with such items as *promotes mechanisms for reaching families who are least comfortable at school; communicates goals, needs, and accomplishments with leaders in the community* ; and *advocates for social services needed by students and families.*

There are important differences between our framework and the ISLLC standards as well. Our conceptual framework makes systematic distinctions not captured in the standards; specifically, it distinguishes among rigorous curriculum, quality instruction and culture of learning and professional behavior. The ISLLC Standards do not. Further, our framework systematically considers each of the six key processes for each core component; the ISLLC

standards do not. Generally, there is quite good correspondence between an ISLLC standard and one of our core components.

Comparisons With Existing Leadership Assessments

The conceptual framework guiding our assessment system is different from most of the frameworks implied by assessments currently in use across the United States. We systematically reviewed leadership assessment instruments from the districts of the Council of the Great City Schools, the Wallace Foundation LEAD (Leadership for Educational Achievement in Districts) districts, and the SAELP (State Action for Education Leadership Project) states.[1] In all, 66 instruments were collected (89%) from the targeted districts and states (see Goldring et al., 2007, for complete details). The main difference between our approach and others is the extent to which our conception focuses on those core components and key processes that are associated with student achievement. Thus, we privilege instructional leadership. Over half of the instruments we reviewed do not provide any information regarding the framework or "grounding" they use to evaluate their leaders. The other half of the instruments we reviewed are based on state standards, ISLLC standards, or locally developed standards. In addition, the assessment instruments we reviewed are solely focused on "administrators" with no mention of teams. Many of the instruments are used to evaluate principals, vice-principals, and other system administrators.

To understand the content covered by an assessment, we first coded each of the items on the assessment instruments we reviewed into four broad categories: management (e.g., following policies, supervising staff), external environment (e.g., relations with community, public relations), instructional leadership (e.g., monitoring instruction, teacher professional development), and personal leadership (e.g., communication, political skills). We then calculated the percentage of the items coded into each category as a percent of the total. On average, the focus on instructional leadership outweighs other categories with an average of 52%, as compared with management (15%), relations with the external environment (9%), and personal leadership (22%). There is a range for each category; instructional leadership coverage ranges from 23% to 85% of an evaluation instrument. In contrast, our conception focuses 100% on instructional leadership, or what we term learning-centered leadership.

From the 66 instruments analyzed, we conclude that there is little consensus in the field around what should be assessed, despite the fact that over half of the assessment instruments report relying on the ISLLC standards or some derivation of them. As assessed, the content of leadership assessment is "a mile wide and an inch deep"; many aspects of

---

[1] The Wallace LEAD districts are Fairfax County (VA) Public Schools; Fort Wayne (IN) Community Schools; Providence (RI) School District; Springfield (MA) Public Schools; St. Louis (MO) Public Schools; Eugene (OR) School District; Hartford (CT) Board of Education; Atlanta (GA) Public Schools; Springfield (IL) School District; Trenton (NJ) Public Schools; New York City Region One; and Jefferson County (KY) Public Schools. The SAELP states are Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, Oregon, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Virginia.

leadership are assessed, but almost nothing is assessed in depth. For example, our framework privileges accountability, curriculum, instruction, and a culture of learning and professional behavior. Of the 66 instruments, 26 do not evaluate the principal at all regarding his/her engagement with the curriculum. One instrument has 128 items, with not one on curriculum. The largest emphasis on curriculum is an instrument with 16% of its items on curriculum. Not one instrument mentions the quality of the curriculum (rigorous curriculum). Similarly, 25 assessment instruments make no mention of quality instruction, and 22 do not assess a culture of learning and professional behavior. The specific area that is assessed most frequently across all instruments is communicating and implementing a vision. Some of the least assessed topics are coordinating across grade levels (vertical articulation), helping teachers maximize time on task, and closing the achievement gap in terms of learning for *all* children.

