EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Vol. 23 No. 2

The Journal of the International Society for Educational Planning
PROMOTING THE STUDY AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

International Society for Educational Planning

Reprints: Articles and reviews are available from the editor. Please contact the editor for availability and costs.
Translations: *Educational Planning* will attempt to provide readers with major language translations of journal articles. Interested members should contact the editor regarding availability and costs.

Educational Planning is the refereed journal of the International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP). *Educational Planning* is published quarterly by ISEP, which maintains editorial offices at 1000 Chastain Road, MD 1090, Kennesaw, GA, 30341.
The Journal is assigned ISSN 1537-873X by the National Serials Data Program of the Library of Congress.

For manuscript submission and membership information please see last pages.

For more information visit our web site: www.isep.info

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

A JOURNAL DEDICATED TO PLANNING, CHANGE, REFORM, AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 23 NUMBER 2

2016

From the Editors

Educational planning starts with educational leaders who have the insightful wisdom of the long term and short term planning. They would then formulate policies and implement them with the assistance of their participatory planning team. This issue of the journal is devoted to exploring the significance of leadership in educational planning both at the pre-college and higher education levels.

Babaoglan's article is to identify the level of teachers' perception of school principals' leadership behaviors; and the level of teachers' trust in colleagues, in students and parents, and in principals. She claims that trust is a critical component of successful schools and has to be a part of overall planning for the professional development of both principals and teachers.

The article of Jiang, Shu and Chan is concerned with the high percentage of beginning teachers leaving the teaching profession. The authors investigated the significance of this issue by interviewing school principals in China to solicit their strategies of working with beginning teachers. The result of this study discloses many principals' valuable right-on-target strategies deserving attention in educational planning.

Johnson's article reports his study to examine relationships between student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement. Results of data analysis did not yield any statistically significant correlation between the student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement. These findings are contradictory to empirical research on school effectiveness and student achievement. However, they provided a foundation for discussion of educational planning issues and implications for educational planning practices.

The article of Litchka and Shapira- Lishchinsky examines teacher perceptions of the transformational leadership skills of school principals, according to the teachers' school level and setting, in both Israel and the United States. Results indicate that Israel teachers perceive transformational leadership of their principals significantly higher than teachers in the United States, particularly with the relationship between the level of the school and the transformational abilities of the principal. These findings may help plan policies in support of transformational leadership in schools.

Lastly, the exploratory study by Menna, Catalfamo and Girolamo proposes a framework to examine applied entrepreneurship as a conceptual framework of college planning by exploring the differences between colleges that use innovation (research and development) and entrepreneurship/small business (self-employment and start-ups) approaches. In examining the findings of the study, the researchers concluded that including applied entrepreneurship in the strategic planning processes of colleges is an important step toward the attainment of innovation and entrepreneurship outcomes.

From articles of this issue, we learn the significant connections between leadership, policies, implementation practices and strategies in educational planning. We look forward to further discussion of these educational planning issues from our faithful readers.

Editor: Tak Cheung Chan
Associate Editors: Walt Polka and Peter Litchka
Assistant Editor: Holly Catalfamo

May 2016

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Emine Babaoğlan is Associate Professor of Educational Science in the Faculty of Education at Bozok University in Turkey. She has served as a teacher and supervisor for sixteen years and is a researcher in the field of educational management, leadership, and supervision.

Tak Cheung Chan, Professor Emeritus of Educational Leadership, Kennesaw State University, Georgia, is a graduate of the University of Georgia. He was a classroom teacher, assistant school principal, school principal, and district office administrator. His previous experience in higher education includes serving as a faculty member of educational leadership at Valdosta State University, Georgia Southern University and Kennesaw State University. His research interests include educational planning, facility planning, school business administration, school finance, and international education.

Cosimo Girolamo is an Operations Management Professor at the Niagara College School of Business & Management. He holds an Honours Bachelor of Engineering in Electrical Engineering degree as well as a Masters of Business Administration degree.

Binbin Jiang, Professor of International Education, Leadership and Research, is an international scholar with extensive experience in developing and implementing professional development to K-16 teachers from Mexico, Japan, and China, as well as in the United States. Dr. Jiang has also published extensive research regarding the effects of student teaching abroad in Belize, China, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Mexico. Dr. Jiang's research and publication focus includes effective teaching and leadership in four areas: multicultural education, international education, effective teaching of second and foreign languages, and the preparation of educational leaders and programs.

Arvin D. Johnson is an Assistant Professor of Educational Leadership at Kennesaw State University. He is a graduate of the University of North Florida in Jacksonville, Florida. Dr. Johnson's K-12 public school experience includes being a classroom teacher, assistant principal, and school principal. His previous experience in higher education includes serving as an adjunct faculty member at Jacksonville University and St. John's River State College. His research interests include educational planning, principal preparation, instructional best practices, social justice, and brain-based learning and leadership.

Peter R. Litchka is Associate Professor of Education and Program Director for Educational Leadership at Loyola University Maryland. He is co-author of two books and a third book is schedule for release in August 2016. Dr. Litchka has authored numerous articles in the United States, Poland and Turkey, where he has also provided leadership training development and conference presentations.

Agostino Menna is a Professor of Entrepreneurship and Economics at the Niagara College School of Business & Management. He holds a Ph.D. from the University of Toronto.

Orly Shapira-Lishchinsk is a senior lecturer in the Department of Educational Administration, Leadership and Policy, School of Education, at Bar-Ilan University, Israel. Her research areas include: organizational ethics, teachers' withdrawal behaviors (lateness, absenteeism and intent to leave) and mentoring through Team-based-Simulation. She was awarded the Emerald/EFMD Award and the European grant: MARIE SKŁODOWSKA-CURIE. Dr. Shapira-Lishchinsk has published extensive research in a wide range of highly ranked scholarly journals.

Zhiding Shu is Dean of College of Education at Huzhou University, Huzhou, China. His higher educational experiences include faculty and Chair of Educational Leadership Department at Shanghai Normal University. His research focuses on educational philosophy and leadership with presentations and publications in many national and international settings.

IMPROVING PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER RELATIONSHIP: PREDICTIVE POWER OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP WITH TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST PERCEPTION

EMINE BABAOGLAN

ABSTRACT

Trust is a critical component of successful schools, especially trust between the principals and the teachers. Trust does not happen automatically. It has to be a part of overall planning for the professional development of both principals and teachers. The aim of this study is to identify the level of teachers' perception of school principals' leadership behaviors; and the level of teachers' trust in colleagues, in students and parents, and in principals. The study also aims to detect the predictive power of teachers' perception of school principals' leadership over teachers' organizational trust perception. The participants of this research are the teachers working in the primary and secondary schools located in the districts and villages of Burdur City of Turkey which provided education during 2009-2010 school years. For the research, the entire population of 2230 teachers in the Burdur City was invited. Of the 2230 teachers, 1891 responded to the questionnaire. They worked in 196 schools throughout Burdur, 154 of which are primary and 42 are secondary. Omnibus T Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991) were used in the research. In the study it is found that, with respect to teachers' perception, the level of principals' leadership was high; the perception level of teachers' trust in colleagues and principals was high, whereas their perception of trust in students and parents was at medium level. It is also found that the relationship between teachers' leadership perception and their perception of trust in their principals was positive and significant at a high level while the relationship between teachers' perception of trust in colleagues and in students and parents was positive and significant at low level.

INTRODUCTION

Educational planning is critical to the success of schools. Having an understanding of where a school has been, where it is now, and where it is heading will help the principal and the teachers' better plan for the future. While educational planning is often focused on student outcomes, successful schools also create and implement plans for the improved relationship between the principals and the teachers. In particular, the trust that develops (or doesn't develop) between the principals and the teachers can have a significant impact on how well students learn.

Leadership studies have been a focus of the literature in management and organizational behavior. Since leadership is an interdisciplinary field, a wide range of research has been published in the areas of psychology, sociology, politics, management, educational administration and government (Yukl, 1989).

Researchers define leadership from their own points of view with different definitions. Bass (1990, p. 11) stated that leadership is a "group process", "a personality case (issue)", "a case of inducing compliance", "influencing experience", "exclusive behaviors", "a form of persuasion", "power relations", "a means for goal achievement", "an effect of interaction", "a differentiated role", "initiation of structure" and the various combinations of these definitions. Yukl (1989) defined leadership as influencing the objectives and the strategies of the mission; the loyalty and compliance to achieve these objectives; and the group and the organizational culture. Leadership is, for Northouse (2009), a process in which a person influences the group in order to achieve a common goal. For Erdoğan (2010), leadership is realizing the objectives of an organization and initiating a new structure and procedure to change the objectives. For Şişman (2002), it is the power to influence and prompt others to act in line with certain goals and objectives. Leadership comprises forethought, setting a prudential and credible vision and goals for the organization, and mobilizing the individuals to achieve them (Şişman & Turan, 2002).

Leadership enhances the shared values and beliefs, sense of community and collaboration (Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2004).

One of the first studies that emphasized the significance of educational leaders was conducted by Edmonds (1979). The researcher detected that the skills and competence of school principals were the fundamental factors which affected the school performance in a positive way. According to Elliot (2000), leadership practices were important components of effective schools. Additionally, a number of researches have indicated that effective educational leaders enhanced student and school success (Cistone & Stevenson, 2000; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2004). Another study demonstrated that both the teachers and the school principals' leadership behaviors supported teachers' effectiveness (Azodi, 2006). Arnold, Barling and Kelloway (2001) found that the transformational leadership increased commitment and team effectiveness, while Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2003) found that there was a positive relationship between leadership and culture.

Moreover, other studies confirm that leadership behaviors affect the production outputs such as attitudes, efforts and working performance of the personnel. For example, Howell and Frost (1989) concluded that charismatic leadership behaviors were related to both the performance and the conformity to the mission, the leader and the group. Furthermore, it is understood that there was a meaningful relationship between the level of administrator's leadership behaviors that teachers observed and the level of teachers' job satisfaction (Yılmaz & Ceylan, 2011).

Various definitions of the organizational trust are also found in the literature. Trust was described as an individual's belief in another person's competence, openness and reliability (Mishra, 1996). Similarly, trust is the belief that the employer will be honest, deliver his/her commitments, and hold employees together (Callaway, 2006). Trust is a person's, a group's or an organization's confidence that another person, group or organization will protect the rights and benefits of everyone who voluntarily works or engages in an economic action together (Hosmer, 1995). Trust can also mean the voluntary acceptance of a party that an important action will be performed by the other party as expected without being controlled (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). Trust is a psychological state which involves the willingness to accept the vulnerabilities and weaknesses related to the positive expectations about others' intentions and behaviors (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). For Hosmer (1995), trust is the high expectations or personal decisions based on confidence related to the consequences of an unknown event although it is impossible to control other's actions and despite the vulnerability and weakness of individuals. According to Çelik (2015a), insecure places produce negative behaviors.

Much research revealed that organizational trust is another organizational variable to which the leadership is related. For example, it is found that there was a strong relationship between leadership behavior and organizational trust, in which the leadership behavior affected the other (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). As a result of this impact, the followers feel trust and respect for the leader and get motivated to do more than what is expected of them (Yukl, 1989). In a similar way, Yeh (2007) found that there was a meaningful and positive relationship between the leadership behaviors of managers and the workers' trust in the organization. For Childers (2009), there was a link between transformational leadership and trust. Arnold, Barling and Kelloway's (2001) research showed that transformational leadership increased trust and Laka-Mathebula (2004) found that there was a relationship between the style of leadership and trust. Azodi (2006) detected a significant relationship between leadership and the school principal's trust in the teachers, the students, and the families. Yılmaz (2006) found that the school principals' ethical leadership skills had an impact on the organizational trust level in schools. Zhu, May and Avolio (2004), and Yılmaz (2004) revealed a positive relationship between the school principals' leadership behaviors and the organizational trust. According to Arslantaş and Dursun (2008), ethical leadership behavior had a direct impact on cognitive trust. For Yılmaz (2004), there was a high-level, positive and significant relationship between school principals' leadership behaviors and trust; furthermore, there was a meaningful relationship

between school principals' supportive leadership behaviors and teachers' trust in their principals, colleagues, students and parents. Demir (2008) revealed that the transformational leadership styles of the administrators had an impact on the organizational justice perception and the trust in the administrator had a positive role in this relationship. In their studies, Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012) found that teachers' perception of the organizational trust was positive. The researchers also revealed a high-level of positive relationship between the supportive leadership behaviors of the school principals and the teachers' trust in them; and the medium-level of positive relationship between the supportive leadership behaviors of the school principals and the teachers' trust perception of their colleagues and stakeholders.

In an organization, the trust between the management and the employees is important (Callaway, 2006). The leadership of the organizational manager is considered to be significant in terms of the employees' trust in the organization. In other words, the behavioral patterns and the roles of the manager influence the employees' trust in the organization (Yeh, 2007). The mutual trust among the organizational members and between the management and their employees brings about communication and extraordinary success within the organization (Callaway, 2006). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) revealed that when employees had trust in their leaders, transformational leadership behavioral effected organizational citizenship behavior. On the basis of these findings, the researchers emphasized that as a result of transformational leadership behaviors, the performance increases more than what is expected. Korkmaz (2008) found the transformational leadership of the high school principals influenced the trust and cooperative atmosphere within schools. According to Çelik (2015b), where it is dominated by bureaucratic control, fear and distrust reveal.

A number of studies revealed that organizational trust was related to a number of organizational variables. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), for example, found that there was a link between trust and the openness of the organizational climate, cooperation among colleagues, professionalism, and authenticity. According to the researchers, open and authentic behaviors of managers led to higher employee trust, in other words, the behavior of managers determined trust. Sağlam Arı (2003) found that there was a positive relationship between the trust in the manager and organizational commitment, while Milligan (2004) detected a statistically significant relationship between organizational trust and organizational commitment and between trust in a manager and the likelihood of an employee quitting a job. Laka-Mathebula (2004) showed that there was a link between organizational commitment and leadership styles. In his research, Uz (2006) detected that there was a positive and strong relationship between trust and communication in administrator-officer relationships, while Koç and Yazıcıoğlu (2011) revealed that there was a positive relationship between trust in a manager and the job satisfaction of workers. Polat and Celep (2008) showed that when the organizational trust perception of secondary education teachers was at a high level, then organizational trust was related both to organizational justice and to organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational trust has a significant effect on teachers to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors.

In Turkey, the leadership of school principals is the focus of much research. Akbaba Altun (2003), for example, found that school principals considered the elements of transformational leadership significant; however, they did not put them into practice. Babaoğlan and Litchka (2010) came to the conclusion that the leadership efficiency of school principals was at high level, according to the perceptions of both principals and teachers. Altınkurt and Karaköse (2009) revealed that although the ethical leadership behaviors of school principals were generally perceived positively, this perception was not so high. Moreover, the researchers revealed that almost half of the teachers did not think the school principals were tolerant and fair enough. Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012) detected in their research that the teachers' perception pertaining to the leadership behaviors of the school principals was positive.

A considerable amount of research in Turkey focuses on the trust condition of organizations. For example, Uz (2006) detected that managers and officers did not have sufficient trust in each other, and also there was a meaningful difference between their

perceptions. Özer, Demirtaş, Üstüner and Cömert (2006) found that the organizational trust level within high schools was medium. Sağlam Arı and Güneri Tosunoğlu (2011) identified that honesty, competence, openness, loyalty, and consistency influenced trust in their subordinates.

The leadership behaviors of school principals affect and determine many variables within the school organization. One of these variables is the employee's perception of trust in organization. As the leadership behaviors of the school principals improve, the teachers' perception level of organizational trust in the school gets better as well. In this research, while the leadership behavior of school principals was dealt with unidimensionally, perception of trust in organizations was handled in three dimensions. "Trust in colleague," one of the sub-dimensions of trust in organization, refers to teachers' trust in their colleagues. The perception of "trust in students and parents" indicates the trust the teachers have in their students and their parents. "Trust in principal" perception means the teachers' trust in their school principals.

There is limited research which investigates the relationship between the leadership of the primary and secondary school principals in Turkey and organizational trust (Arslantaş & Dursun, 2008; Yılmaz, 2006; Yılmaz, 2004; Yılmaz & Altınkurt 2012). Therefore, more research needs to be conducted to explore the relationship between the two organizational variables. In this regard, the aim of this research is to investigate, from the primary and secondary school teachers' point of view, how the organizational trust perception of teachers is affected by their school principals' leadership. Thus, to accomplish this objective, the following question is considered: From the primary and secondary school teachers' perspective, how does the leadership of school principals affect the organizational trust perception of teachers?

METHODOLOGY

This study employed a quantitative research approach in which the relational screening method was used.

Participants

The participants of this research were the teachers working in the primary and secondary schools located in the districts and villages of Burdur City of Turkey during 2009-2010 school year. The entire population of teachers was 2,230 teachers. Questionnaires were sent to all the teachers. Only 1891 teachers completed the questionnaire for the research. The 1,891 teachers worked in 196 schools throughout Burdur, 154 of which are primary and 42 are secondary. The 1891 teachers aged from 20 to 65. All teacher demographics were displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: Teacher Demographics

Features of Teachers		**Number (%)**	Total (%)
Gender	Female	885 (47%)	
	Male	972 (51%)	1891 (100%)
	No response	34 (2%)	
Married	Married	1541 (81.5%)	
	Not Married	331 (17.5%)	1891 (100%)
	No response	19 (1%)	
Children	Having Children	1368(72%)	
	Not Having Children	486(26%)	1891 (100%)
	No response	37 (2%)	
Branch of Teacher	Classroom Teacher	572 (30%)	
	Teachers of Other Subject	660 (35%)	1891 (100%)
	No response	659 (35%)	
School Type	Primary Schools	1276 (67.4%)	1891 (100%)
	Secondary Schools	615 (32.5%)	

School Location	Urban	754 (40%)	1891 (100%)
	Non-Urban	1037 (55%)	
	No response	100 (5%)	
Graduation	Bachelor's Degree	1624 (85.9%)	1891 (100%)
	Two-year Degree	166 (8.8%)	
	Masters or Ph.D. Degrees	54 (2.8%)	
	No response	47 (2.5%)	

Data Collection Tools

The teachers' perception of their school principals' leadership behaviors was measured by the "Leadership Behavior Questionnaire," which was developed by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, p. 17-26) and adapted into Turkish by Tengilimoğlu (2005). The unidimensional questionnaire consists of 36 statements. Some of the statements are as follows: 1. Is friendly, 2. Listens to ideas and suggestions, and 3. Creates order. The scale is a 5-point Likert-type scale with the answers ranging as 1. Never, 2. Rarely, 3. Sometimes, 4. Mostly 5. Always. High scores indicate that the leadership behavior is perceived as positive while low scores imply the opposite. The alpha reliability coefficient of the Leadership Behavior Scale was found to be .73.

To measure the teachers' perception of organizational trust in their schools, "Omnibus T Scale," was used in this study. It was developed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) and adapted into Turkish by Özer, Demirtaş, Üstüner, and Cömert (2006). The scale consists of 20 statements. The organizational trust scale consists of three sub-dimensions. Some examples of the sub-dimensions and the statements in the scale are as follows: Trust in colleagues: 1. Teachers in this school trust each other, 2. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other. Trust in students and parents: 1. Students in this school care about each other, 2. Parents in this school are reliable in their commitments. Trust in administrator: 1. Teachers in this school can rely on the principal. 2. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal. If the working group has a high score on every dimension this means that the trust level is high while a low score indicates a low trust feeling. The scale is a 5-point Likert-type ranging from 1. Disagree, 2. Low Agree, 3. Mid Agree, 4. Mostly Agree, to 5. Strongly Agree. A high score on this scale means that the trust level is high, whereas a low score means the trust level is low. The alpha reliability coefficient of the trust in colleague dimension, one of the sub-dimensions of the organizational trust scale, was found to be .77; the alpha reliability coefficient of the trust in students and parents dimension was found to be .83; and the alpha reliability coefficient of the trust in principal dimension was found to be .70.

The mean score for leadership behavior and trust are as follows: 1 - 1.79 = Very low level; 1.80 – 2.59 = Low level; 2.60 – 3.39 = Medium level; 3.40 – 4.19 = High level and 4.20 – 5.00 = Very high level.

Data Analysis

A simple linear regression analysis was carried out to identify how the leadership behaviors of school principals affect (predict) the "trust in colleagues", "trust in students and parents", and "trust in principal" perceptions of the teachers (Can, 2013). The IBM SPSS 20 software was used in research data analysis.

FINDINGS

The descriptive analysis and regression analysis findings regarding the "leadership behaviors" of the school principals from the perspectives of primary and secondary school teachers; and teachers' perception level with respect to their "trust in colleagues", "trust in student and parents" and "trust in principal" can be found in this section. The results of the descriptive analysis are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

	$\overline{X}$ /Std.Error	Level	Measurement Range Points (Min-Max)
Leadership Behavior	4.0866±.82203	High level	1.00-5.00
Trust in Colleagues	3.7952±.83027	High level	1.00-5.00
Trust in student and parents	3.2400±.78647	Medium level	1.00-5.00
Trust in principal	4.0073±.91864	High level	1.00-5.00

As seen in Table 1, with respect to primary and secondary school teachers' perception, the average of the leadership behaviors of the school principals is ($\overline{X}$=4.0866), the average of the teachers' trust in colleagues is ($\overline{X}$=3.7952), the average of the teachers' trust in students and parents is ($\overline{X}$=3.2400)), the average of the teachers' trust in the school principal is ($\overline{X}$=4.0073). Considering the averages, with respect to teachers' perception, the leadership behaviors of school principals were perceived to be at a high level, teachers' perception of trust in colleagues, and trust in school principals were also at a high level but their perception of trust in students and parents was at a medium level.