The core of our assessment system is a set of evidence-based behavior rating scales that measure the impact of leadership behaviors on academic and social learning in the school and community. Many of the existing instruments, however, evaluate generic, broad categories such as instructional management, school morale, personnel management, or administration and fiscal management. For example, 9 assessment instruments we reviewed simply use a list of 15 or fewer general, descriptive categories with numeric ratings. This leaves open to interpretation what the categories mean, as they lack behaviorally oriented definitions.

Our conception assesses the intersection of *what* principals or leadership teams must accomplish to improve academic and social learning for all students (the core components), and *how* they create those core components (the key processes). We evaluate the effectiveness of processes that are specifically linked to learning-centered leadership. In contrast, the instruments we reviewed emphasize management processes that are not linked to any specific aspect of teaching and learning. Most of the focus on management in the existing assessment instruments refers to following procedures and implementing personnel policies. Many existing instruments also assess generic leadership characteristics such as conflict resolution, promoting communication, or recruiting others to participate in decision making. The modal emphasis on these types of leadership characteristics is 31% of the assessment instruments. One instrument has 67% of its items on generic leadership characteristics. Our framework, in contrast, assesses specific management behaviors associated with core components and key processes, such as implementing curricular programs for students at risk or monitoring instructional practices of new teachers. We also emphasize the allocation and procurement of resources for specific purposes linked to student learning, such as ensuring a rigorous curriculum for all students or providing professional development to help teachers implement a rigorous curriculum.

This analysis of existing leadership assessment instruments has by design focused on the content of the assessment. A subsequent paper (Goldring & Cravens, 2007) on these instruments provides a comprehensive examination of their characteristics and uses. Suffice it to say for now that the vast majority of existing leadership assessment instruments being used in education have limited or no published information concerning their reliability or validity. This is an alarming situation that is in conflict with professional testing standards

(AERA, APA, NCME, 1999) and should concern all persons involved with the assessment of leadership in our schools.

Summary and Conclusions

Since the beginning days of the effective schools literature, one researcher after another has replicated the finding that effective schools have effective leadership. Early on, many people hypothesized that knowing the characteristics of effective schools would be a major step toward being able to create these schools for all children, but that has not proven to be the case. In particular, while we know that effective leadership is essential and while the research literature has provided an increasingly rich and useful description of what effective leaders do, we still have not progressed to a point where as a field we are capable of developing the number of effective school leaders necessary to meet the excellence and equity challenges in urban schools. Leadership evaluation holds great promise for providing educators with much needed information to improve leadership practices and serve accountability purposes. At the same time, there is general agreement that the current state of leadership assessment is weak. With Wallace Foundation support, we are working to remedy that deficiency.

The purpose of this paper has been to introduce the conceptual framework that drives our leadership assessment development work and provide the rationale for that framework. We are assessing school leadership behaviors at the intersection of core components (i.e., what principals or leadership teams must accomplish to improve academic and social learning for all students) and key processes (i.e., how principals or leadership teams create those core components). Using this conceptual framework, we are developing a leadership behavior inventory that will provide profiles of performance across each of the core components and across each of the key processes.

Our leadership assessment system is broader than our core components by key processes assessment of leadership behaviors. Our assessment model gives weight to how successful a school is in terms of achieving core components. For example, does the school have a rigorous curriculum or a culture of learning and professional behavior? In assessing the quality of school leadership, we also give weight to evidence of student accomplishment. For example, does the school have a relatively large value-added to student achievement? Finally, our assessment model recognizes that context matters when it comes to assessing the quality of education leadership. For example, how long has the principal been at the school? What is the composition of the student body? Are we assessing leadership at a high school or an elementary school?

Our analysis here documents that each of our core components and each of our key processes is based in research on how leadership behaviors add value to student achievement. Further, we have shown that our conceptual framework, defined by the intersection of our six core components and six key processes, is consistent with the ISLLC standards, though not redundant. For example, our conceptual framework makes systematic distinctions not captured in the ISLLC standards. Our framework distinguishes among rigorous curriculum, quality instruction, and culture of learning and professional behavior. The ISLLC standards

do not. Further, for each core component we distinguish among leadership behaviors for each of the six key processes, while the ISLLC standards do not.

Finally, we reported on our review of 66 leadership assessment instruments currently in use in districts that are members of the Council of Great City Schools, Wallace Foundation LEAD districts and states in the State Action for Education Leadership Project. Our content analyses of these existing leadership assessment instruments further demonstrate the unique strengths of our approach. In contrast to existing instruments, we focus squarely on learning-centered leadership as defined in the research literature.

Collectively, our review of research on leadership, professional standards for school leaders, and instruments currently being used across the country has provided the rationale and content design imperatives for a new assessment instrument, the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education. This new assessment focuses exclusively upon leadership behaviors linked to student learning.

References

Adair, J. (1983). *Effective leadership*. Hants, England: Gower Publishing.

Adams, J. E., & Kirst, M. W. (1999). New demands and concepts for educational accountability: Striving for results in an era of accountability. In J. Murphy & K. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration, 2nd edition* (pp. 463-489). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education (1999). *Standards for educational and psychological testing*. Washington, DC: AERA, APA, & NCME.

Austin, G. (1978, February). *Process evaluation: A comprehensive study of outlines.* Baltimore: University of Maryland, Maryland State Department of Education and Center for Research and Development.

Bamburg, J., & Andrews, R. (1990). School goals, principals, and achievement. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, *2*, 175-191.

Barth, R. (1986). *Improving schools from within.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change. Volume VIII: Implementation and sustaining innovations.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Betts, J. R., & Grogger, J. (2003). The impact of grading standards on student achievement, educational attainment, and entry-level earnings. *Economics of Education Review*, *22*, 343-352.

Biancarosa, G., & Snow, C. E. (2004). *Reading next—A vision for action and research in middle and high school literacy: A report from Carnegie Corporation of New York*. Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Brookover, W., Beady, C., Flood, P., Schweitzer, J., & Wisenbaker, J. (1979). *School social systems and student achievement: Schools can make a difference.* New York: Praeger.

Brookover, W. B., & Lezotte, L. W. (1977). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement*. East Lansing: College of Urban Development, Michigan State University

Brophy, J., & Good, T. (1986). Teacher behavior and student achievement. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 340-370). New York: Macmillan.

Bryk, A., Camburn, E., & Louis, K. S. (1999). Professional community in Chicago elementary schools. Facilitating factors and organizational consequences. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *35*, 751-781.

Bryk, A. S., & Driscoll, M. E. (1985). *An empirical investigation of the school as community.* Chicago: University of Chicago, Department of Education.

Bryk, A. S., & Driscoll, M. E. (1988). *The high school as community: Contextual influences and consequences for students and teachers.* Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison, National Center on Effective Secondary Schools.

Bryk, A. S., & Schneider, B. (2002). *Trust in schools: A core resource for improvement.* New York: Russell Sage.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Butty, J., LaPoint, V., Thomas, V., & Thompson, D. (2001). The changing face of after school programs: Advocating talent development for urban middle and high school students. *NASSP Bulletin, 58*(262), 22-34.

Carnoy, M., & Loeb, S. (2002). Does external accountability affect student outcomes? A cross-state analysis. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, *24*(4), 305-331.

Carter, T. P., & Maestas, L .C. (1982) *Bilingual education that works: Effective schools for Spanish speaking children*. Report submitted to the California State Department of Education.

Cawelti, G. (1997). *Effects of high school restructuring: Ten schools at work.* Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.

Charney, R. S. (1992). *Teaching children to care: Management in the responsive classroom.* Greenfield, MA: Northeast Foundation for Children.

Charney, R. S., & Wood, R. (1981). *The responsive classroom approach to instruction.* Greenfield, MA: Northeast Foundation for Children.

Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). (1996). *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards for School Leaders*. (Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers

Clark, D. L., Lotto, L. S., & Astuto, T. (1989). Effective schools and school improvement: A comparative analysis of two lines of inquiry. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *20*, 41-68.

Clark, D. L., Lotto, L. S., & McCarthy, M. (1980). *Why do some urban schools succeed?* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Clark, T. A., & McCarthy, D. P. (1983, April). School improvement in New York City. The evolution of a project. *Educational Researcher, 12*(4), 17-24.

Conley, D. T. (1991). Lessons from laboratories in school restructuring and site-based decision making. *Oregon School Study Council Bulletin, 34*(7), 1-61.

Conley, D. T., & Goldman, P. (1994). Ten propositions for facilitative leadership. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Reshaping the principalship: Insights from transformational reform efforts.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Corcoran, T. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). *The secondary school recognition program: A first report on 202 high schools*. Philadelphia: Research on Better Schools.

Crone, D. A., & Horner, R. H. (2003). *Building positive behavior support systems in schools.* New York: Guilford Press.

Edmonds, R., & Frederiksen, J. R. (1978). *Search for effective schools: The identification and analysis of city schools that are instructionally effective for poor children*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, Center for Urban Studies.

Elliott, S. N. (1993). *Caring to learn: A report on the positive impact of a social curriculum.* Greenfield, MA: Northeast Foundation for Children.

Elliott, S. N. (1997). *The Kensington Responsive Classroom study.* Greenfield, MA: Northeast Foundation for Children.

Elmore, R. F. (2005). Accountable leadership. *The Educational Forum, 69,* 134-142.

Eubanks, E. E., & Levine, D. U. (1983, June). A first look at effective schools projects in New York City and Milwaukee. *Phi Delta Kappan, 64*(10), 697-702.

Fullan, M. (1982). *The meaning of educational change.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M., & Pomfret, A. (1977). Research on curriculum and instructional implementation. *Review of Educational Research, 47*, 335-397.

Gamoran, A., Porter, A. C., Smithson, J., & White, P. A. (1997). Upgrading high school mathematics instruction: Improving learning opportunities for low-income, low-achieving youth. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 19*, 325-338.

Garibaldi, A. M. (1993). *Improving urban schools in inner-city communities* (Occasional Paper No. 3). Cleveland, OH: Cleveland State University, Levine College of Urban Affairs, Urban Child Research Center.

Ginsberg, R., & Berry, B. (1990). The folklore of principal evaluation. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 3*, 205-230.

Glasman, N. S., & Heck, R. H. (1992). The changing leadership role of the principal: implications for principal assessment. *Peabody Journal of Education, 68*(1), 5-24.

Goldring, E., Cravens, X., Porter, A., Murphy, J., & Elliott, S.N. (2007). *The State of Educational Leadership Evaluation: What do States and Districts Assess?*

Goldring, E., & Hausman, C. (2001). Civic capacity and school principals: The missing link in community development. In R. Crowson & B. Boyd (Eds.), *Community development and school reform.* Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Goldring, E., Huff, J., May, H., Camburn, E. (2006). *School Context and Individual Characteristics: What Influences What principals Do*? Paper presented at the annual meeting of the University Council Of Educational Administration, San Antonio, TX.

Goldring, E., & Sullivan, A. (1996). Beyond the boundaries: Principals, parents and communities shaping the school environment. In K. A. Leithwood, J. Chapman, P. Corson, & P. Hallinger (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 195-222). London: Kluwer Publications.

Gresham, F. M., Sugai, G., Horner, R. H., Quinn, M. M., & McInerney, M. (1998). *Class-wide and school-wide practices that support children's social competence: A synthesis of research.* Washington, DC: American Institutes of Research.

Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (2002). What do you call people with visions? The role of vision, mission, and goals in school improvement. In K. Leithwood, P. Hallinger, G. Furman, J. MacBeath, B. Mulford, & K. Riley (Eds.), *The second international handbook of educational leadership and administration*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980-1985. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5-44.

Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1986). The social context of effective schools. *American Journal of Education, 94*(3), 328-355.

Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985). Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals. *Elementary School Journal*, *86*, 217-247.

Hanushek, E., & Raymond, M. E. (2004). *Does school accountability lead to improved student performance?* Working Paper 10591. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Heck, R. (1992). Principals' instructional leadership and school performance: Implications for policy development. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 14*(1), 21-34.

Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. (1999). Next generation methods in the study of leadership and school improvement. In J. Murphy, & K. S. Louis (Eds.). *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration* (2nd ed., pp. 141-162). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Heck, R., Larsen, T., & Marcoulides, G. (1990). Instructional leadership and school achievement: Validation of a causal model. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *26*, 94-125.

Henderson, A. T., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). *A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement.* Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Knapp, M. S., Shields, P. M., & Turnbull, B. J. (1992). *Academic challenges for the children of poverty*. Summary report. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Lawson, H. A. (1999). Two new mental models for schools and their implications for principals' roles, responsibilities, and preparation. *Bulletin, National Association of Secondary School Principals*, *83*(611), 8-27.

Lee, V. E., Smith, J. B., & Croninger, R. G. (1995). *Another look at high school restructuring. More evidence that it improves student achievement and more insights into why.* Madison, WI: Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools.

Leithwood, K. (1994). Leadership for school restructuring. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *30*, 498-518.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (1990). *Transformational leadership: How principals can help reform school cultures*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies, Victoria, B.C.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(2), 112-129.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2005). A review of transformational school leadership research, 1996-2005. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 4*, 177-199.

Leithwood, K., & Montgomery, D. J. (1982). The role of the elementary school principal in program improvement. *Review of Educational Research, 52*(3), 309-339.

Levine, D., & Lezotte, L. (1990). *Unusually effective schools.* Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin, The National Center for Effective School Research and Development.

Levine, D. U., & Stark, J. (1982, December). Instructional and organizational arrangements that improve achievement in inner-city schools. *Educational Leadership, 40*(3), 41-46.

Lezotte, L., Hathaway, D. V., Miller, S. K., Passalacqua, J., & Brookover, W. B. (1980). *School learning climate and student achievement: A social system approach to increased student learning*. Tallahassee: Florida State University Foundation, The Site Specific Technical Assistance Center.

Lieberman, A., Falk, B., & Alexander, L. (1994). *A culture in the making: Leadership in learner-centered schools.* New York: Columbia University Teachers College, National Center for Restructuring Education, Schools, and Teaching.

Lin, R. L. (2000). Assessments and accountability. *Educational Researcher*, *29*, 4-16.

Little, J. W. (1982, Fall). Norm of collegiality and experimentation: Work-place conditions of school success. *American Educational Research Journal, 19*(3), 325-340.

Lortie, D., Crow, G., & Prolman, S. (1983). *Elementary Principals in Suburbia: An Occupational and Organizational Study.* Final report to the National Institute of Education.

Loucks, S. F., Bauchner, J.E., Crandal, D., Schmidt, W., and Eisman, J. (1982). *Portraits of the Changes, the Players, and the Contexts. A Study of Dissemination Efforts Supporting School Improvement. People, Policies, and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement*. Andover, MA: The Network, Inc.

Louis, K. S., Marks, H., & Kruse, S. (1996). Teachers' professional community in restructuring schools. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*(4), 757-798.

Louis, K. S., & Miles, M. B. (1990). *Improving the urban high school: What works and why.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Manasse, A. L. (1985). Improving conditions for principal effectiveness: Policy implications for research. *The Elementary School Journal, 85*, 439-463.

Marks, H., & Printy, S. (2003). Principal leadership and school performance: An integration of transformational and instructional leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *39*, 370-397.

Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (1983). *The Behavior of High Performing Educational Managers: An Observational Study.* Tallahassee, FL: Florida *State University.*

Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McEvoy, B. (1987, February). Everyday acts. How principals influence development of their staffs. *Educational Leadership, 44*(5), 73-77.

McKnight, C. C., Crosswhite, J. J., Dossey, J. A., Kifer, E., Swafford, J. O., Travers, K. J., et al. (1987). *The underachieving curriculum: Assessing U.S. school mathematics from an international perspective*. Champaign, IL: Stipes.

Mediratta, K., & Fruchter, N. (2001). *Mapping the field of organizing for school improvement: A report on education organizing in Baltimore, Chicago, Los Angeles, The Mississippi Delta, New York City, Philadelphia, San Francisco, and Washington, DC.* New York: New York University, The Institute for Education and Social Policy.

Murphy, J. (2005). Unpacking the foundations of ISLLC Standards and addressing concerns in the academic community. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41, 154-191.

Murphy, J., Elliott, S. N., Goldring, E., & Porter, A. C. (2006). *Learning-Centered Leadership: A Conceptual Foundation.* New York: The Wallace Foundation.

Murphy, J., & Hallinger, P. (1985, January). Effective high schools: What are the common characteristics? *NASSP Bulletin, 69*(477), 18-22.

National Research Council. (1999). *How people learn: Bridging research and practice*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Newmann, F. M. (1997). How secondary schools contribute to academic success. In K. Borman & B. Schneider (Eds.), *Youth experiences and development: Social influences and educational challenges*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Newmann, F., & Wehlage, G. (1995). *Successful school restructuring. A report to the public and educators by the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools.* Alexandria, VA and Reston, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the National Association for Secondary School Principals.

Ogden, E. H., & Germinario, V. (1995). *The nation's best schools: Blueprints for excellence*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic.

Patterson, J. L. (1993). *Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools.* Alexandria, VA: Associaiton for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Peterson, P. L. (1988). Teachers' and students' cognitional knowledge for classroom teaching and learning. *Educational Researcher, 19*(5), 9-15.

Philips, M. (1997). What makes schools effective? A comparison of the relationships of communitarian climate and academic climate to mathematics achievement and attendance during middle school. *American Educational Research Journal, 34*, 633-662.

Porter, A. (1994). National standards and school improvement in the 1990s: Issues and promise. *American Journal of Education*, *102*, 421-449.

Porter, A. C., & Brophy, J. (1988). Synthesis of research on good teaching: Insights from the work of the Institute for Research on Teaching. *Educational Leadership*, *45*, 74-85.

Porter, A. C., Floden, R., Freeman, D., Schmidt, W., & Schwille, J. (1988). Content determinants in elementary school mathematics. In D. A. Grouws & T. J. Cooney (Eds.), *Perspectives on research on effective mathematics teaching* (pp. 96-113). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. (Also Research Series 179, East Lansing: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching)

Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1983). Effective schools: A review. *The Elementary School Journal, 83*(4), 426-452.

Reeves, D. B. (2005). *Assessing educational leaders: Evaluating performance for improved individual and organizational results*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Romberg, T. A. (1988). Mathematics for compensatory school programs. In B. I. Williams, P. A. Richman, & B. J. Mason (Eds.), *Designs for compensatory education: Conference proceedings and papers*. Washington, DC: Research and Evaluation Associates.

Rosenholtz, S. J. (1989). *Teachers' workplace: The social organization of schools.* New York: Longman.

Roueche, J. E., Baker, G. A., Mullin, P. L., & Boy, N. H. O. (1986). *Profiling excellence in America's schools*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

Rowe, K. J. (1995). Factors affecting students' progress in reading: Key findings from a longitudinal study. *Literacy, Teaching and Learning, 1*(2), 57-110.