The results of the simple linear regression analysis, which was carried out to identify, with respect to teachers' perception, the predictive power of the leadership behaviors of school principals over teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues," "trust in students and parents" and "trust in principal" are presented in Table 3.

Since the p-value (p=0.00) in the table, relating to the perception of "trust in colleagues," is smaller than .05, it indicates that the R=.45-value calculated for the relationship between the predictor and predicted variables in the regression model is significant. In other words, in this regression model, the linear relationship between the teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues" and the leadership behaviors of the school principals is at a statistically significant level.

Data analysis shows that there is a significant relationship between the leadership behaviors of the school principals and the teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues" (R=.45 R^2=.202), and the leadership behaviors of the school principals have a significant predictive power over teachers' trust in colleagues ($F_{(1-1889)}$=479.437). The leadership behaviors of the school principals explain the 20% of the change in the teachers' perception of trust in colleagues. The significance test for the leadership behavior coefficient (B=0.088), the predictor variable in the regression equation, shows that the leadership behavior is a significant predictor. According to these results, it can be said that, 20% of the total variance in the teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues" results from their opinions towards the "leadership behaviors" of their school principals. The regression equation for the teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues" is as follows:

Trust in Colleague = (.088 x Leadership Behavior) + 13.567

Table 3: The simple linear regression analysis, to identify the predictive power of the leadership behaviors of school principals over teachers' perception of "trust in colleagues," "trust in students and parents" and "trust in school principal".

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	St. Error	β	t
Trust in Colleagues	Intercept	13.567	,606	-	22.403
	Leadership Behavior	.088	.004	.450	21.896
		R=.45	*R^2=.202*	*$F_{(1-1889)}$=479.437*	*p=0.00*
	Intercept	14.83	.686	-	21.606

Trust in student and parents	Leadership Behavior	.075	.005	,355	16.481
		R=.355	*R^2=.126*	*$F_{(1-1889)}$=271.620*	*p=0.00*
Trust in principal	Intercept	1,133	,301	-	3,769
	Leadership Behavior	,128	,002	,828	64,141
		R=.828	*R^2=.685*	*$F_{(1-1889)}$=4114.128*	*p=0.00*

The p-value (p=0.00) in the table, relating to the perception of "trust in students and parents," is smaller than .05 indicating that the R=.35-value calculated for the relationship between the predictor and predicted variables in the regression model is significant. In other words, in this regression model, the linear relationship between the teachers' perception of "trust in students and parents" and the leadership behaviors of the school principals is at a statistically significant level.

It is found that there is a significant relationship between the leadership behaviors of the school principals and the teachers' perception of "trust in students and parents" (R=.355 R^2=.126), and the leadership behaviors of the school principals have a meaningful predictive power over teachers' trust in students and parents ($F_{(1-1889)}$=271.620). The leadership behaviors of the school principals explain the 12% of the change in the teachers' perception of trust in students and parents. The significance test for the leadership behavior coefficient (B=0.075), the predictor variable in the regression equation, shows that the leadership behavior is a significant predictor. According to these results, it can be said that, 12% of the total variance in the teachers' perception of "trust in students and parents" results from their opinions towards the "leadership behaviors" of their school principals. The regression equation for the teachers' perception of "trust in students and parents" is as follows:

Trust in Students and Parents = (.075 x Leadership Behavior) + 14.830

The fact that the p-value (p=0.00) in the table, relating to the perception of "trust in principal," is smaller than .05 indicates that the R=.828-value calculated for the relationship between the predictor and predicted variables in the regression model is significant. In other words, in this regression model, the linear relationship between the teachers' perception of "trust in principal" and the leadership behaviors of the school principals is at a statistically significant level.

It is seen that there is a significant relationship between the leadership behaviors of the school principals and the teachers' perception of "trust in principal" (R=.828 R^2=.685), and the leadership behaviors of the school principals have a significant predictive power over teachers' trust in them ($F_{(1-1889)}$=4114.128). The leadership behaviors of the school principals explain the 68% of the change in the teachers' perception of trust in their principals. The significance test for the leadership behavior coefficient (B=0.128), the predictor variable in the regression equation, shows that the leadership behavior is a significant predictor. According to these results, it can be said that 68% of the total variance in the teachers' perception of "trust in principal" results from their opinions towards the "leadership behaviors" of their school principals. The regression equation for the teachers' perception of "trust in principal" is as follows:

Trust in Principal = (.128 x Leadership Behavior) + 1.133

While there is a low-level relationship between the teachers' perception of their school principals' "leadership behaviors" and their perception of "trust in colleagues" and "trust in students and parents," the relationship between the teachers' perception of the "leadership behaviors" of their school principals and their perception of "trust in principal" is found to be positive at a high significant level. The relationship at the highest level identified in the research

is between the leadership of the school principals and "trust in principal." The relationship at the lowest level, on the other hand, is between the leadership of the school principals' and the perception of "trust in students and parents."

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research results demonstrate that the teachers' perceptions of leadership behaviors of the school principals were at a high level and the teachers' trust in colleagues and in principal were at a high level while their trust in students and parents was at a medium-level.

The findings of the research revealed that there was a meaningful relationship between the primary and secondary school teachers' perception of the leadership behaviors of their principals and their perception of trust in principal. The teachers' perception of the leadership behaviors of their principals had a strong predictive power over their trust in their principals. Moreover, the teachers' leadership perception of their principals explains their trust in their principal by 68% (a ratio of two over three). This finding suggests that if the leadership behaviors of the school principals are perceived to be more positve, the teachers' perception of trust in principals will also increase to a large extent. Yılmaz (2004) and Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012), who had arrived at parallel findings with those of this study in their previous researches, identified that there was a positive and high-level relationship between the supportive leadership behaviors of the principals and teachers' perception of trust in the principal; that the supportive leadership behaviors of principals explain the perception of trust in principal by a ratio of two over three and had a strong predictive power over teachers' perception of organizational trust.

In this research, it is found that the relationship between the teachers' leadership perception of their principals and their perception of trust in colleagues, and trust in students and parents were positive though at a low level. The teachers' perception of the leadership behaviors of their principals explains their trust in colleagues by 20% (a ratio of one over five) and their trust in students and parents by 12% (by ratio of one over eight). This finding signals that if the leadership behaviors of the school principals become more positive, there will also be an increase, even if it is slight, in the teachers' perception of trust in their colleagues and trust in students and parents. In other words, the leadership of the school principals has a low-level predictive power over the teachers' trust in colleagues, and trust in students and parents. Yılmaz (2004) and Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012), who conducted a research in a similar topic, identified that there was a positive and medium-level relationship between the supportive leadership behaviors of the principals and teachers' perception of trust in colleagues and stakeholders. They also found in their researches that the supportive leadership behaviors of principals explained teachers' perception of trust in colleagues by a ratio of one over three, and their perception of trust in stakeholders by a ratio of one over five. Demir (2015) concluded that trust in colleagues have the high correlations with teacher collaboration and supportive work environment. According to Salı (2014) when establishing positive relationships with people, it is easier to accept and support them.

According to the findings of this study, improved school principals' leadership behaviors can support developing trust between the school leader and the teachers. In particular, if school principals integrate strategies to improve organizational trust into the strategic planning process by implementing specific leadership styles, school principals may be able to improve the climate of the school. School principals can plan professional development that focuses on building trust. On the basis of the findings, it can be said that as the leadership behaviors of the school principals improve, the teachers' perception level of trust in colleagues, trust in students and parents, and trust in principals will improve as well. If the school principals want to have a successful school, improvement of leadership behaviors sounds significant.

Additional research on the relationship between the leadership of the school principals and organizational trust needs to be carried out to confirm the findings of this study. It is recommended that qualitative and quantitative research methods be used in future research.

REFERENCES

Akbaba Altun, S. (2003). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin dönüşümcü liderliğe verdikleri önem ve uygulama düzeyleri. *İlköğretim Online, 2*(1), 10-17.

Altınkurt, Y., & Karaköse, T. (2009). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin etik liderlik davranışlarına ilişkin öğretmen görüşleri. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 24*, 269-280.

Arnold, K. A., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Transformational leadership or the iron cage: Which predicts trust, commitment and team efficacy. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 22*(7), 315-320.

Arslantaş, C., & Dursun, M. (2008). Etik liderlik davranışının yöneticiye duyulan güven ve psikolojik güçlendirme üzerindeki etkisinde etkileşim adaletinin dolaylı rolü. *Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 8*(1), 111-128.

Azodi, D. S. (2006). *Principal, leadership, trust and teacher efficacy.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Sam Houston State University, USA.

Babaoğlan, E., & Litchka, P. R. (2010). An examination of leadership competencies of school principals in Turkey and the United States. *Education and Science, 35*(158), 58-74.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications,* 3rd. Ed., New York: The Free Press.

Callaway, P. L. (2006). *The relationship between organizational trust and job satisfaction: An analysis in the U.S. Federal Work Force*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Capella University, USA.

Can, A. (2013). SPSS ile bilimsel araştırma sürecinde nicel veri analizi. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık.

Childers, W. H. (2009). *Transformational leadership and its relationship to trust and behavioral integrity.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Saybrook Graduate School and Research Center, USA.

Cistone, P. J., & Stevenson, J. M. (2000). Perspectives on the urban school principalship. *Education & Urban Society, 32*(4), 435-442.

Çelik, E. (2015a). Batı edebiyatında polisiye romanın gelişimi sürecinde düşünsel ve sosyal etkiler. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyolojik Araştırmalar E-Dergisi,* 1-14

Çelik, E. (2015b). Distopik romanlarda toplumsal kurgu. *Sosyoloji Araştırmaları Dergisi, 18*(1), 57-79.

Demir, K. (2015). The effect of organizational trust on the culture of teacher leadership in primary schools. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 15*(3), 621-634.

Demir, N. (2008). Liderlik tarzının örgütsel adalet ile ilişkisi ve lidere olan güvenin bu ilişkideki rolü. *Öneri*, *8*(30), 195-205.

Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership, 37*(1), 15-24.

Ekvall, G., & Arvonen, J. (1991). Change-centered leadershıp: An extension of the two-dimensional model. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 7*(1), 17-26.

Elliot, S. E. (2000). *The relationship between teacher efficacy and principal leadership behaviors and teacher background variables in elementary schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut.

Erdoğan, İ. (2010). *Eğitim ve okul yönetimi.* İstanbul: Alfa Basım Yayım Dağıtım.

Hosmer, L. T. (1995). Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics. *The Academy of Management Review, 20*(2), 379-403.

Howell, J. M., & Frost, P. J. (1989). A laboratory study of charismatic leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *43*, 243–269.

Koç, H., & Yazıcıoğlu, İ. (2011). Yöneticiye duyulan güven ile iş tatmini arasındaki ilişki: kamu ve özel sektör karşılaştırması. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi, 12*(1), 46-57.

Korkmaz, M. (2008). Okul müdürlerinin liderlik stilleri ile öğrenen örgüt özellikleri arasındaki ilişki üzerine nicel bir araştırma. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi, 53,* 75-98.

Laka-Mathebula, M. R. (2004). *Modeling the relationship between organizational commitment, leadership style, human resources management practices and organizational trust*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

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 (ASCD).

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *The Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709-734.

Milligan, P. K. (2004). *The impact of trust in leadership on officer commitment and intention to leave military service in the U.S. Air Force.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation*,* Capella University, USA.

Mishra, A. K. (1996). Organizational responses to crisis: The centrality of trust. Kramer. In, M. Roderick & T. Tyler, (Eds.), *Trust in Organizations* (pp. 261-287). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Northouse, P. (2009). *Leadership theory and practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Özer, N., Demirtaş, H., Üstüner, M., & Cömert, M. (2006). Ortaöğretim öğretmenlerinin örgütsel güven algıları. *Ege Eğitim Dergisi, 7*(1), 103-124.

Parry, K., & Proctor Thomson, S. B. (2003). Leadership, culture and performance: the case of the New Zealand public sector. *Journal of Change Management*, *3*(4), 376-399.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107-142.

Polat, S., & Celep, C. (2008). Ortaöğretim öğretmenlerinin örgütsel adalet, örgütsel güven, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarına ilişkin algıları. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi, 54,* 307-331.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkinn, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: a cross discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 393-404.

Salı, G. (2014). Okulöncesi dönem çocuklarında akran ilişkilerinin ve akran şiddetine maruz kalmanın çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 43*(2), 195-216.

Sağlam Arı, G. (2003). Yöneticiye duyulan güven örgütsel bağlılığı artırır mı? *Gazi Üniversitesi Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 60*(1), 121-148.

Sağlam Arı, G., & Güneri Tosunoğlu, N. (2011). Geleceğin yöneticileri astlarına güvende hangi özelliklere öncelik veriyor? *Yönetim ve Ekonomi, 18*(2), 85-103.

Şişman, M. (2002). *Öğretim liderliği.* Ankara: PegemA Yayıncılık.

Şişman, M., & Turan, S. (2002). *Eğitimde toplam kalite yönetimi*. 2. Baskı, Ankara:PegemA Yayıncılık.

Tengilimoğlu, D. (2005). Hizmet işletmelerinde liderlik davranışları ile iş doyumu arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma. *Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 1,* 23-45.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, W. (1998). Trust in schools: A conceptual and empirical analysis. *Journal of Educational Administration, 36*(4), 334-352.

Uz, O. (2006). *T. C. kamu sektöründe yönetici-yönetilen ilişkilerinde iletişim ve güven.* Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Atılım Üniversitesi, İstanbul. Retrieved 14 February, 2014 from https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/tarama.jsp

Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. A. (2004). Leadership that sparks learning. *Educational Leadership*, *61*(7), 48-51.

Yeh, T. (2007). *Leadership behavior, organizational trust and organizational commitment among volunteers in Taiwanese nonprofit foundations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Incarnate Word.

Yılmaz, A., & Ceylan, Ç. B. (2011). İlköğretim okul yöneticilerinin liderlik davranış düzeyleri ile öğretmenlerin iş doyumu ilişkisi. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi, 17*(2), 277-394.

Yılmaz, E. (2006). *Okullardaki örgütsel güven düzeyinin okul yöneticilerinin etik liderlik özellikleri ve bazı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation tezi, Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya. Retrieved 14 February, 2014 from https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/tarama.jsp

Yılmaz, K. (2004). İlköğretim okulu öğretmenlerinin görüşlerine göre okul yöneticilerinin liderlik davranışları ile okullardaki güven arasındaki ilişki. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *5(*8), 117-131.

Yılmaz, K. ve Altınkurt, Y. (2012). Relationship between the leadership behaviors, organizational justice and organizational trust. *Çukurova University Faculty of Education Journal*, *41*(1), 12-24.

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management, 15*(2), 251-289.

Zhu, W., May, D. R. & Avolio, B. J. (2004). The impact of ethical leadership behavior on employee outcomes: the roles of psychological empowerment and authenticity. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*(1), 16-26.

PLANNING TO HELP NEW TEACHERS IN CHINA: PERSPECTIVES OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

BINBIN JIANG
ZHIDING SHU
TAK CHEUNG CHAN

ABSTRACT

Reports have indicated a high percentage of beginning teachers leaving the teaching profession in their first few years of work. This is causing huge amount of wasteful resources invested in teacher education. Planning to retain beginning teachers in the teaching profession has become an urgent challenge for educational leaders. To investigate the significance of this issue, the authors interviewed over thirty elementary school principals from Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Shanxi provinces in China to solicit their strategies of working with beginning teachers. The result of this study discloses many principals' valuable right-on-target strategies deserving public attention. Chinese principals took teaching specialization as the prioritized criterion for hiring new teachers. They mentored and supervised beginning teachers. They advised them for successful practices in effective teaching strategies, interacting with parents and guardians, handling disciplinary issues, ethics and behaviors, collaboration with colleagues, and professional development. Principals' perspectives have contributed much to guiding the directions of planning strategies to help new teachers in China.

INTRODUCTION

Many new and highly qualified teachers left the teaching profession after a few years of teaching. This represents a great loss of community resources invested in teacher preparation (Britton, Paine & Raizen, 1999). An effective teacher retention program has to be planned and put to practice to keep some of the best teachers in our profession in place. In launching this extensive teacher retention program, school principals could play a very significant role in planning to work with new teachers to ensure that they are in a positive and inviting teaching environment.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Literature is abundant on the description of school principals helping new teachers in getting them established in the beginning years of their career. Hopkins' study (2003) and Jiang and Chan's study (2008) concluded that passion for teaching was the top criterion principals employed in selecting new teachers. Studies by Alliance for Excellent Education (2004), Angelle (2002), Boss (2006), Johnson and Kardos (2002), Walker-Wied (2005), and Ubben and Hughes (1997) pointed to the fact that principals played a vital part in the induction of new teachers. School principals offered much professional support for new teachers (Gurule-Gonzales, 1995; King, 2004; Southeast Center for Teacher Quality, 2005; Stuart, 2002; and Tyson, 1999). Principals were given credit for inducing new teachers in the profession by setting up mentoring programs for them to work with veteran teachers (Colley, 2002; Gurule-Gonzales, 1995; Jiang & Chan, 2008; Mueller, 2000; Powell, 1992; Starr, 2002). Studies have shown that new teachers provided with formal mentors could improve their chances of success (Ullman, 2011). Serving as instructional leaders, principals could grant more released time to beginning teachers for lesson planning (Angelle, 2002; Colley, 2002; Stansbury, 2001), reduce the number of students in beginners' classrooms, refrain from assigning them the most challenging students, and minimize their extracurricular and committee assignments (Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2000). In getting the new teachers to be familiarized with the school culture, principals can introduce beginning teachers into the school educational community (Boss, 2006; Colley, 2002; Moss, 1985; Stansbury, 2001). Principals advised beginning teachers in the following areas: learning from experienced teachers (Starr, 2002), observing effective classrooms (Boss, 2006), upholding

discipline (McCullough, 1992), and engaging in professional development (Gurule-Gonzales, 1995; Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2000). On the other hand, Stansbury (2001) and Tyson (1999) cautioned that principals should hold high standard in assessing the performance of new teachers. After all, Green, Potts, Henderson, and Whitelaw (2004), Peter Harris Research Group, Inc. (2004), Ingersoll and Smith (2004), and Millet (2005) found that retention of new teachers was mostly the results of principals' involvement in working with new teachers.

Though most literature has indicated a positive relationship between principals and beginning teachers, Stonner's study (1998) found that the impact of principal on new teacher competence was minimal. Powell's study (1992) even claimed that school principal's contribution to teacher mentoring programs was minimal. McCullough (1992) also reported that new teachers' success was largely determined by their pre-service preparation at college.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Principals' advice is important to beginning teachers as they start their teaching career and strive for success. Research on beginning teachers has focused on teachers' responses and encounters. Few studies actually explored principals' effort in assisting beginning teachers from the principals' perspectives. The purpose of this study was to examine Chinese principals' perception of what beginning teachers needed to do to ensure success in schools in China and how they assisted beginning teachers in their schools. The findings of this study will help identify positive strategies in planning to work with beginning teachers in China and other countries.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions in this study are developed as follows:

1. What qualifications do Chinese elementary school principals look for in hiring new teachers?
2. What kind of assistance do Chinese elementary school principals provide to new teachers?
3. What are Chinese elementary school principals' perspectives of successful practices for new teachers?

METHODOLOGY

Design

The study follows a descriptive design of qualitative nature. A qualitative design in this case provides ample opportunities for Chinese school principals to elaborate freely on their perspectives in working with beginning teachers. In data analysis, consistencies, themes and patterns of principals' responses were closely observed and recorded.

Participants

This study involved 92 school principals using convenient sampling method from Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Shanxi provinces in southeastern and central parts of China. Of the 92 survey questionnaires returned, 27 were from high schools, 29 from middle schools and 36 from elementary schools. This paper only reports on perspectives of elementary school principals. The majority of the elementary school principals was male with no college degree, in their first ten years of principalship, and had more than 16 years as classroom teachers.