Russell, J. S., Mazzarella, J. A., White., T., & Maurer, S. (1985, June). *Linking the behaviors and activities of secondary school principals to school effectiveness: A focus on effective and ineffective behaviors.* Eugene, OR: University of Oregon, Center for Educational Policy and Management.

Rutherford, W. L. (1985, September). School principals as effective leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan, 67*(1), 31-34.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., & Ouston, J. (1979). *Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their effects on children.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Sebring, P., & Bryk, A. (2000). School leadership and the bottom line in Chicago. *Phi Delta Kappan, 81*, 440-443.

Shaver, A. V., & Walls, R. T. (1998). Effect of Title I parent involvement on student reading and mathematics achievement. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 31(*2*), 90-97.*

Sheppard, B. (1996). Exploring the transformational nature of instructional leadership. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 42*(4), 325-344.

Teddlie, C., & Stringfield, S. (1993). *Schools do make a difference: Lessons learned from a 10-year study of school effects*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Teddlie, C., Stringfield, S., Wimpelberg, R., & Kirby, P. (1989). Contextual differences in models for effective schooling in the United States. In B. Creemers, T. Peters, & D. Reynolds (Eds.), *School effectiveness and school improvement: Selected proceedings from the Second Inferential Congress* (pp. 117-130). Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Thomas, D. W., Holdaway, E., & Ward, K. (2000). Policies and practices involved in the evaluation of school principals. *Journal of personnel evaluation in education, 14*(3), 215-240.

Turnbull, B., Welsh, M., Heid, C., Davis, W., & Ratnofsky, A. C. (1999). *The longitudinal evaluation of school change and performance (LESCP) in Title I schools: Interim report to Congress*. Washington, DC: Policy Studies Associates/Westat.

Venezky, R., &Winfield, L. (1979). *Schools that succeed beyond expectations in teaching reading* (Technical Report No. 1). Newark: University of Delaware.

Waters, T., & Grubb, S. (2004). *The leadership we need: Using research to strengthen the use of standards for administrator preparation and licensure programs*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.

Weber, G. (1971). *Inner city children can be taught to read: Four successful schools* (Occasional Paper No. 18). Washington, DC: Council for Basic Education.

Wellisch, J. B., MacQueen, A. H., Carriere, R. A., & Duck, G. A. (1978, July). School management and organization in successful schools. *Sociology of Education*, *51*, 211-226.

Westat and Policy Studies Associates. (2001). *The longitudinal evaluation of change and performance in Title I schools.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Deputy Secretary, Planning and Evaluation Service.

Wharton-McDonald, R., Pressley, M., & Hampston, J. M. (1998). Literacy instruction in nine first-grade classrooms: Teacher characteristics and student achievement. *The Elementary School Journal, 99*(2), 101-128.

Wilson, B. L., & Corcoran, T. B. (1988). *Successful secondary schools: Visions of excellence in American public education*. New York: Falmer.

Wong, K. K., Hedges, L. V., Borman, G. D., & D'Agostino, J. V. (1996). *Prospectus: Special analyses*. Final Report. Washington, DC: Department of Education.

Wynne, E. (1980). *Looking at schools: Good, bad and indifferent*. Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

Key Processes						
Core Components	**Planning**	**Implementing**	**Supporting**	**Advocating**	**Communicating**	**Monitoring**
High Standards for Student Learning	←		ISLLC Standard 1			→
Rigorous Curriculum (content)	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**
Quality Instruction (pedagogy)	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**
Culture of Learning & Professional Behavior	**2, 3**	**2, 3**	**2, 3**	**2, 3, 5**	**2, 3, 5**	**2, 3**
Connections to External Communities	**4**	**4**	**4**	**4, 6**	**4, 6**	**4**
Systemic Performance Accountability				**5**	**5**	

Note: The numbers in the body of the figure refer to ISLLC standards

Figure 1. Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education: Core Components & Key Processes Intersecting with the ISLLC Standards