Participants' demographic information is displayed in the following table:

Table 1
Demographic Information of Elementary School Principals

Categories			
Years as principal	1- 5 (37.4%) 16-20 (14.81%)	6-10 (37.04%) Over 20 (3.7%)	11-15 (7.41%)
Years as teacher	1- 5 (0%) 16-20 (25.93%)	6-10 (11.11%) Over 20 (51.85%)	11-15 (11.11%)
Highest degree earned:	No Degree (74.07%) Master's (3.70%)	Bachelor's (18.53%) Doctoral (3.70%)	
Gender:	Male (66.6%)	Female (33.4%)	

Research Instrument

The research instrument is a 15-item open-ended questionnaire designed by the researchers. (See instrument attached with this article.) It begins with demographic questions related to years of experience as a principal and as a teacher, highest degree earned, and gender. The 15 open-ended questions were derived from current literature relating to principals' practices in working with beginning teachers, their advice in teaching and learning, and qualifications they look for when hiring beginning teachers. The instrument was professionally examined in contents, format and language by experienced principals and educational leadership faculty in higher education. It was then piloted with 12 principals to ensure its validity. All constructive recommendations were incorporated in revising the instrument during the pilot study. The original version of the questionnaire was in English. It was translated into Chinese language for surveys with Chinese principals.

Data Analysis

Data collected in this study were carefully organized and categorized to prepare for data analysis. The researchers used the same data analysis method utilized in their previous study of American principals (Jiang & Chan, 2008). Data collected were coded under each of the following main categories and sub-categories:

1) Principals' criteria in selecting new teachers: professional specialization.

2) Principals' assistance to new teachers: providing mentors, meeting with new teachers and suggesting other support mechanisms in school.

3) Principals' perception of successful practices for new teachers: teaching strategies, parental relationship, disciplinary problems, handling cases of child abuse, collegial relationships, dressing and manners, professional development, and adapting to new school contexts.

The data were analyzed using content analysis to observe for consistencies and patterns of principals' responses under each sub-category. Patterns of principals' responses emerged through the researchers' close examination of the coding of raw data.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Findings of this study as a result of data analysis are organized and reported in the order of the research questions in the following sections. Under each research question, results are reported and discussed by each sub-theme supported by rich data derived from the questionnaires.

1. What qualifications do Chinese elementary principals look for in hiring new teachers?

In hiring new teachers, most Chinese school principals focused on teacher applicants' high qualifications in their respective teaching fields. They looked for applicants who were "highly specialized in their fields" especially those "who had won teaching awards". School principals were particularly interested in selecting teachers "who had 3-5 years of experience and had demonstrated leading capacity in their teaching areas". Other principals' criteria for selecting new teachers include passion for teaching, personality, ability for classroom management and willingness to collaborate with others.

One principal stated that if the candidate's qualifications met the subject matter requirement, she would then pay more attention to the candidate's prior teacher experience and attitude toward teaching. Another principal emphasized that for candidates who did not have prior teaching experience, he would place higher priority on the candidate's experience on team work as "it is essential for teachers to have collaborative spirit and communication skills." For those who had prior teaching experience, he would place higher priority on the candidate's classroom management skills." One principal focused his selection criteria on whether the candidates have "passion, spirit of a child, patience as well as the ability to handle unexpected issues in school."

2. What kind of assistance do Chinese elementary principals provide to new teachers?

Chinese principals assisted beginning teachers by providing mentors, meeting with new teachers and suggesting other support mechanisms in school. Principals assigned mentors to beginning teachers "to provide guidance and share successes/failures, lesson plans, and materials". They advised new teachers "to humble themselves to learn from their mentors". They should "respect their mentors" and "establish a network of communication" with their mentors.

In addition to learning from mentors on how to teach better and manage discipline more effectively, principals also advised new teachers to become involved in the mentor's action research project through collaboration and contributing their relevant knowledge in the process. Principals also considered the ability of cooperation as essential to becoming a good teacher. In one principal's words, "teaching is an occupation that requires working with others. If one cannot cooperate with others, then he/she will never be a good teacher…"

In addition to meeting with new teachers on challenges related to teaching or collegial relations, principals also encouraged new teachers to meet with them when "they have exceptional achievement to share as well as future plans" and "when they have suggestions or new ideas to improve the school." It indicated that principals care about new teachers' development and value their input for school improvement.

Besides the support that principals provide to new teachers and the mentors they assign to new teachers, principals also suggested other sources of support that teachers could utilize in school: (1) instructional support from the same subject matter colleagues; (2) classroom management support from other teachers who teach the same class of students; (3) support from office staff on daily work and life; and (4) support from young teachers on self-development planning. In one principal's words, "a school is a big family which involves a cooperation process. This process requires a full support mechanism."

3. What are Chinese elementary principals' perspectives regarding successful practices for new teachers?

Principals anticipated new teachers to demonstrate successful practices in the following areas in school: using effective teaching strategies, interacting with parents and guardians, handling disciplinary issues, handling cases of child abuse, collegial relationships, dressing and manners, continuing professional development, and adapting to new school contexts.

Using Effective Teaching Strategies. All school principals emphasized the importance of effective teaching by "learning the individual and academic background of the students". In understanding the students they were working with, new teachers would be "psychologically prepared". Chinese school principals advised new teachers to be well-prepared for class. "To provide students with a glass of water, teachers need to prepare for a bottle." Other advices include "collaborating with experienced teachers", and "establishing teaching goals and objectives".

One principal shared the following advice:

> First of all, get to know your students, understand their psychological characteristics, and fully activate their enthusiasm for learning. Secondly, have a complete understanding and grasp of the instructional material by doing a detailed and in-depth analysis of the textbook and other materials, paying particular attending to the key content areas as well as hard to understand materials in order to implement the instructional task more effectively.

Another principal's advice included the following:

> Know your teaching content well. It is important to clearly understand the information related to your instructional content prior to each class: for example, the arrangement of the textbook series you use, the contents of particular text book for you to teach for the class and the essential elements in the lesson. After the completion of the lesson plan, ask your mentor from the same grade level to provide feedback. Their support and mentoring will help you develop quickly. You can also learn from your mentor his/her instructional methods by observing his/her teaching when necessary.

The selected quotes from the principals indicated their expectations for new teachers to become successful professionals in schools in China. In addition, it also demonstrated their own mastery of the teaching and learning process as master teachers in school.

Interacting With Parents and Guardians. New teachers were expected "to initiate the communication with parents". "Building the network for frequent communication" and "working with parents with respect" were the keys to a positive relationship. New teachers were also advised to "collaborate with parents with sincerity and logical reasoning". "Using positive language in describing student performance to parents" proved to work well with parents." One principal's response summarized the key points shared by most of the participants:

> [New teachers] need to proactively communicate with parents and guardians with enthusiasm. In order to establish credibility with parents, new teachers should share with parents their children's behavior and performance in an honest fashion by emphasizing the positive and shining aspects of their development…It is also important not to avoid any questions that parents have and inform them of their children's shortcomings nicely.

In addition, Principals suggested "home visits" as an effective method of "shortening the distance between teachers and parents" and "demonstrating their respect for the parents". They advised the new teachers to "listen to the parents with sincere attitude" during home visits and other meetings with them.

Handling Disciplinary Issues. In managing classroom discipline, principals advised new teachers "to establish clear behavioral expectations in class and follow through with discipline procedures". They were expected to work with students "with patience and understanding". Teachers could provide "guidance to students" by keeping them "reminded of positive behaviors". Other advice by school principals included "recognizing students'

outstanding performance", "keeping cool and thinking twice before disciplining students", and "counseling students with character education".

One principal gave the following advice on handling classroom discipline:

> New teachers need to understand that class discipline is the assurance of learning as well as the display of classroom culture. Class discipline requires teachers to use their personality charm to attract students. When managing classroom disciplinary issues, the most important aspect is for teachers to control their own emotion.

A female principal emphasized that new teachers should be both strict and loving in managing classroom disciplinary issues. She cautioned the new teachers not to make abrupt decisions but to step into the students' soul and examine the issues from their perspectives. Based on the principals' advice, new teachers should explore positive approaches to "charm" the students to paying attention to their instructional activities in class in order to ensure that student learning takes place.

Handling Cases of Child Abuse. Regarding advice on handling cases of child abuse, many school principals leaned on "understanding the situation by communicating with the parents". "When teachers encounter a situation they don't feel they can handle or anytime they feel a student's safety and/or wellbeing are jeopardized, they need to lose no time in reporting the case". One principal's response was as follows: "When discovering a case of child abuse, new teachers need to find out the details of the incident before individually reporting to the school principal. After reporting, it will be handled by the school."

It is worth noting that several principals also interpreted "child abuse" as possible physical punishment by teachers as well as the one taken place at home or out of school. They cautioned new teachers not to mistreat their students in their own classrooms. One principal wrote: "It is absolutely wrong to mistreat children. If it is done by others, it needs to be stopped as soon as possible…"

Collegial Relationship. Most principals advised new teachers to "be modest and understanding" in working with colleagues in school. In addition, they emphasized the importance of "respecting others", "frequent communication and exchange of ideas", and "providing friendly help and support to others" in helping new teachers to build collaborative relationships with teachers and administrators in school. One principal stated his advice as follows:

> New teachers need to use their eyes to observe, use their ears to listen and use their mind to think. They need to learn from outstanding teachers about their teaching methods as well as their outstanding traits and virtues with modest attitudes. When encountering perspectives that you find hard to accept, only seek for opinions of your colleagues in appropriate contexts…

Another principal advised new teachers to do their job well, willing to help others, communicate with colleagues often, treat people with honesty, respect school leaders, listen to others' opinions and suggestions, learn from others and express their own opinions when it is appropriate. It is sometimes unavoidable to encounter conflict in schools. The advice offered by one principal suggested that new teachers "consider the situation from the other person's point of view" and "exchange opinions when both parties are present with smile and sincerity."

Dressing and Manners. With respect to dressing and manners, all participating principals agreed that new teachers need to "dress in a professional manner" and behave courteously to model for students appropriate behavior in school. They also cautioned that new teachers need to be aware of their "inappropriate habits" and avoid demonstrating them in school. Some principals especially advised new teachers not to wear "exaggerating clothes" or "sexy clothes" and emphasized that "simplicity" is the safest approach. One principal stated the following:

> Teachers' clothing and manners are the basic contents of their modeling behavior. Appropriate dressing will make one look young and in high spirit…Strange clothes are forbidden. New teachers need to dress appropriately, use healthy and standard

language…treat others with friendly attitude, keep calm in all situations and conduct oneself in an orderly manner…

This principal's advice highlight the importance of dressing and manner as well as the participating principals' expectations for new teachers' dress and behavior code. In Chinese culture, teachers are highly respected by the society. In Confucius philosophy, teachers are considered as one's parents. Thus, their behaviors and actions are considered to be models for students to follow. From the Chinese cultural perspective, these principals' advice and seriousness regarding new teachers' dressing and manners are highly relevant and worth noting.

Continuing Professional Development. In professional development, new teachers were expected to take education as a lifelong career that accompanied with "continuous self-improvement". They were asked to constantly watch for their "instructional needs" in class. What they learned in professional development schools should be "tried out in real practice to test for its effectiveness". Specifically, one principal provided four areas of continuing professional opportunities for new teachers which were echoed by others: (1) review the knowledge gained in college and strengthen it by utilization, especially in using Pu Tong Hua (Standard Chinese); (2) actively participate in teaching and research activities; (3) treasure every opportunity to attend seminars/conference outside of school; and (4) proactively seek senior teachers for guidance to help improve teaching.

Another principal categorized professional development in two basic aspects: development of theoretical knowledge and development of real-world practices. He considered that new teachers were generally full of the former knowledge as they just left colleges and universities but they were usually short of the latter. He suggested that professional development for new teachers focus on providing master teachers to help new teachers in their instructional practice. The master teachers could observe new teachers' teaching and provide immediate feedback and suggestions for improvement. He also emphasized that master teachers need to provide more encouragement and praises so that new teachers can build their confidence as they develop their instructional expertise.

Adapting to New School Contexts. Chinese elementary school principals' general advice to new teachers included: "taking initiative to cope with the new teaching environment", "taking opportunities to observe the school culture and learn by logical reasoning", "devoting passion to your education career", and "being modest and eager to learn from colleagues." In addition, principals suggested that new teachers make friends with colleagues who have common interests so that they could "develop together and share their success." They also recommended to new teachers now to display personal traits that are significantly different from the majority of the colleagues to avoid being singled out. In other words, principals considered being able to get along with others as an important first step for beginning teachers in adjusting to the new school environment. Specific suggestions to the new teachers included "respecting others and being diligent by getting to school early, cleaning the office for everyone and even preparing hot water for senior teachers." In sum, principals considered getting adjusted to the new school context as very important to new teachers and provided specific strategies and tips for new teachers regarding this topic.

Additionally, elementary school principals in China advised their new teachers:

To have passion in their teaching career,
To love their students like their own children,
To motivate students by identifying their potentials,
To be innovative in their instructional approach, and
To continuously upgrade their level of professional ethics.

One principal's additional advice included the following:

(1) New teachers need to have a strong sense of responsibility. They need to have an absolute serious attitude towards teaching. (2) The primary condition for becoming a good teacher is to have passion and like his/her students. It is essential to think about

instruction from the students' perspective. In this way, a new teacher will be popular among students…

Another principal advised new teachers to continually accumulate and develop their own topics for action research "because action research is a 'golden path' to improving teacher quality and instructional effectiveness." He also provided an example of a nationally famous expert teacher who spent sixty years of his life focusing on refining his teaching. He concluded his advice by stating that to become a good teacher is to continuously develop and refine one's work.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study have generated some interesting points worthy of discussion in the practical perspectives:

First, a study conducted by Hopkins (2003) indicated that principals unanimously pointed to "passion for teaching" as the most important criteria for selecting teachers. This was also confirmed by the results of Jiang and Chan's study (2008). However, quite contrarily, elementary school principals in this study expressed their wishes to select teachers with specialization in their teaching areas. They did mention "passion" as a consideration for selection, but it was placed in a much lower priority. The finding of this study comes as a surprise to the researchers because one tends to recall the long Chinese history of respect to teachers for their passion and integrity.

Second, studies by Angelle (2002), Boss (2006), Johnson and Kardos (2002), Walker-Wied (2005), and Ubben and Hughes (1997) confirmed the positive impact of school principals on the retention rate of new teachers. Their position was strongly supported by the principals' affirmative perceptions in this study. In contrast, the findings of this study disagreed with McCullough (1992), Powell (1992) and Stonner (1998) who concluded that new teachers' success was determined primarily by pre-service preparation, not by principal mentors.

Third, elementary school principals in this study assisted new teachers by mentoring and advising

to ensure that they got acquainted with their new work environment to be productive. Different aspects of professional assistance were offered to get new teachers established. These kinds of professional supports were also expressed by principals in the studies of Gurule-Gonzales (1995), King (2004), Southeast Center for Teacher Quality (2005), Stuart (2002), and Tyson (1999).

Fourth, the mentoring role of school principals to new teachers was confirmed by studies conducted by Colley (2002), Gurule-Gonzales (1995), Jiang and Chan (2008), Mueller (2000), Powell (199), and Starr (2002). The findings of this study were consistent with those of the previous studies. Principals in this study assigned experienced teachers in school to serve as mentors to new teachers and took extra effort in encouraging strong communicative relationship between the mentors and the new teachers. New teachers were strongly advised to humble themselves to learn from veteran teachers. Similar advice to learn from experienced teachers was also given by principals in Starr's study (2002), and Boss's study (2006).

Fifth, school principals in this study placed much emphasis on the continuous improvement of professional knowledge and skills as teachers. They particularly advised teachers to improve in their areas of deficiency. Principals in Gurule-Gonzales's study (1995) urged new teachers to plan their career by engaging in professional development.

Sixth, principals in McCullough's study (1992) emphasized that class discipline should be made clear to both students and parents. School principals of this study were pointing to the same direction by advising new teachers to work with students in resolving discipline problems through exercising professional guidance, patience and understanding.

Seventh, principals in this study repeatedly advised new teachers on their professional behaviors as teachers. They even suggested commonly accepted dressing codes of the teaching profession and also recommended publicly recognized teacher behaviors that deserve community

respect. Similar advisements to new teachers are not found in current literature relating to induction of new teachers. This finding may be related to Chinese culture and Confucian philosophy which highly respects teaching profession and considers teachers as parent-like role models for students in school.

IMPLICATIONS TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Retaining the best new teachers in school is an important part of the educational planning effort. It helps to nurture the growth of new blood in the education body. The findings of this study have significant implications to educational planning toward supporting new teachers in beginning their career in education.

The findings suggest that all the planning for activities to help new teachers need to happen at the school setting. The first school where the new teacher is assigned to is the new home of the teacher's career. Creating a conducive school teaching environment certainly provides the basic support a new teacher needs to survive in the first few years of teaching.

The principal is the head of the family in the teachers' new home and certainly plays a significant role in the new teachers' induction program. He or she makes major decisions in soliciting resources in support of new teachers. A loving and caring school principal inspires new teachers by role-modeling to be a respectful educator.

On the other hand, school systems need to establish policies in support of planning to help new teachers in school. These policies can specify policy implementation by school principals who will organize activities to help new teachers. With policy mandates, school principals can stand in a stronger position to develop and enforce the new teacher induction plan.

Then, a plan with goals and objectives has to be developed at school to specifically lay out the parameter of directions to help new teachers. A planning committee headed by lead teachers can be organized for plan development and implementation procedures. The committee can recommend personnel involved to be responsible for helping new teachers.

As seen in the findings of this study, administrators, faculty and staff of the school need to participate in the induction program in support of new teachers in school. It requires a great deal of team sharing effort to help new teachers succeed. School principals can take the lead in the activities of the induction program.

The entire school has to look at the No New Teacher Left Behind (NNTLB) goal to make sure that all the new teachers are well taken care of in all aspects of their professional life. The "big brother and big sister" concept should work very well in planning for new teacher induction. We need to be thinking of helping new teachers as others have helped us when we were once new.

CONCLUSION

Results of this study have shown that Chinese elementary school principals planned well in full support of new teachers in the beginning years of their teaching career. Their assistance to new teachers included different ways of mentoring and advising. They assigned them to veteran teachers who served as their mentors and also made themselves available any time when new teachers needed help. All the school principals in the study preferred selecting teachers who were specialized in their teaching fields to selecting those who had passion for teaching.

School principals in this study placed much emphasis on advising new teachers to take initiative to learn the culture of their teaching environment and emerge themselves into it. New teachers were advised to respect their colleagues and build a strong collaborative relationship among them. The findings of this study contributed much to the knowledge of the educational planning field in that school principals were so anxious to suggest to new teachers that acceptance to the school culture laid the groundwork of success in their first teaching assignment.

The unique findings of this study have stimulated the interest of the researchers to continue their effort in examining the data collected from lower secondary schools and upper

secondary schools. Because of different teaching and learning environments in secondary schools, the researchers anticipate additional findings as a result of data analysis.

All the valuable advisements offered by Chinese school principals to new teachers are certainly meaningful in planning to retain the best quality teachers. In fact, school principals were encouraging new teachers to take initiative to be part of the schools' learning communities. Future studies could focus on how educational planning for new teacher induction can be practically implemented and how new teachers work and serve in collaboration with school principals and their veteran colleagues.

The findings of this study have a wide global interpretation. The foci of school principals helping beginning teachers could vary by the significance of the culture embedded in the long histories of different countries. This Chinese version of principals' perspectives would well serve as an excellent reference for other countries that are in the same position of planning to retain their best teachers in the education profession.

REFERENCES

Alliance for Excellent Education. (2004). *Tapping the potential: Retaining and developing high-quality new teachers*. Washington, DC: Author.

Angelle, P. S. (2002). *T.O.S.S. it to the new teacher: The principal's role in the induction process.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.: ED468291)

Boss, S. (2006). Effective practices in new teacher induction. *Principal's Research Review, 1*(1).

Britton, E., Paine, L., & Raizen, S. (1999). *Middle grades mathematics and science teacher induction in selected countries: Preliminary findings.* Washington, DC: National Center for Improving Science Education, WestEd

Colley, A. C. (2002). What can principals do about new teacher attrition? *Principal, 81*(4), 22-24.

Green, R., Potts, R., Henderson, C., & Whitelaw, A. (2004, March). *Urban principals and effective mentoring practices.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Great Cities' University's Conference, Miami, Florida.

Gurule-Gonzales, J. L. (1995). *Principals' and new teachers' perceptions about the principals' support of new teachers.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA.

Hopkins, G. (2003). *What qualities do principals look for in a new teacher?* [On-line]. Retrieved August 31, 2006 from www.educationword.com/a_admin/admin/admin071.shtml

Ingersoll, R. M., & Smith, T. M. (2004). Do teacher induction and mentoring matter? *NASSP Bulletin, 88*(638), 28-40.

Jiang, B., & Chan, T. C. (2008) Working with beginning teachers: What effective strategies do principals use? *Eastern Education Journal*, 37(1), 8-19. (Available at www.eiu.edu/~edjournal)

Kardos, S. M. (2004). *Supporting and sustaining new teachers in schools: The importance of professional culture and mentoring*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

King, D. M. (2004). *National Board Certified Teachers' perceptions of new teacher needs.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of New Orleans, New Orleans, MI.

McCullough, M. E. (1992). *Conceptions and decisions of public school principals about beginning teachers and induction.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University, Kent, OH.

Millet, M. J. (2005). *An examination of factors related to the retention of new teachers in the Metropolitan Nashville Tennessee School System*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Tennessee State University, Nashville, TN.

Moss, R. K. (1985). *More than facilitator: A principal's job in educating new and experienced reading teachers*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.: ED253856)

Mueller, J. (2000). *The roles and expectations for supervision within a mentoring relationship as perceived by mentors, beginning teachers and elementary school principals.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Marquette University, Milwaukee, WIS.

Peter Harris Research Group, Inc. (2004). Supporting new teachers: The view from the principal's office [Online]. Retrieved September 14, 2006 from http://www.recruitingteachers.org/resources/supporting+new+teachers.pdf

Powell, M. (1992). *Shared instructional leadership: The role of the principal in a mentor teacher program.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.

Southeast Center for Teaching Quality (2005). *Teacher working conditions are student learning conditions* [Online]. Retrieved August 31, 2006 from www.teachingquality.org/BestTQ/issues/v03/v03n09.pdf

Stansbury, K. (2001). What new teachers need. *Leadership, 30*(3), 18-21.

Stansbury, K., & Zimmerman, J. (2000). *Lifelines to the classroom: Designing support for beginning teachers*. San Francisco, CA: WestEd.

Starr, L. (2004). *Advice for first-year teachers from principals who hired them!* [On-line]. Retrieved August 31, 2006 from www.educationworld.com/a_admin/admin/admin124.shtml

Stonner, N. C. (1998). *Middle-level teacher preparation and support: First-year teachers' perceived competence and influencing factors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, MI.

Stuart, L. (2002). What new teachers need: A principal's perspective. *Principal, 81*(4), 18-21.

Tyson, S. M. (1999). *K-12 principals' perceptions of the California Beginning Teacher.* Support and Assessment Program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Pacific, San Francisco, CA.

Ubben, G., & Hughes, L. (1997). *The principal: Creative leadership for effective schools* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Walker-Wied, J. K. (2005). *The role of a school's culture in the induction and socialization of two special education teachers in an Alternative Certification Program.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, WI.

Ullman, E. (2011). Role models: Mentoring beginning teachers. *Education Update, 53*(7), 1, 4-5.

Attachment: Qualitative survey instrument

Research on "Principals Working with Beginning Teachers"
Principal's Survey

Demographics: Please check one in each of the following items.

School Level: _____ Elementary _____ Middle _____ High

Years as School Principal: _____ 1 – 5 _____ 6 – 10
_____ 11 – 15 _____ 16 – 20
_____ over 20

Years as Classroom Teacher: _____ 1 – 5 _____ 6 – 10
_____ 11 – 15 _____ 16 – 20
_____ over 20

Highest Degree Earned: _____ B. A. _____ M. Ed.
_____ Ed. D./Ph. D. _____ No academic degree

Gender: _____ Male _____Female

Questions: Please respond to the following questions on how you work with beginning teachers in your school. You may write at the back if you need extra space.

1. What are the qualifications school principals look for when they hire new teachers?
2. What do you advice new teachers in handling disciplinary issues in their classrooms?
3. What advice would you like to offer to new teachers regarding relationships with their supervisors and peers?
4. When should a new teacher come to see the principal?
5. In your opinion, under what conditions should a teacher make referrals?
6. What kind of assistance can a new teacher seek on campus?
7. What advice would you offer to new teachers in dealing with parents and guardians?
8. What advice do you have for new teachers in terms of dressing and manners?
9. In your opinion, when should teachers report suspected child abuse or other kinds of abuse?
10. How would you advise a new teacher on class preparation?
11. How would you advise a new teacher on continuous professional development?
12. How would you advise a new teacher on working with his/her mentor?
13. How would you advise a new teacher on getting acquainted with his/her working environment?
14. Is there any other advice that you would like to share with new teachers?
15. Would you like to share any surprises that have happened to you or others as first year teachers?

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

ARVIN D. JOHNSON

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to examine relationships between student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement in mathematics and reading. Data were collected from over 350 middle school students in a large southeastern school district in the United States. The results revealed statistically significant correlations among the different student perceived aspects of school effectiveness. In addition, a statistically significant correlation between mathematics and reading achievement scores on standardized test was revealed. Data did not yield any statistically significant correlation between the student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement. These findings are contradictory to empirical research on school effectiveness and student achievement. Notwithstanding these contradictions, the results of the study provided a foundation for discussion of educational planning issues and implications for educational planning practices.

INTRODUCTION

Public educators across the nation are facing increasing pressure to reduce the achievement gap and find innovative ways to improve student achievement. Scores of initiatives, policies, laws, school and school district reorganizations, and school improvement documents reveal this pressure. Many Americans simply feel that public educators are not doing an acceptable job of educating children. Hess (2015) contributed to this belief with this statement, "The United States boasts the world's highest per capita income and one of the best-funded school systems, yet our children fall below international norms in graduation rates and test performance" (p. 1). Statements and feelings similar to these stimulate research and inquiry into variables that are related to student achievement.

One of the original drives for increased student achievement came from the No Child Left Behind Act (2002). This act, signed into law in 2002, mandates that all students receive quality educational services and that schools show adequate yearly academic progress (Munich & Testani, 2005). However, this law has been replaced with the 2015 Every Student Succeeds Act. The Every Student Succeeds Act maintains the fundamentals of the No Child Left Behind Act including high educational standards, accountability, and closing the achievement gap. The new law is designed to provide more flexibility to states and local school districts by considering the unique needs of the community (Klein, 2015).

RATIONALE

Research on effective schools can help educators and legislators better understand what relationships exist between effective school practices and student achievement. Research in this area could reveal advantageous findings for educators and be conducive to meeting some of the goals of the Every Student Succeeds Act. The use of federal policy to improve student achievement underscores the need and significance of research in this area (Hargreaves et. al., 2014). Research providing explanations that may help educators and legislators solve some of the achievement problems in our country must be supported and encouraged.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A large majority of the research on effective schools began approximately 40 years ago. Understanding the historical foundations of educational can assist in handling the complex changes and issues faced today. Several seminal studies provide the historical framework for understanding of effective schools. The Coleman Report (1966) examined the relationships between many individual and social factors and school learning. The report concluded that other factors, not the school quality, were the primary determinants of academic achievement (Lezotte, 1991). These factors were family background, socioeconomic status, school demographics, student perceptions of environmental control, teacher's literacy level, and student background. This is possibly the report that spawned the effective schools movement, as these findings were the catalyst for many research studies on improving student achievement and school effectiveness (Hargreaves et. al., 2014).

A major historical report that influenced effective schools research was A Nation at Risk, published in 1983 (National Commission on Excellence in Education). This report changed many perceptions about education in America. It suggested that there was a need for a more challenging school curriculum in the United States. This was due to research findings that revealed students in the United States were falling behind foreign counterparts in many academic areas. This report suggested that America's dominance as the world leader in education, commerce, industry, science, and other areas was being surpassed by counterparts across the globe. This report was based on documented research that concluded the following dreadful results: When compared to other developed nations, American students were not first or second on 19 academic tests. Almost 23 million Americans were illiterate. The average achievement level of high school students in the United States on standardized tests was lower than when Sputnik was launched in 1957. There was a steady decline in science achievement scores as measured by national assessments of science in 1969, 1973, and 1977. Many other disturbing conclusions were revealed in this report. This report and other studies further invigorated the pursuit of marked improvements in academic achievement and the creation of more effective schools in America.

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The primary purpose of this research was to determine if a correlation existed between student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement. The research question was: What effective school variables, as measured by student perceptions, best correlate with student achievement in mathematics and reading? The correlations between student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement provides a rationale for school leaders to transfer more school-wide focus on the specific correlates as a means of improving student achievement (Barber, Whelan, and Clark, 2010; Jacobson, 2011)

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

One of the major problems today's educators face is determining why student achievement is not improving in all schools and for all students. Trust in public schools has eroded, schools are under extraordinary surveillance, and stakeholders are demanding improvements in student achievement (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). A clear and present example of this pressure is reveal in the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. School districts are responsible for delivering improvements in student achievement and educators are held accountable when they do not (Schlechty, 2011). Statewide standardized testing is a primary measure of accountability. This accountability travels directly to the individual teacher via individual student test scores. Test-based accountability places great pressure on administrators and teachers to take appropriate steps to improve student achievement in public schools. The pressure for increased improvements in student achievement and educator accountability illustrates the national significance of research on student achievement. The significance of this study is that the data inform educators on

variables that may have a relationship to student achievement. Data obtained from this research can also yield valuable information to educators in terms of the school effectiveness. The results should have an impact on how administrators interact with students and their staff. This comparative study could guide educators to pursue further, more refined, research on school climate variables and student achievement.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Definitions

The definition of an effective school may vary depending on a number of factors. Some definitions are single sentences, while others are based on policy or procedures. Some researchers have suggested that there is no agreement on what makes an effective school (Reid, Hopkins, & Holly, 1987). This lack of wide-spread agreement continues in the field of education today.

Trujillo (2013) analyzed school effectiveness over 50 empirical studies to identify frequently referenced correlates of effective schools districts. Results of his analysis indicated that the correlates leading to higher student achievement were: standards-based curriculums, strong instructional leadership, frequent monitoring and evaluation, and focused professional learning. This finding supports some of the seminal studies on effective schools from nearly four decades.

The study of Dobbie and Fryer (2011) on school effectiveness suggested that some of the currently referenced measures of school effectiveness such as class size, student funding, and certification did not have a strong positive relationship with student achievement. In contrast, the research supported some of the research found in the seminal studies on school effectiveness. They found that frequent teacher feedback, data usage to inform instruction, large-scale tutoring, student time on task, and high expectations contributed to nearly half of the effectiveness of schools.

Horng and Loeb (2010) sought to describe effective schools through a new lens of instructional leadership. They reported that traditional ingredients of effective schools centered on the narrow areas of teaching and learning, strong school leadership, and curriculum and instruction. Their research suggests that strong organizational management should define effective schools more than principal participation in daily classroom instruction. The results indicated that strategic hiring, teacher support, and resource allocation had a larger impact on student achievement than the traditional ingredients of instructional leadership. They found that principals who spent more time on organizational management activities had better student achievement results.

Most current definitions are centered on overall student achievement regardless of factors such as ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, or other factors. Lezotte (1997) described effective schools as schools that are successful in educating all students regardless of their socioeconomic status or family background.

Many definitions cover pertinent aspects in defining effective schools, and most have valid points that are specific to many schools. Defining an effective school creates controversy because many formulas and definitions currently exist. A definition of an effective school is in many ways dependent upon the specific school in question. For example, schools that serve primarily low-achieving students may define effectiveness in terms of student gains, while schools serving high-achieving students may measure effectiveness through individual student achievement levels. This would be an example of gains versus absolute achievement as a qualifier of school effectiveness. Some schools may measure achievement through whole-school achievement levels, while others measure achievement through student subgroups. An effective

school will be defined differently depending on the faction providing the definition. An important point for educators is that every school has specific needs, and a single set of characteristics cannot be used to measure the effectiveness of every school.

Seminal Studies

Much literature on effective schools extends back to the 1970s. These research studies and findings are among the first commonly known publications and reports which facilitated the start of research into effective schools. This line of research has evolved over time and has contributed valuable findings to educators, policy makers, and the general knowledge base. Many of the classical studies have led to further, more in-depth research which has produced a variety of results. These studies helped establish this major research area.

Odden (1995) reviewed results from effective school research. Odden identified seven common principles that researchers attribute to an effective school. Five of his findings directly support the five correlates of effective schools that Edmonds (1982) identified. Odden identified strong instructional leadership; high, but realistic expectations; a safe and orderly school; monitoring student progress; consensus of school academic goals or mission; instructional teacher engagement; and continuous professional development. Odden's research directly supports the original five correlates and provides support for teacher engagement, one of the characteristics often identified in effective schools research. Other researchers have conducted similar reviews with similar findings.

Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1995) conducted a review of school effectiveness literature reported over 25 years. The researchers studied over 20 major studies from all the major areas of school effectiveness research: input-output studies, case studies, outlier studies, and process-product studies. They found that most of the studies reported findings that were similar. Based on this review of studies and literature, Wang et al. suggested that the following characteristics could affect student achievement: strong instructional leadership, high expectations, clear academic and behavioral goals, safe and orderly school climates, maximizing student time, and academic emphasis. Their findings align with other studies that have listed common characteristics of an effective school. Their study is significant because it provided a review of many of the classical studies.

Mortimore and Sammons (1987) conducted a study in the United Kingdom on elementary school effectiveness. Researchers wanted to determine if different student intake characteristics were related to school effectiveness. Trained researchers made observations in schools and in classrooms to determine which variables were present in effective schools but not present in ineffective schools. The 10 differences noted in their study were a positive climate, parental involvement, instructional leadership, active involvement of vice principals, work-centered environment, continuity of teachers, involvement of teachers in curriculum planning, sharply focused lessons, frequent communication among children and teachers, and careful record-keeping.

Ronald Edmonds (1982) was one of the first researchers to study characteristics of effective schools. Edmonds' research encouraged other researchers to study the common characteristics of effective schools. Edmonds published Programs of School Improvement, a report based on qualitative research conducted by Edmonds and his associates. Edmonds began by identifying schools that were considered effective schools. These schools were successfully educating students regardless of race, socioeconomic status, and other factors. After identifying these schools, Edmonds and his research team identified the common characteristics in these so-called effective schools. Characteristics such as philosophies, procedures, policies, and practices

were encapsulated and grouped. After close examination, Edmonds found that effective schools had several common characteristics. These characteristics became known as the correlates of effective schools. There were five original characteristics found: strong instructional leadership, a strong instructional focus, teacher behaviors that convey high expectations, frequent monitoring of student achievement, and a safe and orderly school (Lezotte, 1997). The early correlates studies served as a starting point for many other studies that have focused on the characteristics of an effective school.

Brookover and Lezotte (1979) conducted a large study of 68 elementary schools to study expectation levels, academic norms, sense of academic ineffectiveness, and other factors of schools as they related to student achievement. Corollary case studies included a random sample of schools that were effective, but served students from families with a low socioeconomic status. The results yielded that school climate is a strong forecaster of student achievement. In other words, the school climate and students' perception of their education are related to student achievement. In total, climate variables accounted for 73% of the variance in student achievement. The Brookover and Lezotte study was among the first that contributed to the knowledge base of effective schools.

Some reviews may also be considered classical because they provided syntheses of classical studies after they were conducted.

Findings in the studies I have described led the way for further research in the area of effective schools. These seminal studies and reports were pioneering research that recounted the record of how and why effective schools research came into existence. These studies also served as the developmental lens through which the overall construction and evolution of effective schools research is revealed.

Correlate Studies

Shatzer, et. Al. (2014) conducted research to determine the impact of transformational leadership and instructional leadership on student achievement. The results revealed that instructional leadership explained more of the variance in student achievement than transformational leadership. This findings support the correlation between instructional leadership and student achievement.

Romero-Zaldivar, et. Al. (2012) conducted research to observe the relationship between using virtual appliances to frequently monitor student progress and student achievement. Monitoring student progress with virtual appliances involves using computer simulations to monitor student progress. The results revealed a significant correlation between monitoring student progress via virtual appliances and student achievement. These findings are aligned with other empirical research that supports the idea that frequent monitoring of student progress has a positive relationship with student achievement.

Sebastian and Allensworth (2012) used a multilevel structural equation to observe the relationship between principal leadership and student achievement. One of the findings from this study suggests that student achievement was related to principal leadership, but only through the learning climate created. This finding supports research that has suggested that instructional focus is positively related to student achievement. A strong instructional focus is one of the original correlates of effective schools (Edmonds, 1982).

One of the original correlates of effective schools is strong instructional focus. Hallinger (2011) conducted research to identify leadership influences on school improvement over the past

30 years. The researchers examined data from numerous empirical studies and found that leadership impacted school improvement in several ways to include; the principal can influence school improvement by collaborating with others; principal leadership should build capacity for school improvement.

Valentine and Prater (2011) conducted research to examine the relationship between instructional leadership and student achievement. The researchers found that positive principal instructional behaviors were correlated with higher student achievement. The research also suggests that leaders who had a modeled vision had the strongest correlation to student achievement. This research supports the idea that instructional leadership is linked to student achievement.

Delisio and Dunne (2007) explored three effective schools in New York to observe what strategies were used to make the schools effective. The schools in the study all served primarily low-income and minority students. These schools were identified as effective by high standardized test scores despite high poverty levels. The researchers visited all three schools with the intention of identifying common strategies through interview, survey, and observation. The study revealed that there was no panacea that worked for all schools, but there were patterns that identified how these schools supported student achievement. The most common characteristics in all schools were teacher engagement of students, small class size, high expectations about behavior and academics, dedicated and caring staff, and structured daily rituals and routines. This study supports one of the original correlates of effective schools and the related findings.

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004) conducted a literature review of studies that suggested effective school leadership can bolster student achievement. In their study, the researchers reviewed more than 5,000 studies that observed the effects of school leadership on student achievement. This number was reduced to 70 studies that reported actual quantitative school data on student achievement and instructional leadership. Waters et al. asked teachers (14,000) to rate their principals' leadership abilities. Results revealed a positive correlation between teacher perceptions of effective instructional leadership and student achievement. The researchers also identified 21 areas that defined effective instructional leadership and are correlated with student achievement.

Edmonds's (1982) original correlates of effective schools were strong instructional focus, frequent monitoring of student achievement, strong instructional leadership, teacher behaviors that convey high expectations, and a safe and orderly school. Many of the studies in this literature review report findings that support the original correlates of effective schools and other variables.

METHODOLOGY

The intent of this study is to examine the relationship between student perceptions of school effectiveness and student achievement. Correlation and descriptive analyses were the primary means of data analyses. The research hypothesis was as follows: When student perceptions reflect a higher presence of the characteristics of an effective school, higher levels of school achievement will be observed.

Sample

A cluster of middle school students in a large urban school district in Florida were used in this study. Student participants completed a form of the More Effective Schools survey instruments. Principals at selected schools who agreed to participate were asked to randomly select two eighth-grade homerooms to participate in the study. Each homeroom had approximately 20-25

students. Two magnet schools and one specialized school were not included because their student bodies are not representative of middle school students in this district.

Instrument

An established 50 item Likert-type student survey called the *More Effective Schools Surveys* were used to obtain the eighth-grade students perceptions of school effectiveness. The More Effective Schools Surveys, developed by Cardella, Sprecher, Sudlow, and Spencerport Central Schools (2000), are instruments that assess parent, student, and staff perceptions of school effectiveness. The Catalogue of School Reform, National Diffusion Network, United States Department of Education, and the New York State Education Department provided evidence of the validity of the uses of the surveys through a review of the research and literature. Content validity was assessed by a panel of experts and knowledgeable practitioners.

The surveys measure student perceptions of seven effective school constructs: clear school mission, frequent monitoring of student progress, high expectations, instructional leadership, home-school relations, time on task, and safe and orderly environment. Each construct is measured by numerous questions. Using SAS (Version 9.1), coefficient alphas were determined for student items in each subscale. All of the alpha coefficients domains were within the preset acceptable range of .70 or higher, except for the *opportunity to learn domain*, which yielded an alpha coefficient of .67 (See Table 1).

Table 1
Student Internal Reliability Estimated Using Raw Scores

Domains (Constructs)	Reliability
Clear school mission	.70
Frequent monitoring	.73
High expectations	.78
Home/school relations	.70
Instructional leadership	.74
Opportunity to learn	.67
Safe and orderly environment	.78
Reliability for all items	.92

DATA COLLECTION

More Effective Schools Surveys

After permission to conduct research was granted by the school district and principals, data collection began by preparing the school contact persons to provide instructions to teachers on the administration of the More Effective Schools student surveys. Two homerooms were randomly selected by the principal at each school. Of the 1,150 parental consent forms sent to parents, 365 parents (approximately 32%) consented to their child's participation in the study. All of these student surveys were used in the data analysis.

Student Achievement Measures

The data on student achievement were obtained from school achievement data through the local Department of Education, which produces an annual report that provides detailed

information on school performance on state-wide standardized testing. This report aggregates student achievement data and provides the mean scale and developmental scores by district, school, and grade level in mathematics and reading. In this study, the mean scale scores were used as the measure of student achievement in mathematics and reading. Eighth-grade school achievement data in mathematics and reading were observed over a 3-year period and were used to examine the relationships between perceived school effectiveness and student achievement.

DATA ANALYSES

Data obtained from the *More Effective Schools Surveys* and the state-wide test scores were analyzed using the SAS version 9.1 to determine the relationships among the seven subscales of the *More Effective Schools Surveys*. It is important to recognize these relationships because the subscales are the correlates used to define effective schools. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient provides information about the relationship between two variables on a scale of -1.00 to 1.00 (Iversen & Gergen, 1997). A significance level of .05 was used for all statistical tests. Results of the data analyses are reported in Table 2. Eighteen of the 21 (86%) correlation testings were statistically significant. The strength of the correlations among the student subscales ranged from .45 to .91. This suggests that all student subscales that were statistically significant had moderate to strong relationships.

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between mathematics and reading achievement using the achievement results from the schools that provided responses to the More Effective Schools surveys (r = .97, p < .01). Results of the correlation analysis indicated statistically significant relationship between one of the subscales of student perceived school effectiveness (home/school relations) and student achievement (r = -.21 for mathematics and r = -.27 for reading). No other statistically significant relationships were revealed between student perceived school effectiveness and student achievement (See Table 3).