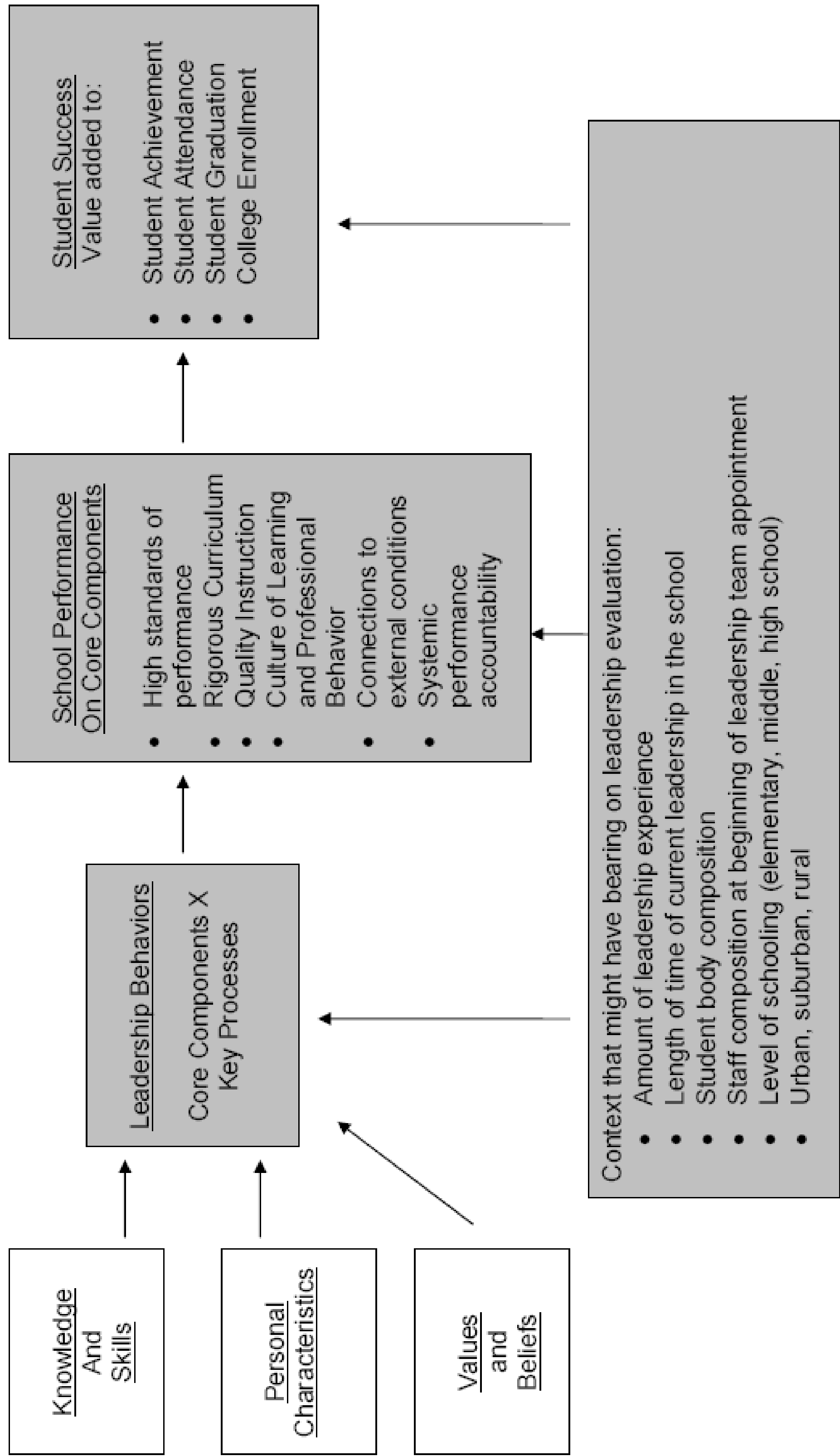

Figure 2. Model for Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education