Table 2
Student Subscale Pearson Product-Moment Correlations for More Effective Schools Surveys

Domains	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
S1. Clear school mission	—					
S2. Frequent monitoring	.79**	—				
S3. High expectations	.77**	.78**	—			
S4. Home/school relations	.60**	.53**	.41	—		
S5. Instructional leadership	.57**	.77**	.77**	.17	—	
S6. Opportunity to learn	.84**	.76**	.79**	.16	.69**	—
S7. Safe and orderly environment	.91**	.68**	.70**	.51**	.45**	.80**

**p <.05

Table 3
Correlations between Student Subscale Scores on the More Effective Schools Survey and Mathematics and Reading Achievement Scores

Domains	Mathematics	Reading
Clear school mission	-.05	-.03
Frequent monitoring	-.10	-.05
High expectations	-.10	-.03
Home/school relations	-.21**	-.27**
Instructional leadership	-.26	-.23
Opportunity to learn	-.11	-.06
Safe and orderly environment	-.08	-.01
Mathematics		.97**

**p <.05

DISCUSSION

I expected to find that the correlations among the domains of the *More Effective Schools Surveys* would yield small positive correlations because they are intended to measure different but complementary aspects of school climate. However, I did not expect them to be highly correlated with each other because they were purported to measure different aspects of school climate. This suggests that aspects of school climate that were measured are related. This finding suggests that there is a need for more research on different aspects of school culture.

Only one subscale of student data from the *More Effective School Surveys* indicated statistically significant relationship with student achievement. These results contribute to the knowledge base in education research and the practice of school-based leadership. Many other empirical studies also suggested that school climate did have a significant relationship with student achievement. Researchers and school administrators would be extremely erroneous to presume there is no significant relationship between the two. Based on my experience as a former school administrator and researcher, I strongly believe that aspects of school climate and student achievement are positively related. This relationship maybe indirect and modest, but cannot be dispensed based on the finding in a single study. I offer a discussion of potential explanations of these data and seek to continue efforts to study this area.

There were many factors that could have influenced these results. Sampling procedures were vital in the results yielded in this study. Student cluster samples were used to administer the More Effective Schools surveys in this study. The More Effective Schools surveys in this study were not a requirement for every student. Participation was strictly voluntary. The mental state of students when they took the surveys may have influenced their responses. Finally, these results illustrate the difficulty of measuring and reporting school climate variables without consideration of other influential factors. Results of data analyses provide a foundation for several conclusions and recommendations for educational planning and practice.

CONCLUSIONS

The first conclusion is that measuring school climate can be an elusive and imprecise task. School climate is comprised of many different aspects. As was the case in this study, the instrument used measured seven domains of school climate. Researchers must acknowledge the difficulty of measuring a construct and continually try to find ways to adequately perform the task.

Second, the results obtained from this study are tentative and would need to be confirmed by more research. Although earlier research has suggested that the school climate variables observed in this study were positively related to student achievement, it is the responsibility of researchers to be doubtful and to continue examining these variables. Because of the results in this study, more research is warranted. Development cannot be arrested when research provides results contrary to conventional wisdom. Researchers must continue to examine school climate variables in many different educational settings.

Third, defining an effective school is a difficult task and there are many valid approaches to defining an effective school. The review of the literature illustrated some of the controversy of defining an effective school. When conducting research on effective schools, researchers must decide which approach is most appropriate for their particular interest. Researchers must determine if using a blanket shared definition or idiosyncratic definitions for different settings would be most appropriate for their research.

Fourth, school climate data are very important to the overall functioning of schools. Prior research and the results in this study have revealed the importance of school climate. It is important to local administrators because the impact of school to school culture and climate cannot be over looked. Numerous educational scholars and consultants have written about the importance of school climate.

Finally, as the findings from this study illustrate, mathematics and reading achievement are closely related. This is also a very common finding in research. This conclusion has several implications for practice. School-based administrators should capitalize on this finding that is consistent in empirical research.

One of the goals of this study was to provide recommendations to inform practice and the field of education and educational planning. The recommendations are advisory guidelines and are provided with the understanding that every school has specific dynamics that only relate to that school. The recommendations may not be applicable to every school situation and/or setting. Therefore it would be imprudent to consider these recommendations as prescription to creating an effective school in every setting. Educational planners should consider geographic location, socioeconomic status of student families, family background, teacher stability, teacher education and experience, and other factors when determining the effectiveness of a school. These recommendations are based on a study from one large urban school district. Nonetheless, these recommendations should provide considerations for educational planners who seek to make improvements in the academic and social functioning of schools.

Recommendation 1: Future researchers in this area of study should be cautious about attempting to examine school climate domains individually. It may be more viable to observe school climate as a single construct, because domains of climate examined in this study revealed that the domains were closely related to each other.

Recommendation 2: Future researchers should be very careful when selecting sampling types for school climate research. In most cases, researchers should attempt to obtain large random samples for research. Random sampling approach is expected to be more representative of the population than cluster and convenience samples.

Recommendation 3: Administrators should emphasize the relationship of mathematics and reading to faculty. The two subject areas must be integrated to maximize the impact on student achievement. Mathematics teachers should be encouraged to integrate reading skills into their lessons/student activities and reading teacher should be encouraged to do the same for mathematics. Neither subject should be taught in isolation. Because studies examining these relationships are correlational, it cannot be determined which subject influences the other. This is why it is recommended that subjects are synchronously delivered to students. Mathematics requires adequate reading skills for successful understanding and completion of many components. Reading is also enhanced by the ability to use processing and reasoning skills involved with mathematics. This type of pedagogy will allow students to synthesize information, which is a skill that requires higher-order thinking. Student using higher-order thinking is a skill aligned with common-core like instruction, a long held best practice, and a student- ability most school administrators wish to observe in classrooms.

Recommendation 4: School-based administrators must keep classroom instruction as the primary focus to improve student achievement. While many variables impact student learning, classroom instruction has the most impact on student achievement among variables that can be controlled at the school level. However, students are the product of schools and are too unique to regulate the depth of their educational experience to student achievement. Many ancillary variables, such as school climate and culture, have an indirect impact on student achievement and the overall educational experience. These variables cannot be marginalized and should be strategically integrated to support classroom instruction and the overall learning environment based on the specific needs students within the school.

Recommendation 5: Future researchers should investigate other ways to examine school climate. Perception data were used in this study, but other ways could include, but are not limited to, community perceptions of school quality, focus groups and interview data, and reports of discipline violations.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The insight yielded from this research presents several implications for educational planning researchers and practitioners. The one of the rudimentary goals of educational planning is to design educational experiences that will provide a foundation for student success. This study provides recommendations for educational planners that can help the process of mapping out strategies to ensure that students are afforded an optimal learning environment that emphasizes the correct components of school culture. Because data in this study were limited, educational planners must continue to explore the importance of school culture and how it impacts the learning environment. This research provides educational planners an impetus to examine other areas of school culture that were not captured in this study. There are many aspects of school culture not examined in this study, but may be related to the seven areas addressed. For instance, cyberbullying, social media, video-taping of incidents, threats of terrorism, socio-emotional interactions, discrimination, and other areas may be included as planners continue to study school culture. As stated in recommendation three, there is a strong positive correlation between math and reading achievement. This finding should compel educational planners to examine ways to ensure that the curriculum have the two subjects embedded and delivered in a systematic manner.

In recommendation four, educational planners are reminded that the primary determinant of student achievement is classroom instruction and that all other variables are support variables. When planning for student academic success, educational protocols must include plans to continuously examine classroom instruction. Educational planning involves studying variables that are, or have the potential to be, related to student achievement. This research contributes to this knowledge base and provides next steps and recommendations for educational planners.

REFERENCES

Association for Effective Schools. (2015). *More effective schools surveys*. Retrieved from: http://mes.org/surveys.html.

Barber, M., Whelan, F., & Clark, M. (2010). *Capturing the leadership premium: How the world's top school systems are building leadership capacity for the future*. Retrieved from: http://www.mckinsey.com/clientservice/Social_Sector/our_practices/Education/Knowledge_Highlights/~/media/Reports/SSO/schoolleadership_final.ashx

Brookover, W., & Lezotte, L. (1979). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, College of Urban Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED181005)

Cardella, F., Sprecher, S., Sudlow, R., & Spencerport Central Schools (2000). *More effective schools student and staff surveys.* New York: H.W. Meyers, University of Vermont.

Civil Rights Act of 1964, 35 U.S.C. § 3401 (1965).

Coleman, J., Campbell, E., Hobson, C., McPartland, J., Mood, A., Weinfeld, F., et al. (1966). *The equality of educational opportunity study*. Washington, DC: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Delisio, E., & Dunne, W. (2007). *Common elements of effective schools*. Retrieved from http://www.educationworld.com/a_issues/schools/schools005.shtml

Dobbie, W., & Fryer Jr, R. G. (2011). *Getting beneath the veil of effective schools: Evidence from New York City.* Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Edmonds, R. R. (1982). *Programs of school improvement: An overview*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED221536)

Hallinger, P. (2011) Leadership for learning: Lessons from 40 years of empirical research. *Journal of educational administration, 49*(2), 125-142.

Hargreaves, A., Lieberman, A., Fullan, M., & Hopkins, D. (2014). *International handbook of educational change: Part two*. New York, NY: Springer.

Hess, F. M. (2015). *Common sense school reform*. New York, NY: Macmillan.

Horng, E., & Loeb, S. (2010). New thinking about instructional leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan, 92*(3), 66-69.

Iversen, G., & Gergen, M. (1997). *Statistics: The conceptual approach*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Jacobson, S. (2011). Leadership effects on student achievement and sustained school success. *International Journal of Educational Management, 25*(1), 33-44. doi:10.1108/09513541111100107

Kannapel, S., & Clements, S. (2005). *Inside the black box of high-performing high- poverty schools*. Available from www.pritchardcommittee.org

Klein, A. (2015). ESEA Reauthorization: The Every Student Succeeds Act Explained. *Politics K-12*. Retrieved from: http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/campaign-k-12/2015/11/esea_reauthorization_the_every.html

Lezotte, L. (1991). *Correlates of effective schools: The first and second generation*. Okemos, MI: Effective School Products.
Lezotte, L. (1997). *Learning for all.* Okemos, MI: Effective Schools Products.
Meyers, H., Cardella, F., Sprecher, L., & Sudlow, R. (1994). *The More Effective Schools Teaching Project Spencerport School Survey: Pilot development and assessment Phase II.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, April 5, 2004.
Mortimore, P., & Sammons, P. (1987). New evidence on effective elementary schools. *Educational Leadership, 45*(1), 4-8.
Munich, J., & Testani, R. (2005). NEA sues over NCLB: The bucks are big, but the case is weak. *Education Next*, 4.
National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
No Child Left Behind Act, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 1001 (1) (2002).
Odden, A. (1995). *Educational leadership for America's schools*. New York: McGraw- Hill.
Reid, K., Hopkins, D., & Holly, P. (1987). *Towards the effective school*. Oxford: Blackwell.
Romero-Zaldivar, V. A., Pardo, A., Burgos, D., & Kloos, C. D. (2012). Monitoring student progress using virtual appliances: A case study. *Computers & Education, 58*(4), 1058-1067.
Sebastian, J., & Allensworth, E. (2012). The influence of principal leadership on classroom instruction and student learning: A Study of mediated pathways to learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 48*(4), 626-663.
Schlechty, P. C. (2011). *Leading for learning: How to transform schools into learning organizations*. San Franciso, CA: Jossey-Bass.
Shatzer, R. H., Caldarella, P., Hallam, P. R., & Brown, B. L. (2014). Comparing the effects of instructional and transformational leadership on student achievement: Implications for practice. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 42*(4), 445-459.
Tschannen-Moran, M. (2014). *Trust matters: Leadership for successful schools*. San Franciso, CA: Jossey-Bass.
Trujillo, T. (2013). The reincarnation of the effective schools research: Rethinking the literature on district effectiveness. *Journal of Educational Administration, 51*(4), 426-452.
Valentine, J. W., & Prater, M. (2011). Instructional, transformational, and managerial leadership and student achievement: High school principals make a difference. *NASSP Bulletin,* 95(1), 5-30.
Waters, J. T., Marzano, R., & McNulty, B. (2004). Leadership that sparks learning. *Educational Leadership, 61*(7), 48-51.

PLANNING EDUCATIONAL POLICY: TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPAL TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ISRAEL AND THE UNITED STATES

PETER R. LITCHKA
ORLY SHAPIRA- LISHCHINSKY

ABSTRACT

Nations throughout the world continue to examine how to improve their system of education in terms of improving student achievement, so that each student has the opportunity to be a productive and successful member of the global society. For this to occur, each school must be successful in the development of high quality teaching and learning. School leadership is a critical component, since the principal has tremendous influence in transforming the culture by influencing, inspiring, challenging, and motivating teachers to continuously grow and improve. The goal of this study was to examine the teacher perceptions of the transformational leadership skills of school principals, according to the teachers' school level and setting, in both Israel and the United States. The study includes 615 Israeli teachers and 514 American teachers (n= 1,129). Results indicate that Israel teachers perceive transformational leadership of their principals significantly higher than teachers in the United States, particularly with the relationship between the level of the school and the transformational abilities of the principal. The findings may be explained by different culture perceptions of power distance, individualism, and masculinity. The results may help to plan policy in support of transformational leadership in terms comparative studies need to take into consideration the differences in culture as well as current policy regarding the degree of standardized testing, and its impact on how a principal leads the school.

INTRODUCTION

Planning is unavoidable process for linking organizational goals and outcomes with organizational means. Classical management theory construes planning as an executive function, reserved primarily for those upper-level managers with the most complete view of the organization as a whole. In school districts, planning has typically been viewed as a function of the up-level of educational administration (Howley et al., 2007).

Leadership continues to be a focus of researchers and policy-makers in the quest to understand how schools throughout the world can become more effective and successful in terms of the quality of both teaching and student learning (Hallinger, 2001; Marzano, et al, 2005;). This focus is the result of the dramatic increase in reform movements within the educational systems found in nations around the world (Bell, Bolam, & Cubillo, 2003; Muijs, 2007). Subsequently, a convergence of scholarship and interest has developed that seeks to transform structures, roles, and the core of effective school leadership, including but not limited to preparation for aspiring school leaders as well as continuous professional development and learning for current school leaders (Johnson, Moller, Jacobson & Wong, 2008; Whitaker, 2002; Zagorsek, Jaklic & Stough, 2004;).

Planning in the educational environment is often thought of in terms of strategic planning, school improvement planning, planning for teacher professional development, curriculum planning, and related practices. In terms of planning for the support for aspiring and

current school leaders is, more times than no, viewed as a secondary not primary focus for policy-makers (Grogan & Andrews, 2002; Su, Gamage, & Mininberg, 2003). This has occurred, despite the strong suggestion that school leaders, second only to teachers, have a significant impact on improving student achievement (Marzano, et al, 2005). While teachers may impact individual and small groups of students (including class of students), the overall success of all students in a school can be the result of the leadership provided by the school principal. Effective principals focus their leadership and managerial efforts to support both teacher effectiveness in terms of curriculum, instruction and assessment, which in turn, supports improvement in student achievement.

From a global perspective, early efforts in determining the relationship between effective school leadership and overall school improvement were originally found in North America, particularly the United States and Canada. But, over the past several decades, the interest in effective school leadership has emerged in Europe, Asia, and parts of the Middle East (Walker & Ko, 2011, Whitaker, 2002.). It was during the last decade of the twentieth century that a new interest developed around the world in comparative educational practice and results including the concept of effective school leadership practice.

The internationalization of educational policies and practices has developed as nations have begun to observe common challenges within their educational systems. Scholars and policymakers focusing on school leadership from around the world have fostered international learning networks. An example of such a collaboration is The International Successful School Principalship Project (ISSPP), which has focused its research and support of leadership practices and models in eight nations: Australia, Canada, China, Denmark, England, Norway, United States, and Sweden (Johnson, Moller, Jacobson & Wong, 2008).

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) recognized not only the relationship of high quality education to a nation's economic growth and development, but the critical nature school leadership plays (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2008). In addition, there have been numerous initiatives to develop comparative and global studies in school leadership, including comparative models of leadership based upon cross-cultural inquiry (Dimmock & Walker, 2000).

For several decades, the role of the school principal has been examined and documented by scholars and policymakers throughout the world. Once considered the prime role to be the manager of the school, the concept of the school principal has evolved into that of the instructional leader who is collaborative and transformational (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). Yet, as more research is completed in this area, there appears to be a tendency to look *the* model of how a successful principal leads. From this, the contention is that, whatever is found, can be "plugged into" any school in any area.

As much as it is known that successful principals can be found in all countries, until recently, relatively little investigation has occurred as to how such success is determined, how these principals become successful, and how such success is sustained over time, particular where cultures and political as well as economic systems are different as well. In order to examine this more deeply, researchers need to look more outward and less inward, moving beyond geographical and intellectual borders to seek answers to these issues, in a more global manner than previously studied.

The purpose of this study is to examine the similarities and differences between school principals in Israel and the United States, based upon their teachers' perceptions in terms of

principal's ability to be transformational in their leadership. Based upon the findings, recommendations will be provided in terms of policy and professional for both current and aspiring school leaders, not only in Israel and the United States.

In addition, this study will provide a cross-cultural perspective of school leadership that will (1) deepen the understanding of American and Israeli school leadership; (2) provide a comparative context of practices of school leadership in Israel and the United States; (3) provide evidence from the data collected that can serve as a reference for future policy development for current and aspiring school leaders in Israel and the United States; (4) continue the global dialogue on the critical nature of school leadership in the 21st century.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Leadership

Transformational leadership is concerned with influencing followers in terms of their motives, needs and wants, behaviors and long-term goals. Conceptually developed by Burns (1978), transformational leadership is the opposite of transactional leadership. In transformational leadership, the leader engages with followers, creating a relationship that involves morality, motivation, individualization, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and intrinsic motivation. This is in sharp contrast to transactional leadership, which emphasizes exchanges between leader and follower, often in terms of rewards and sanctions, benefits, power and extrinsic motivational tools.

Among those who continued the work with transformational leadership included Bennis and Nanus (1985), who posited that transformational leaders had attributes focusing on have a clear vision of the future state of the organization, they were social architects in which shared values, norms and meanings were developed through thoughtful and purposeful conversations and reflection. Transformational leaders, according to Bennis and Nanus, also emphasize, model and create trust between leaders and followers, allowing for everyone within the organization to communicate and collaborate with integrity and a strong sense of self.

Kouzes and Posner (2012) developed a transformational leadership model, based upon their research that includes thousands of managers and followers from around the world. Subsequently, their model has been used extensively in leadership within government, the private sector and education as well. This model consists of five leadership practices (or behaviors) that empower leaders to accomplish remarkable outcomes that may not have been able to accomplish otherwise. Based upon the relationship that the leader develops with followers, these five practices provide a means to transform both individuals as well as groups within an organization.

- *Model the Way*-effective leaders are clear about their own personal values and beliefs, and consistently act on such by following through on promises and commitments as well. In addition, they encourage followers to do the same, and additionally, help to create an organization that has shared values, beliefs, and actions.
- *Inspire a Shared Vision*-exemplary leaders help others to see what individuals and groups can become, at a place that they have never experienced before. Such a vision is not only what the leader believes, but what the collective aspirations of everyone include.
- *Challenge the Process*-effective leaders encourage themselves and followers to innovate, improve, try new ideas and improve in an environment that allows individuals to take risks, reflect, share, and continue. Trying new things becomes the norm within the organization, not the exception.
- *Enable Others to Act*-working with followers is a critical component of this model, including building trust, treating others with dignity, respect, and with love. In addition, the leader

allows others to make choices and decisions, supports such actions, and is constantly looking for ways to support and provide appropriate resources that will help followers to be successful, both individually and collectively.

- *Encourage the Heart*-within organizations, people want to be supported and recognized for their efforts. The effective leader provides this in a manner that is consistent with the values, beliefs, mission and vision of the organization, through rituals, ceremonies and celebrations.

To measure these practices and behaviors, Kouzes and Posner (2001) created the *Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI),* which is both a self-assessment as well as observational assessment (followers) of exemplary leadership. The instrument contains 30 items, with each of the five practices having six statements for the rater (s) to assess, according to a Likert scale. The instrument has been used extensively in leadership development and preparation, including school leadership.

Cross-Cultural Leadership

For more than half a century, a proliferation of globalization has occurred throughout the world in which nations of the world have become more involved and to a certain degree, dependent upon the trading of social, economic, political, technical and scholarly ideas. Globalization is the result of rapid changes that occur concurrently throughout the world. Each of these areas interact with one another, causing a stream of ideas, knowledge and ideas to pass through national boundaries around the world (Stiglitz, 2002; Friedman, 2005).

While some may perceive the concept of globalization from a purely economic perspective, education around the world has been influenced as well. For scholars, practitioners and policymakers, education has always been a critical component of a nation's economic and social well-being. And, over the past several decades, there has been a significant increase in reforming education to meet the demands of the 21st century and beyond, as governments are faced with many issues in response to higher expectations in education, particularly in terms of improving achievement for all students. Thus, in an attempt to meet such demands, many nations of the world have been and continue to develop collaborative efforts and networks to share best practices and innovations in education, as well as to work together to help solve common educational problems. Dimmock and Walker (2000) and House and Javidan (2004) suggest that there exists an urgent need to learn about leadership, including school leadership, from across nations and cultures.

In terms of culture, Dimmock and Walker (2000) define culture in terms of the enduring set of beliefs, values, actions, norms and structures that separates one group of people from another. Hofstede argues that culture is "the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others" (p. 22). In addition, Hofstede (2014) proposes that there are six dimensions by which cultures can be compared:

- *Power Distance*-the degree within a culture that inequalities exists among the people.
- *Individualism*-the degree of interdependence that members of the culture experience.
- *Masculinity*-the degree by which a culture is influence by traditional "masculine" traits of being competitive, achievement-oriented, success, and hierarchical relationships based on gender roles.
- *Uncertainty Avoidance*-the degree by which members of a culture attempt to understand and influence the future or just let it unfold naturally.
- *Long-Term Orientation*-the degree to which members of a culture attempt to retain an association with their history in terms of dealing with current challenges.

- *Indulgence*-the degree to which people within a culture try to control their desires, needs and wants, based upon the way in which such members are reared and educated.
- According to Hofstede, individual country scores can be correlated and positioned relative to other countries. The data suggests there are significant differences between the cultures of Israel and the United States, particularly in the dimensions of *Power Distance*, *Individualism* and *Uncertainty Avoidance*. Of note,
- In terms of *Power Distance*, people in Israel tend to feel that there is less inequality in terms of government, power and access to such by the people than in the United States, although the United States has a relatively low rating of 40.
- In Israel, the sense of *Individualism* is rather moderate and much lower than that of the United States, which has a very high rating. This suggests that in Israel, there appears to be a stronger sense of commitment to a "we" consciousness and belonging to a greater good, than in the United States.
- For the domain of *Uncertainty Avoidance*, people in Israel are much more likely to perceive that they suffer from higher stress, anxiety and a continuous threat on there way of life, while people in the United States are less likely to be more tolerant for life's ambiguities and stresses.

Such studies suggest that leadership practice can not only be influenced by culture, but demonstrate that "the cultural element is not only necessary but essential in the study of leadership" (Cheng, 1995, p. 99). Within the specific domain of culture and leadership, House, & Javidan (2004) provide substantial research in this area, which are referred to as the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project (2004).

Culture has a direct impact on how leaders lead and influence followers. This is true not only in the halls of government, but in all organizations-including schools-within a culture. Differences in beliefs, values, norms, and power have a significant impact on the leader-follower relationship. Yet, at the same time as globalization continues to occur, there is much interest in identifying leadership constructs that are considered good across cultures-perhaps a universal concept of what leadership, particularly in schools, means and how it can be better understood, practices and measured.

CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study compares the leadership behaviors of principals in Israel and the United States, and the following provides a contextual framework and comparison of the two nations, in general terms of each nation's educational system, and more specifically, school leadership. The context in which this study occurs is framed within the educational systems of Israel and the United States. Although having vastly different histories, these two nations have many similarities today, including social, economic, leadership and the expressed desire to have a high quality and free public education for all. In this study we decided to conduct a cross-cultural comparison by investigating transformational leadership in order to expose to global trends regarding the impact of educational planning factors such as school level and school setting.

Education and School Leadership in Israel.

The Israeli educational system is very centralized and is controlled by the Ministry of Education (Tubin, 2011). The Israeli educational system reflects the divisions of its different populations, including ethnically heterogeneous immigrants, and is divided into the Hebrew (nonreligious public schools, religious public schools and ultra-orthodox independent schools) and Arab school systems (public schools and private parochial Christian schools). After six years in

elementary school, most Israeli students enter junior high school (grades7–9), followed by high school (grades 10–12). Students finishing junior high school can choose between the academic track, which prepares them for academic studies, and the vocational track, which usually caters to scholastically weaker students who have not done well in junior high school. Both tracks prepare students for the matriculation examinations required for higher education; however, acceptance rates to higher education are much higher for students in the academic track (Ayalon & Shavit, 2004).

Israeli education is severely underfunded. Israeli expenditure for education per student, as measured by the purchasing power parity, is low compared to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) mean, resulting in classes that are larger and teachers that are paid less than in the OECD average (OECD, 2015). The latter factors may explain why Israeli school principals often complain that it is difficult for them to maintain an effective and orderly learning environment. In most Israeli schools, classes are typically very large and noisy, and the disciplinary sanctions that teachers can legally employ are limited (Almog, 2004).

From 1948, with the establishment of the State of Israel, the role of the Israeli principal has remained basically the same, and is composed of teaching hours with the addition of management hours (Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics , 2015). The role definition is unclear, and is charged with responsibility without adequate authority. The principal population comprises 57% women,

Fifty percent are over the age of fifty, and 90% hold at least one academic degree (Worgen, 2006), with about 7.5% annual turnover. Since 2007 a radical change has occurred, with the establishment of a national center for principal training and professional development, which took upon itself the mission of improving the Israeli educational system through the activation of school principals as a leading professional community (Avney Rosha), and students' standardized testing (RAMA). Israeli Ministry of education require principals to have a Master's degree (in any research field) and specialized training in school leadership (for one year). A teacher who wants to become a principal must have a valid teaching certificate, and minimum of five years teaching.

Education and School Leadership in the United States.

The educational system within the United States, until the last half-century, had been within the domain of state and local governments with little, if any support from the federal government. It was not until the 1960s, with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA, 1965) and subsequent other civil rights legislation, that the federal government became more involved. Over the next four decades, calls for more accountability, better teaching, and improved student achievement led to much debate and research into how best to improve the schools in America. In 2003, Congress passed the *No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB)*, which resulted in dramatic and unprecedented federal involvement in education, and included higher levels of accountability, increased standardized testing, school choice as well as sweeping reforms aimed at improving teaching, professional development, and school leadership (Ravitch, 2011). *Race to the Top* (2009) supplemented NCLB and, most recently, *Every Student Succeeds Act* (2015) supplanted NCLB.

In terms of school leadership, each of the fifty states has their own educational system, which is controlled by the state educational agency, and overseen at the local level by a board of education. While the state is responsible for curriculum, assessment, and funding, it is also in charge of certification of teachers and administrators, including school principals. Most frequently, states require principals to have a Master's degree and specialized training in school leadership. Generally speaking, an educator who wants to become a principal must have a valid teaching certificate, a minimum number of years in teaching, a Master's degree in education,

successful completion of a school leadership program at the university level, and an administrative certificate issued by the state. Certification among states is not automatically reciprocal.

Teacher Perceptions

Perceptions are the way people organize and interpret their sensory input, or what they see and hear, and call it reality. Perceptions give meaning to a person's environment and make sense of the world, and are important because people's behaviors are based on their perception of what reality is (Williams, 2000). Based on Azen (2012), teachers' perceptions lead to their behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior and organizational misbehavior. Researchers have suggested that teacher perceptions of the school leader can be a critical factor in the success of a school, including the principal's ability to lead (Williams, 2000). Through their daily interactions with teachers, the school leader reinforces the desired values, norms, behaviors, and expectations, and teachers can develop their own personal reality of how effective the principal is (Keiser & Shen, 2000).

METHODOLOGY

This study is based on a comparative perspective regarding educational policy and planning. Therefore, comparing between the United States and Israel regarding factors such as school level, location and that educational policy and planning is a critical component of planning and managing changes and training school principals and teachers. The researchers focus on school level based on previous studies indicating that teachers' perceptions may be affected by their school level and location (Litchka, 2015). Thus following analyses describing the relationships between these important factors (school level, location) and transformational leadership, which may affect the educational planning and policy.

Data Collection

First, the researchers examined the questionnaires, how the questionnaires may be similar in each country, including translation issues. School roles in Israel can be different than in the US. For example, 'educator' in Israel is a teacher that, in addition to teaching the class, has the role to mediate between teachers, parents, and students, and is also responsible to the overall class instruction, discipline problems, and the content of the subject.

In addition, the researchers examined how to translate the leadership questionnaires into Hebrew, by sending the questionnaire to 25 Israeli teachers. Each teacher translated the questionnaire to Hebrew, and the Israeli researcher met these teachers, and based on these translations, decided upon the final wording of the questionnaire. Then, for each country, the questionnaire was uploaded in the relevant language.

After getting the confirmation of the ethics committees (Institutional Review Board) from the respective universities, the questionnaires were sent via email to schools and districts through Israel and within the state of Maryland (US), which were similar in size and population.

Participant Demographics

A total of 1,129 teachers from both Israel and the United States (Maryland) participated in the survey, 568 from the United States and 541 from Israel. The percentage of teachers participating from both countries was relatively similar in terms of gender, both being representative of the teacher gender demographics found in each country (Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics, 2015; NCES, 2012) with more than three-fourths of the teachers from both countries reporting themselves as female.

As shown in Table 1, more than seventy percent of the teachers from Israel reported that they taught in urban settings, while less than twenty-five percent of teachers from the United States reported teaching in an urban setting. Almost two-thirds of American teachers reported

their school location as being suburban, as opposed to almost twenty-percent of Israeli teachers indicated a suburban location.

Table 1
School Location of Participating Teachers

	Israel	United States
Urban	436 (71.4%)	122 (22.6%)
Suburban	120 (19.7%)	357 (66.1%
Rural	55 (9.0%	62 (11.5%)
Total	611(100.0%)	541 (100.0%)

Teachers in the study were asked to report the grade level in which they current teach. The choice was Elementary, Middle, and High School. As shown in Table 2, almost two-thirds of Israeli teachers reported that they were elementary teachers, as opposed to teachers in the United States, which were relatively equal in their reporting of the level at which they teach. The data collected from the United States is not reflective of the overall proportions of teachers at each level (NCES, 2014).

Table 2
School Level for Participating Teachers

	Israel	United States
Elementary	388 (65.2%)	205 (36.1%)
Middle	126 (21.2%)	192 (33.8%)
High School	81 (13.6%)	171(30.1%)
Total	595 (100.0%)	568 (100.0%)

Data Presentation

From the survey instrument, mean scores were tabulated to determine the extent to which teachers in both countries felt their principals displayed transformational leadership abilities, compiling an overall mean for all thirty items. As shown in Table 3, Israeli teachers rated their principals higher than teachers in the United States. In comparing transformational leadership between U.S. and Israel, the researchers found that Israeli teachers' perceptions were significantly higher than American teachers their schools' principals ($t=12.24$, $p=.001$).

Table 3
Transformational Leadership Perceptions by All Participating Teachers-Mean (SD)

	Israel (n=611)	United States (n=541)
All Teachers	4.17 (.67)	3.54 (.95)

As shown in Table 4, teachers in Israel showed higher perceptions of their principal's leadership in comparison to teachers in the United States. However, these differences were not found to be statistically significant between the different locations in both Israel and the United States as it relates to teacher perceptions of transformational leadership.

Table 4
Transformational Leadership Perceptions by Participating Teachers According to School Location- Mean (SD)

	Israel	United States
Urban	4.16 (.68)	3.61 (.76)
	n=436 (71.4%)	n=122 (22.6%)
Suburban	4.14 (.67)	3.58 (.84)
	n=120 (19.7%)	n=357 (66.1%)
Rural	4.30 (.39)	3.61 (.93)
	n=55 (9.0%)	n=62 (11.5%)
All Teachers	4.17 (0.67)	3.54 (.95)
	n=611 (100.0%)	n=541 (100.0%)

As shown in Table 5, significant differences were found between the different school levels in both Israel and the United States as it relates to teacher perceptions of transformational leadership, according to the level of the school in which the teacher worked. These differences were found to be statistically significant (t=14.31, *p*=.01).

Table 5
Transformational Leadership Perceptions by Participating Teachers According to School Level- Mean (SD)

	Israel	United States
Elementary	4.25 (.63)	3.57 (.86)
	n=388 (65.2%)	n=205 (36.1%)
Middle	4.07 (.65)	3.73 (.87)
	n=126 (21.2%)	n=192 (33.8%)
High School	3.92 (.80)	3.54 (.83)
	n=81(13.6%)	n=171 (30.1%)
All Teachers	4.17 (.67)	3.54 (.95)
	n=595 (100.0%)	n=568 (100.0%

Based upon a Two-Way ANOVA, the researchers examined the effect of school level (elementary, secondary/middle, high school) and location (urban, suburban, and rural) on the teachers' perceptions of their principal's transformational leadership abilities, and whether there existed significant difference between the two countries. As shown in Table 6, the interactions, based upon school level and country, were found to be statistically significant, at each school level.

Table 6
The Effect of School Level and Country by Teacher Perception of Principal's Transformational Leadership.

	F	df	*p**
School Level	4.48	2	.012
Country	87.23	1	.001
Interaction	5.65	2	.004

**significant at<.05*

DISCUSSION

The data suggested, that overall, the principals of schools in Israel were perceived to be more transformational by teachers than the principals in the United States, particularly in terms of school location (urban, suburban, and rural) and school levels (elementary, middle, high school). Such results are similar to two previous studies conducted in Turkey (Babaoglan & Litchka, 2010) and Poland (Litchka, 2015) by one of the authors. Specifically, in the former study, teachers from Turkey perceived the leadership abilities of their principals at a higher in three of the five behaviors found in the instrument (*Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Enable Others to Act*, with significant differences were found in in the domain of *Model the Way*). In the former study, similar results were found, as teachers once again rated their principals significantly higher in each of the five domains.

With three studies completed, the question that needs to be addressed from the perspective of planners, policy-makers and practitioners, is why teachers in the United States consistently perceive the leadership abilities of their principals at significantly lower levels than Turkey, Poland and the United States.

Concerns about increased accountability as a result of federal and state mandates have placed leaders in American schools in a precarious situation as they not only must carry out such mandates and ensure all students succeed, but bear the brunt of the blame if students are not successful. Across America, this generation of school principals may leave their training and understanding of transformational leaders aside in order to be the manager of testing. One could surmise that teachers see this type of structured leadership (and structured teaching) from a negative perspective.

In 2012, the job satisfaction of principals in the United States dropped nine percentage points in four years and it is at its lowest point since 2001. In the same period, teacher satisfaction had dropped 23 percentage points, including a five-point decrease in 2012. This is the lowest level it has been in 25 years. Furthermore, principals and teachers who self-reported low job satisfaction report much higher levels of stress and less likely to be working in schools where professional development for both teachers and principals are less likely to occur.

Principals and teachers with low job satisfaction report higher levels of stress than do other educators and are more likely to work in high-needs schools. Less satisfied principals are more likely to find it challenging to maintain an academically rigorous environment and an adequate supply of effective teachers in their schools, while less satisfied teachers are more likely to be working in schools where budgets and time for professional development and collaboration have decreased in the last 12 months. The subjective and often inflexible demands of the accountability system in the United States has caused a generation of school leaders to become embittered, uncomfortable and unable to lead in a manner that is more transformational and less transactional.

Moreover, the findings that found Israel teachers perceiving their principals' transformational leadership significantly higher than American teachers based upon the different cultures between the two countries. In general, transformational leadership is defined as a relationship between leader and follower in which the leader intellectually stimulates subordinates and pays special attention to each follower's individual needs. According to the Hofstede Center (2014), Israel is very in *Power Distance* (10 points), compared to the United States (40 points).

Considering school context, Israeli schools have a more informal climate, with more direct and collaborative communication between the principal and teachers. In addition, Israel is also low in *Individualism* (54 points) in comparison with the United States (91 points). From the

perspective of Israel, principals and teachers are more likely to be more caring and have unquestioned loyalty to others, based upon the collectivist societal foundation and emphasis on extended families found in Israel.

In terms of *Masculinity* a culture is influence by traditional "masculine" traits), the United States was higher (62 points) than Israel (47), which may be a reason for the more competitive nature of school principals in the United States, due to increased accountability, leading to more transactional leadership and less transformational leadership, as perceived by their teachers.

The findings also indicate that as the school level increase (elementary to middle/secondary to high school), teachers' perceptions of the transformational leadership of their principals decreases in both Israel and the United States. Thus, it may be that because schools generally become larger as they move from one level to another, there may exist more layers of administration between the principal and the teachers.

CONCLUSIONS

This study of the differences across two countries hints at how teachers in Israel and the United States perceive the extent in which their principals provide transformational leadership in their schools.

The school leadership behaviors of these principals are likely to vary across cultures. To understand these differences, we must go beyond the results of the questionnaires and look at the experiences of both the teachers and why they perceive their principal in the way they do, as well as the principals' own perceptions. What values do they express and what type of school leadership practices succeed in each context? How do school principals within each culture understand leadership? How do teachers within each culture understand leadership? Future research should look at the stories of both the teachers and their principals in order to more deeply understand school leadership within this context.

We argue that educational leadership as a field of study and research as failed to keep pace with the current internationalizing and globalization of policy and practice. While nations that have common boarders (i.e., Canada and the United States) might be more inclined to share planning and professional development for school leadership, it is less likely that this occurs when nations are separated by geographic barriers and significant cultural differences. We contend that a focus on culture as an analytical concept promises robust comparisons of school leadership across different – geo-cultural areas. Such cross-cultural comparisons can embrace a wider that than narrower perspective, incorporating school leadership, teaching and learning in a more holistic manner.

Even with knowledge and experience, as well as an awareness of one's own and other's needs within the school context, it is still possible to have a relatively parochial perspective for teachers and principals to look primarily through the lens of one's own county and its culture. It is easy to forget that there are huge populations of children and young people being educated throughout the world in continents and countries which have very different culture and traditions of school leadership (Hofstede Center , 2014).

Nevertheless, there are a number of features of successful school principals' leadership behaviors which may, with justification, be said to cross most borders. While policy, staffing and student composition contexts affect the work of all school principals, it seems that those who achieve and sustain success actively and lead in ways which enable all staff in their schools to

raise rather than dampen their aspirations of themselves and for whom those they lead. They ensure that students leave their schools with a broader rather than narrower understanding of themselves and the world within their country and beyond. This can also be said of the way in which the principal leads their teachers, in terms of modeling appropriate values, inspiring a shared vision for teachers, challenging the status quo, enabling teachers to act and grow, and recognizing teacher accomplishments. In short, what being a successful principal really means is to have a passion for teaching and learning-for both teachers and students-which is articulated and communicated through structures, school culture, relationships, and norms. The transformational principal, particularly with teachers, will continuously inspire and influence teachers, both on an individual as well as collective based, in a manner that stimulates intellectual and professional growth.

This study indicates potential benefits for participants in international professional dialogue, regardless of cultural differences. Policy-makers, scholars and school district leaders must include this as an integral part of planning for the professional development of both current and aspiring leaders, including but not limited to how school principals may come to (re)consider how they learn and lead.

There are three implications of the study for planning for leadership development. First, school leaders should engage in ongoing professional networks that extend beyond their own culture so they can understand themselves in relation to the larger world. Second, in planning for such leadership development, it is critical to have both the principals *and* the teachers as part of this conversation, for as has been mentioned, principals and teachers may have different perceptions of the leadership skills of said principal. Finally, in terms of cross-cultural professional development-particularly in North America-the question of "What can we teach them?" be replaced by "What can we learn from them?"

REFERENCES

Almog, O. (2004). Farewell to 'Surlik': *Changing values among the Israel elite*. Haifa: Haifa University Press (in Hebrew).

Azen, I. (2012). The theory of planned behavior. In: Lange, P., Kruglanski, A., & Higgins, E. (eds.). *Handbook of theories of Social Psychology*. London: Sage, pp. 438-459.

Babaoglan, E., & Litchka, P. (2010). An examination of leadership competencies of school principals in Turkey and the United States. *Egitim ve Bilim-Education and Science*. *35*(158), 58-74

Bell, L., Bolam, L., & Cubillo, L. (2003). *A systematic review of the impact of school head teachers and principals on student outcomes*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Blasé, J., & Blasé, J. (2000). Effective instructional leadership: Teachers' perspective on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38,* 130-141.

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

Cheng, K. M. (1995). The neglected dimension: Cultural comparison in educational administration. In K. C. Wong and K. M. Cheng (Eds.), *Educational leadership and change: An international perspective*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2000). Developing comparative and international educational leadership and management: a cross-cultural model. *School Leadership & Management, 20*(2), 143-160.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 P.L. 89-10; § 79 Stat. 27 (1965).

Friedman, T. (2005). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Grogan, M. & Andrews, R. (2002). Defining preparation and professional development for the future. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 38*(2), 233-256.

Hallinger, P., Bickman, L., & Davis, K. (1996). School context, principal leadership and student achievement. *Elementary School Journal, 96*(5), 498-518.

Hallinger, P. (2001). A review of two decades of research on the principalship using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Education Research Association. Seattle, WA.

Hofstede Center, (2014). *Cultural Compass.* Retrieved from http://geert-hofstede.com/cultural-survey.html

House, R., & Javidan, M. (2004). Overview of GLOBE. In House, R., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., Gupta, V., and Associates (Eds.). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Howley, A., Howley, C., and Larson, W. (2007). Principals approach to planning: The influence of gender and experience. *Educational Planning*, 31, 35-79.

Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics (2015). *Education in Israel-An international comparison*. Jerusalem: Ministry of Education (in Hebrew).

Johnson, L., Moller, J., Jacobson, S. & Wong, K. (2008). Cross-national comparisons in the international successful school principalship project (ISSPP). *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 52*(4), 407-422.

Keiser, N. & Shen, J. (2000). Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Empowerment. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*.7: 115-121,

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (2001). *The leadership practices inventory-Participant workbook* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (2012). *The leadership challenge-How to make extraordinary things happen in organizations* (5th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Litchka, P. (2015). An examination of school principal leadership abilities as perceived by teachers in Poland and the United States. *Leadership and Policy Quarterly. 4*(1), 1-21.

Muijs, D. (2007). *Every child matters: Leading schools to promote social inclusion-a study of practice.* Manchester, UK: National College for School Leadership.

National Center for Education Statistics (2012). *Schools and Staffing Survey*. Washington, DC: Author.

OECD (2015). Education at a Glance.2011. Available from http::www.oecd.org/education/school/educationataglance2011oecdindicators.

Ravitch, D. (2011). *The death and life of the great American school system: How testing and choice are undermining education.* New York: Basic Books.

Stiglitz, J. (2002). *Globalization and its Discontents*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Su, Z., Gamage, D., & Mininberg, E. (2003). Professional preparation and development of school leaders in Australia and the United States. *International Education Journal*, *4*(1), 42-59.

Tubin, D. (2011). From principals' actions to students' outcomes: An explanatory narrative approach to successful Israeli schools. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 10*(4), 395-411.

Walker, A. & Ko, J. (2011). *Principal leadership in an era of accountability: a perspective from the Hong Kong context. School Leadership & Management. 31*(4), 369-392.

Whitaker, T. (2002). *What great principals do differently*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Williams, H. (2000). Teachers' perceptions of principal effectiveness in selected secondary schools in Tennessee. *Education 121*(64).

Worgen, Y. (2006). *The principal status in the educational system*. The Knesset (Israeli Parliament). Center for Information and Science (in Hebrew). Retrieved from www. knesset. gov. il/mmm/data/docs/m01681. doc.

Zagorsek, Hugo, Marko Jaklic, and Stanley J. Stough. Comparing leadership practices between the United States, Nigeria, and Slovenia: Does culture matter? *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal* 11.2 (2004): 16-34.

APPLIED ENTREPRENEURSHIP POLICY: ONTARIO'S COLLEGES IN THE AGE OF GLOBALIZATION

AGOSTINO MENNA
HOLLY CATALFAMO
COSIMO GIROLAMO

ABSTRACT

In the age of globalization, postsecondary institutions in Canada have been called upon to be more innovative to support the development of a workforce that is better able to respond to the rapidly changing environment. This exploratory study proposes a framework to examine applied entrepreneurship as a conceptual framework by exploring the differences between colleges that use innovation (research and development) and entrepreneurship/small business (SMEs and start-ups). A purposive sampling procedure was used for this study with 10 Ontario colleges randomly selected. By examining the strategic mandate agreements of Ontario colleges, the researchers analyzed the data by carefully reviewing the excerpts, quotations, or entire passages in which innovation policy was related to course-based research and entrepreneurship policy related to self-employment (SME). The data revealed that the innovation approach delivered by colleges reflects research directed to an applied approach and is primarily directed to practical or commercial objectives, serving the needs of local employers and supporting economic development. In terms of entrepreneurship policy, the data suggest that there is limited alignment with an applied entrepreneurship approach. Inclusion of applied entrepreneurship in the strategic planning processes of colleges is an important step toward the attainment of innovation and entrepreneurship outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship in public policy has been integrated into strategic plans at all levels of government in Canada. In the early 1990's, the Canadian government commissioned a 4-year study by Michael Porter from Harvard University that revealed Canada's challenges in the global arena (Porter, 1990). Porter (1990) stated that a nation's competitive advantage is based on its ability to be innovative and enterprising when addressing problems and argued that Canada could not continue to sustain a high standard of living by merely exporting its natural resources and operating by the standards of the industrial age.

It was also during the 1990's that the dominant economic system, described as the *industrial age*, gave way to a new era of globalization that was brought about, in part, by the disintegration of the Soviet Union caused by the collapse of the Berlin Wall and the end of the cold war. Unlike the cold war system, globalization is a dynamic ongoing process; globalization involves the integration of markets, nation-states, and technologies to a degree never previously witnessed and in a way that enables individuals, corporations, and nation-states to reach around the world farther, faster, and cheaper than ever before (Friedman, 2000).

In the age of globalization, postsecondary institutions in Canada have been called upon to be more innovative to support the development of a workforce that is better able to respond to the rapidly changing global environment. Some researchers have argued that entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship policy, are important drivers of economic growth (Praag &Versloot, 2007). In the last two decades, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial cultures within postsecondary environments have been implemented to varying degrees throughout the educational system across Canada (Parsley & Djukic, 2010). However, it could be argued that for postsecondary institutions to embrace and adopt entrepreneurial cultures fully, strategic planning processes must recognize and incorporate such imperatives in their strategic objectives and planning documents.

This exploratory study examines one section of the postsecondary landscape in Canada: Ontario colleges. The paper presents a framework by which to examine applied entrepreneurship

as a conceptual framework by exploring the differences between colleges and universities that use innovation (research and development) and entrepreneurship/small business (SMEs and start-ups). By examining the strategic mandate agreements of Ontario colleges, gaps related to applied entrepreneurship are explored, the balance between innovation policy and entrepreneurship policy is examined, and the use of applied enterprise in the strategic mandate agreements is discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Globalization has been described as the dominant economic view of today in which a global knowledge economy has emerged. Globalization is driven by the application of new technologies and collapsing barriers to international trade and investment that accelerated the evolutionary path from a low- to a high-skills economy (Brown & Lauder, 2012). According to Friedman (2000), Globalization 1 took place between 1945 and 1989 and was a response to falling transportation costs including rail, steam-power, and the automobile. People could get to places faster and cheaper. The cold war was characterized by an international system that was divided by two competing ideologies: capitalism and communism. When communism disintegrated, capitalism became common throughout the world. Friedman also described a second wave within Globalization 2 which occurred between 1990 and 2002 and was precipitated by falling telecommunication costs and the proliferation of microchips, satellites, fiber optics, Internet fiber optics, and the Internet.

Globalization is a fact of life, as pointed out by Schwab and Smadja (1996) of the World Economic Forum, who identified four basic elements of economic globalization:

(1) the lightning speed with which capital moves across borders,
(2) the redistribution of economic power,
(3) the reduction of jobs in this emerging environment, and
(4) the popular skepticism of this emerging economic reality.

In his book, *The Weightless Society,* Leadbeater (2000) also described globalization. He concluded that turning ones back on the global economy would mean ignoring the most vital forces in modern societies: the accelerating spread of knowledge and ideas. He characterized three forces that drive globalization: financial capitalism, knowledge capitalism, and social capital, which contributes to a thriving knowledge society that is cosmopolitan and open, rewards talent and creativity, and invests in people and education. Luczkiw (2007) called this phenomenon a major paradigm shift, which is a result of the interplay of three critical forces: the movement of talent, capital, and knowledge across borders. Thanks to the power of the Internet, anyone, anywhere, with strong commitment and perseverance, can disrupt most existing industry groups (Christensen, Parsons, & Fairbourne, 2010).

According to Friedman (2000), the second wave of globalization, Globalization 2, took place after 1990. Friedman believed that this wave is made up of the three biggest forces on the planet: the market, Mother Nature, and Moore's Law, which are all surging very quickly and at the same time. Globalization ties economies together more tightly than ever before, making workers, investors, and markets much more interdependent and exposed to global trends, without walls to protect them.

Moore's Law is the theory that the speed and power of microchips will double every two years (Luczkiw, 2007). In their book, *The Second Machine Age*, Brynjolfsson and McAfee (2014) argued that with relentless increases in the power of software, computers, and robots, many more traditional white- and blue-collar jobs are being replaced. At the same time, new jobs are being created, all of which require more complex and knowledge-based skills. The rapid growth of carbon in the atmosphere and environmental degradation and deforestation because of population growth on earth are believed to destabilize the world's ecosystems at an increasingly

rapid pace. In sum, it could be argued that the world is immersed in three climate changes: digital, ecological, and geo-economical.

This shift to the second part of globalization was further characterized by Tapscott and Williams (2010), who described it as a new engine of innovation and wealth creation and a powerful new force that radically drops collaboration costs. As such, globalization enables communities to collaborate on shared concerns, endeavors, and challenges (McAfee, 2009). Enterprise 1.0 offered the first wave of Internet tools, but several years of experimentation and adaptation have created new and better online tools for collaboration and connection (McAfee, 2009). In the new 2.0, interactivity of the Internet has emerged with new social media platforms (Tapscott & Williams, 2010). For the first time in history, people everywhere can participate fully in the collective achievement of their new future.

The global narrative of the past 25 years is now economic and financial as much as social, cultural, or political. Identities are defined and reinvented around money. Individual economic futures increasingly depend on financial success (Das, 2011). Entrepreneurship became one of those narratives that would be used as a strategic imperative to usher in a new prosperity that is built within the structure of globalization. Earlier pundits encouraged citizens to compete against other nations by using their creativity, innovation, and skillful use of knowledge and resources to "create what has never existed before" (Land & Jarman, 1992, p. 21). In his book, *Global Paradox*, Naisbitt (1995) stated, "The bigger the global economy, the more powerful its smallest players" (p. 1). As all of the big players become smaller, the study of the smallest economic player, the entrepreneur, is merging with the study of how the global economy works (Luczkiw, 1995). In a presentation to the World Economic Forum, Michael Porter (1990) identified two existing models that make a country and organization competitive: the first model uses efficiency as the source of competitive advantage and is mainly operated by multinationals; the second model is based on innovation and growth to meet the individualized needs of the consumer. This atmosphere emphasizes self-reliance and promotes job creation because entrepreneurship and innovation will lead to the creation of new enterprises and business ecosystems.

However, negative views about globalization do exist. Critics of the globalization movement were skeptical of the promises of higher wages, better jobs, and greater levels of standard of living (Krugman, 2012; Madrick, 2014; Stiglitz, 2015). The optimism about globalization was part of the policy shift that started in the early 1980's in the United States (Reagan), the United Kingdom (Thatcher), and also in Canada (Mulroney). In the late 1960's and 1970's, Western economies were gripped by *stagflation*, which is a combination of low growth, high unemployment, and inflation that resisted Keynesian or interventionist policy to fix broken economies. The election of these economically right-wing governments hastened a return to free markets; efficient markets were favored over efficient governments. All three governments were elected with a mandate to reverse their respective country's economic and social woes (Das, 2011). By the late 1980's, neoliberal ideals (as the Chicago School ideas were then called) dominated economic thinking (Johnson & Kwak, 2011). This, coupled with the demise of the Soviet Union, created the conditions for the rediscovery of entrepreneurship. Disciplined by competition with each other, all nations, including developing ones, would make what they manufactured best. Trade would soar, information would spread at the speed of light, wages would rise, and poverty would decline dramatically. Rich countries would benefit along with poor. Economists first argued that if inequality of incomes were rising, it had little to do with globalized trade and almost everything to do with inadequate education and changing technologies (Madrick, 2014).

Twenty-five years after the start of globalization, the payoffs have not materialized. One area of growing disparity is income inequality. Studies by Reich (2012) described the growth in income polarization in the United States. He argued that the incomes of the top 20% have pulled away from the rest because of their ability to break free from the constraints of local and national labor markets. Piketty (2014) illustrated the emergence of extreme income inequality and the

concentration of income and wealth in the hands of the plutocracy (Freeland, 2014). Global capitalism, intended to boost the quality of life of people around the world, widens the gap between rich and poor (Bjerke & Ramo, 2011). This argument was further supported by Nobel laureates Stigliz and Krugman (Krugman & Wells, 2013).

Additional problems have been associated with free-trade theory. In developed nations, where manufacturing job losses were most prevalent, many higher paying jobs were lost as jobs were off-shored. Many workers were unable to maintain full employment and their standards of living were diminished. Promises of adequate social programs to offset reduced wages resulting from the implementation of free trade have rarely been kept (Stiglitz, 2015).

Globalization also brought with it increasing destabilization of financial markets with the liberalization of capital markets and the interconnected nature of economies. In the 1990's, there were several examples of such destabilization, including the Asian financial crisis, the collapse of Long Term Capital Management, and crises in the financial markets of Russia, Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina. In addition, the dot.com bust of the early 21st century created booms and busts in assets markets (Partnoy, 2004). This culminated in the great recession of 2008, which was brought down by the collapse of the U.S. housing market and the corresponding derivatives and financial instruments that were distributed to global investors (Roubini, 2009). The finance of the global economy has emerged; that is, the conversion of everything into monetary form (Das, 2011). Increased wealth and consumption, increased borrowing, and some pursuits of making money are no longer directly linked to the production of goods. Speculators can make money from trading oil even if they do not actually produce, refine, or consume oil (Partnoy, 2004).

Critics of globalization and the accompanying neoliberal perspective also emerged in the education sector (Ball, 2007). Pundits pointed to corporate organization, privatization, entrepreneurship, and interinstitutional competition as key factors in the hijacking of higher education by business elites and their political puppets (Bauman, 1998). Pressure on universities to increase collaboration with the business sector have met with some resistance on campuses among faculty who are sensitive to the differences between the values and conventions of academe and those of business (Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009). Some might argue that instead of educating students for citizenship and democracy, schools are preparing them for a stratified labor force for the advancement of globalization (Bauman, 1998). Bowles and Gintis (2011) developed what they referred to as the correspondence principle, claiming that the primary aim of education in society involves a "correspondence" between the fundamental social relationships that exist in schools and workplaces (Rosenberg, 2003) . Bowles and Gintis (2011) began by assuming that education must perform the stabilizing function of affirming dominant social institutions and cultural forms, but it should also play the personal developmental and egalitarian roles envisaged by Marx (Livingstone, 2009). The benevolent assumptions of the functionalist sociology of Talcott Parsons attempted to show that schools in capitalist societies consistently impede full personal development. Instead, they legitimate rather than reduce social inequality in the process of performing this stabilizing function (Bowles & Gintis, 2011). At stake is whether postsecondary education continues to fulfill a progressive mandate centered on education as a tool for social justice and change, or whether it succumbs to a neoliberal agenda driven by government austerity and private interest.

The context described above is a critical component of the understanding of why higher education internalized the global shifts and shocks of the past 25 years and, more importantly, why entrepreneurship policy was integrated into the strategic planning processes of postsecondary institutions. The next section of the literature review explores the research related to entrepreneurship policy in higher education followed by an examination of how Ontario's colleges have responded to globalization and entrepreneurship within their strategic plans.

Entrepreneurship Policy in Higher Education

A strong belief that entrepreneurship is a crucial driver of economic growth for both developed and developing nations has emerged among both scholars and policymakers (Praag & Versloot, 2007). Governments' basic policy response to globalization was to develop policy that would create jobs. "The Job Generation Process" (Birch, 1979), an early study, moved new, small, and growing businesses to the attention of policymakers in much of the developed world. According to Schumpeter (2011), entrepreneurship is a driving force of innovation and more generally an engine for economic development. Endogenous growth theorists (Aghion & Howitt, 1997) highlighted the importance of human capital and research and development (R&D) as additional explanations for increasing returns in the aggregate production function. More recently, several scholars have proposed entrepreneurship as a third driver of economic growth. These scholars have suggested that entrepreneurs, with the development of new companies, are able to exploit the opportunities provided by new knowledge and ideas that are not fully understood and commercialized by the mature incumbent firms (Audretsch, Keilbach, & Lehmann, 2006). Entrepreneurship represents a missing link between investment in new knowledge and economic development, thus serving as a conduit for both entirely new knowledge and knowledge spillovers (Audretsch et al., 2006).

Entrepreneurship policy, then, primarily concerns the creation of an environment and support system to foster the emergence of new entrepreneurs and the start-up and early-stage growth of new firms to outsmart or outmaneuver economic rivals (Lundstrom & Stevenson, 2005). Schools, colleges, universities, think tanks, design centers, and research laboratories are on the front line in the search for competitive advantages. It could be argued that it is within this perspective that higher education also has adapted entrepreneurship policy as part of its strategic plans. This does not only consist of entrepreneurship education, or programs that teach entrepreneurship, but also entrepreneurship as a culture and mindset that is pervasive throughout the school.

Other researchers have raised concerns about the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education efforts (Harris, Forbes, & Fletcher, 2000). In fact, some have found formal entrepreneurship training to be disadvantageous (Raffo, Lovatt, Banks, & O'Connor, 2000). However, the feedback received from those being trained is that they benefit from applied as well as the theoretical perspectives (Feldman, 2001). Regardless of one's point of view, it is important to note that entrepreneurship education has been implemented in higher education since the early 1990' with its foundations grounded in human capital theory.

Some researchers are critical of the role of entrepreneurship in public policy. In general, public policy in entrepreneurship facilitates investment in knowledge-creating activities, such as research and education, and encourages agents of change, or entrepreneurs, to innovate. In this regard, policy targets include higher education, scientists, schools, and research institutions, as well as nascent entrepreneurs. Policy instruments include funding for research and science as well as funding to start new businesses and efforts to support individuals in becoming entrepreneurs (Audretsch & Link, 2012). Some have argued that these types of investments lead to poor results and point to a lack of empirical evidence to support public investments. Shane (2010) provided eight key conclusions from his research that support his claims of poor return on investment in entrepreneurship. These include:

(1) Encouraging start-ups in general is lousy public policy because we have no evidence that people create too few or the wrong businesses in the absence of government intervention, and there is much evidence that these policies lead people to start marginal businesses that are likely to fail, have little economic impact, and generate little employment.
(2) Investing a dollar or an hour of time in the creation of an additional average new business is a worse use of resources than investing a dollar or an hour of time in the expansion of an average existing business.

(3) No evidence supports the notion that new firm formation causes economic growth; rather, economic growth probably causes people to start businesses. Controlling for other differences across countries, in the number of people who run their own businesses is negatively associated with economic growth.
(4) People are more likely to start companies in poorer and more agricultural places than in places that are richer and more reliant on manufacturing.
(5) People in places with high rates of unemployment are more likely to start businesses than people in places with low rates of unemployment.
(6) New firms do not create more jobs than existing firms; to get to 50% of net new jobs created by so-called new firms, one must consider all firms that are nine years old and younger to be new.
(7) All of the job growth created by a given cohort of new firms comes in its first year; in every subsequent year, the cohort loses more jobs because of company failure than it adds as a result of company expansion.
(8) The jobs in start-ups pay less, offer fewer benefits, and are more likely to disappear over time than jobs in existing companies.

Critics of Shane's perspectives have argued that enterprise education needs to develop beyond the economist viewpoint of business start-up and business growth and promote the notion that evaluations of enterprise education should encompass prime pedagogical objectives of enterprise education, thus enabling students to grow and develop and to shape their own identities in the light of their learning experiences (Edwards & Muir, 2012).

Despite the debate, Canadian schools of higher education continue to resource entrepreneurship education as a government priority (Parsley & Djukic, 2010). Over the last decade, government programs have promoted R&D within the higher education sector to increase the production and development of new knowledge and the attraction and retention of world-class researchers. Taken together, R&D and new knowledge are entrepreneurial opportunities. As such, higher education institutions are in a position to play a significant role in developing an entrepreneurial advantage in Canada. Providing potential entrepreneurs with appropriate skills and support is an important element required to build a global competitive advantage.

In the province of Ontario in Canada, there are two systems of higher education generally recognized: universities and colleges. Globalization impacted both types of postsecondary institutions. Clark et al. (2009) suggested that there are three important implications:

(1) Globalization has heightened the public perception of the importance to the province's economic well-being of the knowledge and skills produced by post-secondary institutions by their teaching and research;
(2) The heightened public interest in the contribution of higher education to economic growth and security puts considerable stress on colleges and especially universities in dealing with the age-old tension between economic and broader intellectual cultural objectives; and,
(3) Globalization has spawned apparent pressure to blur the boundaries between higher education and industry.

The next section explores in greater detail the origin, evolution, and role of Ontario's colleges since their creation in 1967 to the present.

Ontario's Colleges: Strategic Planning and the Strategic Mandate Agreement

The province of Ontario is the largest and most populated in Canada. Postsecondary education is delivered by 20 provincially chartered universities, and there are 24 publically funded colleges in Ontario, with an annual budget of $7.5 billion, using 2013–2014 estimated operating and capital expenditures (Ministry of Training, 2015). The colleges, which were established in the late 1960's, are organized into what in most jurisdictions would recognize as a

state system (Lang, 2009) and were designed to be completely separate from the universities. Colleges were created as an instrument of public policy and their role was to be predominately economic (Dennison & Levin, 1988).

Colleges were intended to prepare workers for the provincial economy, particularly workers in the middle of the occupational hierarchy. The universities each have their own charters, are highly autonomous, and are a system only in the sense that they are financed under a single funding formula. In contrast to the predominantly economic mission of colleges, universities in Ontario have attempted to balance their economic role with their broader intellectual, cultural, and civic functions (Fisher & Rubenson, 1998).

Colleges distinguish themselves from their university counterparts by focusing on applied, rather than theoretical, research. *Applied research* has been defined as research directed primarily toward specific practical or commercial objectives (Clark et al., 2009). The colleges' role in applied research was legally recognized in the *Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Act* in 2002 (Clark et al., 2009)(Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009). The Act states that the colleges can undertake applied research to educate their students, meet the needs of employers, and support community economic development (Clark et al., 2009).

From a strategic planning perspective, colleges have pivoted over the past 15 years to differentiate themselves from universities. In terms of strategic planning, the literature has shifted from a rational, structured, technical approach (Friedman & Hudson, 1974; Kaufman & Herman, 1991) to more interactive, political, collaborative, creative paradigms (Bryson, 2011; Cook, 1995; Newberry, 1992). Critics of strategic planning practice include Mintzberg (1994), who argued for that there should be a distinction between strategic planning and strategic thinking and believed these processes to be, in some cases, mutually exclusive. He suggested that often what is presented as strategic planning is actually no different from long-term planning.

Other literature has linked strategic planning and organizational learning (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1998), education reform (D'Amico, 1989) and accountability (Dunn, 1998; Gaither, 1996). Other links with strategic planning in the literature present various other factors related to the success or failure of strategic planning; prevalent among these is leadership (Turan & Sny, 1996), cultural context (Carlson, 1991), and politics (Moore, 2000).

As fiscal pressure mounted in the public sector over the past decade, the Ontario government recently developed strategic mandate agreements to develop a more focused approach that would differentiate colleges and universities. The rationale was to spend money with little or no overlap, which would result in increased efficiencies in the system.

When the colleges were first created, the goal was to replicate the same institutional model across all regions, thereby instituting a relatively homogeneous product (Clark et al., 2009; Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009). Strategic mandate agreements were introduced to ensure that Ontario's postsecondary system would build on individual strengths. The agreements are legal documents, signed by all publicly funded colleges and universities, that help guide future growth by encouraging more focus on unique strengths and avoiding or limiting expansion in academic areas in which programs already exist (Ministry of Training, 2014). Therefore, strategic mandate agreements are negotiated with individual institutions based on Ontario's Differentiation Policy Framework for Postsecondary Education. Research has shown that differentiated postsecondary education supports greater quality, competitiveness, accountability, and sustainability by allowing institutions to spend resources more efficiently and to focus on their areas of strength (Government of Ontario, 2013). As strategic mandates began to change this dynamic, researchers have suggested that applied entrepreneurship may serve as one of the factors that may help each college to distinguish its unique value proposition.

Applied Entrepreneurship and Conceptual Framework

As stated earlier, postsecondary education in Ontario includes two systems of publicly funded institutions. Figure 1 illustrates Ontario's landscape of higher education and demonstrates

the differences between colleges and universities using innovation (R&D) and entrepreneurship/ small business (SMEs and start-ups).

In Ontario, colleges focus on Quadrants 3 and 4, and universities focus on Quadrants 1 and 2. Evidence suggests that there is a limited number of training approaches in entrepreneurship that go beyond Quadrant 2. The dominant traditional paradigm of entrepreneurship programs is largely an academic-university paradigm; insufficient research has been conducted on Quadrant 3. Since 2002, colleges in Ontario have initiated applied research (Quadrant 4) to differentiate themselves from the traditional research that has been conducted on universities. The applied research approach focuses on helping Ontario's businesses, industries, and community organizations by enabling college researchers to engage in high priority applied research and development, innovation, and commercialization activities. To this extent, research has been differentiated between colleges and universities in Ontario. The gap, however, can be found in entrepreneurship. Figure 1 addresses this gap in applied entrepreneurship, specifically, in Quadrant 3. Policy and programs in colleges and universities currently do not distinguish between entrepreneurship as an academic approach and as an applied approach. Entrepreneurship programs may be useful from a university-academic approach but do little to instill and encourage entrepreneurship and small business start-ups in an applied manner (Gibb, 2006).

Quadrant 1: This quadrant consists of academic university researchers whose primary purpose is to contribute to scholarly pursuits and whose research contribution is to build theory with empirical analysis.

Quadrant 2: This quadrant consists of academic researchers and students from university, whose primary purpose is to commercialize and scale research-backed scientific discoveries.

Quadrant 3: This quadrant consists of applied instructors and students from college, whose primary purpose is to commercialize competency-based training, resulting in small business creation.

Quadrant 4: This quadrant consists of applied researchers from college whose primary purpose is to conduct course-based research from which students and community organizations such as small business owners receive benefits.

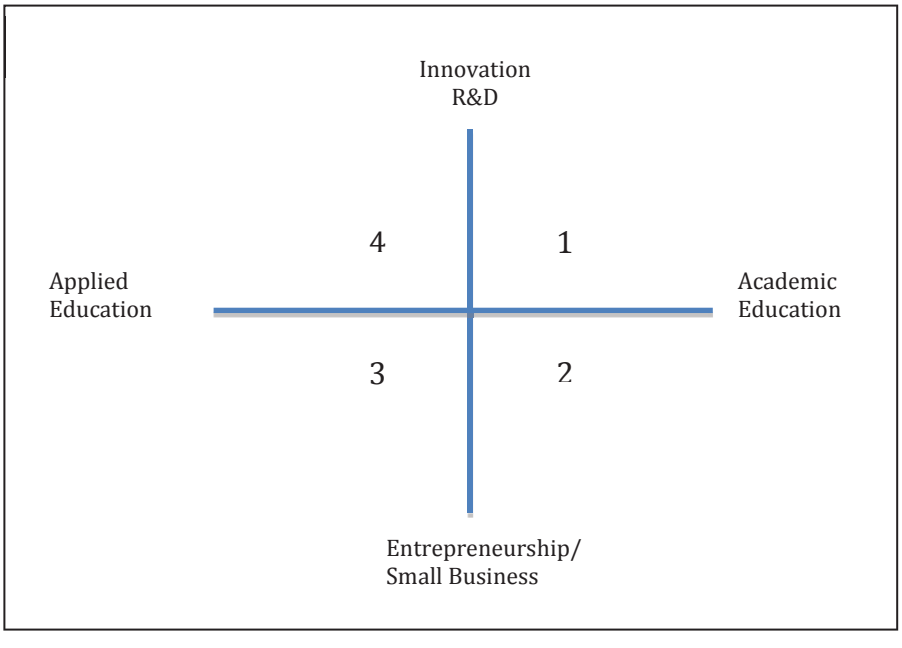

Figure 1: Ontario's higher education landscape with respect to innovation and entrepreneurship.

The next section addresses the conceptual framework. Figure 2, which illustrates applied entrepreneurship in Ontario colleges, introduces an applied entrepreneurship conceptual framework for colleges in Ontario. This framework is suggested as a new perspective in conceptualizing and delivering entrepreneurship and small business education in an applied context.

The variables that explain the conceptual framework consist of the following definitions:

Students: Students are the learners in the applied context who bring their individual values, intrinsic motivation, interests, strengths and talents, drive, and determination in the learning environment. The interaction between the student and the learning environment is important to nurture applied entrepreneurship.

Idea: The idea is the learner's ability to create a concept through creativity and innovation. The idea carries with it the need to compete and/or cooperate to supply the economic and/or society with a need that sufficiently meets demand. The idea needs to be well researched and ready to be tested. There must be capacity on the part of the school to allow students to communicate their ideas until it fits the opportunity.

Opportunity: Opportunities are necessary in order for the idea to meet the demand in the economy/society. These opportunities are based on trends and their impact at the global, national, and regional levels in order to for the ideas to find niches in the marketplace.

Resources: Resources comprise the school and community resources to support the student and the idea. Resources consist of refer to funding, faculty, staff, technology, facilities and community expertise to assist in the launch of a new venture to commercialize applied competencies and skills.

Competencies and Technical Skills: Community colleges in Ontario were established to respond to labour-market needs in communities across the province. Applied education largely consists of hands-on technical training in many diverse fields. These skills can be applied not only to employment but for those individuals who wish to be self-employed.

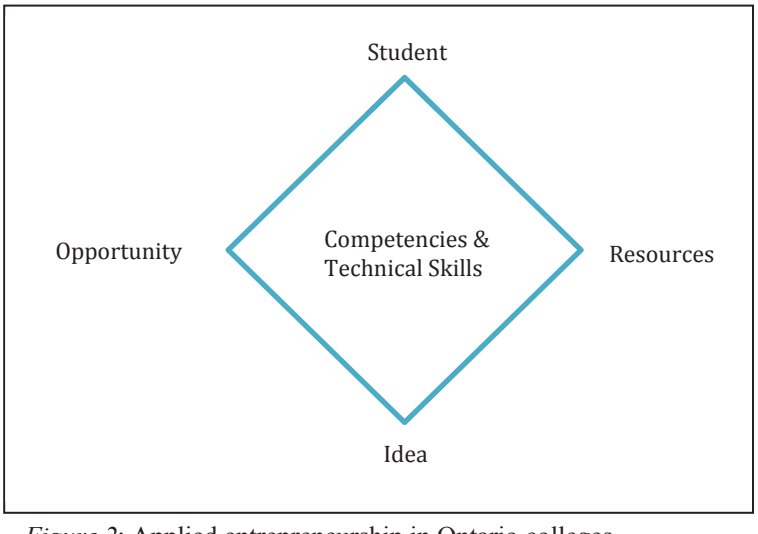

Figure 2: Applied entrepreneurship in Ontario colleges.

METHODOLOGY

The research design is exploratory. The main purpose of this study was to ascertain the strategic objectives of Ontario's community colleges as related to entrepreneurship and small business enterprise. Four key objectives drove the research:

(1) Identify entrepreneurship policy, in terms of self-employment, in Ontario colleges' Strategic Mandate Agreement,
(2) Explore gaps in the Strategic Mandate Agreement which pertain to applied entrepreneurship, as defined by the conceptual framework,
(3) Explore the balance between innovation policy (course-based research) and entrepreneurship policy (self-employment) in the Strategic Mandate Agreements, and
(4) Identify the use of applied entrepreneurship, as defined in the conceptual framework in the Ontario's colleges Strategic Mandate Agreements.

An exploratory study was selected because of the uniqueness of applied entrepreneurship. Because applied enterprise is an emerging model, an exploratory study is useful to answer broad questions such as "What is going on here?" Because the research needs to explore strategic success factors, this research design is most suitable for those objectives. Therefore, the study needs to take a broad view of Ontario's colleges to gather information so that a description of what is occurring can be made as it relates to the conceptual framework.

Sample

A purposive sampling procedure was used for this study. Purposeful sampling is a non-random method of sampling in which the researcher selects information-rich cases for in-depth study. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Yin, 1994). There are 24 publicly funded colleges in Ontario, of which 2 are French-speaking schools. The sample for this study includes 10 English-speaking schools selected based on geographic regions of Ontario (Table 1) and the language fluency of the research team. The selected 10 colleges included 2 from the north, 2 from the south, 2 from the east, and 2 from the Greater Toronto Area (central). The study analyzed 10 Strategic Mandate Agreements using a document analysis. Document analysis is a systematic procedure used to review and evaluate documents (Bowen, 2009). In this particular study, electronic strategic mandate agreements were obtained.

Table 1: *Publicly Funded Colleges Identified*

Geographic Region	Schools
North	Northern, Sault
South	Niagara, Mohawk
East	Algonquin, St. Lawrence
West	Fanshawe, St. Clair,
Central	Humber, Seneca

Procedure

The research team randomly selected 10 colleges in Ontario based on geographic location in the province, and subsequently downloaded 10 Strategic Mandate Agreements from their respective Web sites. Specifically, the procedure involved finding, selecting, appraising, and synthesizing data contained in the Strategic Mandate Agreements. This analysis yielded data that included excerpts, quotations, or entire passages in which innovation policy related to course-based research (R&D) and entrepreneurship policy related to self-employment (SME) were explicitly mentioned in the Strategic Mandate Agreement and then organized them into major themes and categories using content analysis (Labuschagne, 2003). The researchers

carefully examined and interpreted the data to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

In addition, the researchers coded the data using content analysis, which is the appropriate technique for the objective and systematic study of message characteristic in natural language (Holsti, 1969). The researchers then proceeded to develop a classification scheme to count the number of times words were said based on the research questions identified earlier.

Instrument

A research framework was developed based on the conceptual framework (Figure 2). From the conceptual framework, an instrument was created to collect the data. The instrument centered on five themes to investigate in the Strategic Mandate Agreements: differentiation between schools, aspirations to include entrepreneurship, contextual justification to include entrepreneurship, teaching and learning entrepreneurship, and whether there is evidence to suggest that innovation and/or entrepreneurship appears to be valued.

Measures, Analysis, and Data Sources

An artifact data worksheet was developed (Table 2), and data were collected from 10 Strategic Mandate Agreements. The researchers then analyzed the data using document analysis, organizing words and phrases into a summary table and an artifact worksheet summary (Table 3). The researchers carefully aggregated the data into themes and patterns as they related to applied entrepreneurship.

Table 2: *Artifact Data Worksheet*

Question	Description
1	Type of Document: Strategic Mandate Agreement
2	Unique Characteristic of the Document: Legal Contract
3	Date of Document: 2014–2017
4	Author (Creator) of the Document: Board of Trustees (College)
5	Audience of Document: Ministry of Education; Public
6	What role does entrepreneurship and/or innovation play in differentiation?
7	Is entrepreneurship and/or innovation part of the school's aspirations?
8	Does entrepreneurship and/or innovation play a role in teaching/learning?
9	How are entrepreneurship policy and/or innovation policy justified in the document?
10	Does the school have a balanced approach to innovation policy (R&D) and entrepreneurship policy (SME)?

RESULTS

College differentiation (Question 6) was employed to distinguish each school's strategy relative to entrepreneurship. A Likert scale was created in which 0 signified no differentiation, 1 signified some differentiation, and 2 indicated significant differentiation. Three schools, one in the north, one in the south, and one in the east, had no significant references to entrepreneurship. Three schools, one in the north, one in the east, and one in the west had some references to entrepreneurship and four schools, one in the south, two in the center, and one in the west had extensive reference to entrepreneurship as a differentiator of the school.

College aspirations (Question 7) related to future strategy with respect to entrepreneurship. A Likert scale was created in which 0 signified no aspiration, 1 indicated some aspirations, and 2 signified extensive aspirations. All but one college, in the east had some

reference to the development of entrepreneurship in the near future but had no significant mention of entrepreneurship in future aspirations.

Entrepreneurship in teaching and learning (Question 8) was acknowledged by all but two schools (one in the north the other in the south). The statements were generally made in terms of program delivery methods, such as experiential learning, operating a business related to a program cluster, technology-enabled learning, cross-cultural international experiences, and industry and community partnerships, which engage students and faculty in entrepreneurship. The documents expressed entrepreneurship in terms of entrepreneurial learning methods, but none of the documents mentioned entrepreneurship in terms of a teaching approach or philosophy in terms of challenging the traditional model of knowledge delivery in the classroom. This question was labeled as either a Y for yes or N for no.

The justification to pursue entrepreneurship (Question 9) was observed in two ways. The first was internally focused, whereby schools validated entrepreneurship by focusing on learning activities within the school. The second was externally focused, whereby schools validated entrepreneurship as a result of the changing regional and global environment and offered entrepreneurship as a viable policy to meet the changing nature of the global economy. The results revealed that six schools were internally focused, one school was externally focused, and three had a balance between both internally and externally focused approaches. Specifically, schools in the north and south were internally focused; only one in the center and west, two schools in the east, and one in the west were balanced; and only one school in the center was externally focused. A Likert scale was created in which 0 represented internal focus, 1 represented externally focused, and B signified a balanced approach.

The documents were explored (Question 10) relative to whether schools were oriented toward entrepreneurship policy (SMEs) and/or innovation policy (R&D). Responses to this question were labeled EP for entrepreneurship policy, IP for innovation policy, or B for a balanced approach. The results showed that 4 schools positioned themselves as innovation policy schools, while one school towards an entrepreneurship policy and 5 schools had a balanced approach between innovation and entrepreneurship policy. Specifically, both schools in the north and one each in the south and east had an innovation policy; one school in the south had an entrepreneurship policy; and both schools in the center and in the west and one in the east had a balanced approach.

Table 3: *Artifact Worksheet Summary*

Question	N1	N2	S1	S2	C1	C2	E1	E2	W1	W2
6	1	0	2	0	2	2	0	1	1	2
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
8	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	0	0	0	0	0	1	B	B	0	B
10	IP	IP	EP	IP	B	B	IP	B	B	B

LIMITATIONS

This study analyzed only one type of document (i.e., Strategic Mandate Agreements). To have a more complete study, document analysis must be combined with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation, or the combination of methods in the study of the same phenomenon (Denzin, Lincoln, & Lincoin, 2000). By triangulating data the researcher attempts to provide a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility (Eisner, 1991). The qualitative researcher is expected to utilize multiple (at least two) sources of evidence, to seek convergence and corroboration through the use of different data sources and methods. Apart from documents, such sources include interviews, observation, and physical artifacts (Yin, 1994).

A mixed method approach would also be useful, combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques (Bowen, 2009). These additional approaches would minimize the limitations related to insufficient detail and biased selectivity. Insufficient detail in this study refers to fact that the strategic mandate agreement was not produced for research purposes but created independent of the research agenda and therefore previous studies located in documents are not being considered. Consequently, the agreements do not provide sufficient detail to answer the research questions completely. Bias selectivity refers to the incompleteness of documents selected. From a college context, the available (selected) documents (Strategic Mandate Agreements) were created as a contract with the government (Ministry of Education), and are likely to be aligned with policies and procedures with a political agenda and may not reflect an emphasis on empirical validation.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

For colleges in Ontario to be relevant in the age of globalization, they must adopt unique policies reflected in strategic plans that differentiate colleges from universities. The innovation approach delivered by colleges reflects research directed to an applied approach rather than a curiosity perspective and is directed primarily to specific practical or commercial objectives; that is, serving the needs of local employers and supporting community economic development. In terms of entrepreneurship policy, colleges have an opportunity to differentiate themselves further.

The sample of colleges in this study had no framework closely aligned with an applied entrepreneurship approach. If the colleges continue to strive to prepare students for the world of work and employment as well as to help communities to improve their quality of life and standard of living, then colleges must strive to incorporate an entrepreneurship policy that reflects an applied education philosophy. Colleges have a significant opportunity to leverage their expertise in applied education and support applied entrepreneurship. By creating the capacity to develop and support small businesses, colleges can continue to make a difference in the economic viability and success of their communities. It can be argued that the Strategic Mandate Agreements provided a unique opportunity to set the priorities of each college. Inclusion of applied entrepreneurship in the strategic planning processes of colleges is an important step toward the attainment of applied entrepreneurship goals. It is only when colleges can balance innovation policy with entrepreneurship policy that will they be effective in delivering entrepreneurship outcomes that serve both local communities and the broader Canadian society.

REFERENCES

Aghion, P., & Howitt, P. (1997). *Endogenous growth theory.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Audretsch, D. B., & Link, A. N. (2012). *Valuing an cntrepreneurial enterprise.* Oxford, New York: Oxford ,University Press.

Audretsch, D. B., Keilbach, M. C., & Lehmann, E. E. (2006). *Entrepreneurship and economic growth.* Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

Ball, S. J. (2007). *Education plc: Understanding private sector participation in public sector education.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Bartlett, C., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Beyond strategic planning to organization learning: Lifeblood of the individualized corporation. *Strategy and Leadership*, *26* (1), 34–39.

Bauman, Z. (1998). *Globalization: The human consequences* (Themes for the 21st Century Series). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.

Birch, D. (1979). The job generation process. *Working paper*, 11.

Bjerke, B., & Ramo, H. (2011). *Entrepreneurial imagination: Time, timing, space and place in business action.* Oslo, Norway: Edward Elgar.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitativeresearch method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9 (2), 27–40.
Bowles, S., & Gintis, H. (2011). *Schooling in capitalist America: Educational reform and the contradictions of economic life.* New York, NY: Haymarket Books.
Brown, P., & Lauder, H. (2012). The great transformation in the global labour market. *Soundings: A Journal of Politics*, *51*(2), 41–53.
Brynjolfsson, E., & Mcafee, A. (2014). *The second machine age: Work progress and prosperity in a time of brilliant technologies.* London, UK: WW Norton.
Bryson, J. M. (2011). *Strategic planning for public and nonprofit organizations: A guide to strengthening and sustaining organizational achievement* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
Carlson, R. (1991). Culture and organizational planning. In R. Carlson, & G. Awkerman (Eds.), *Educational planning: Concepts, strategies, practices* (pp. 50–62). New York, NY: Longman.
Christensen, L. J., Parsons, H., & Fairbourne, J. (2010). Building entrepreneurship in subsistence markets: Microfranchising as an employment incubator. *Journal of Business Research*, *63*(6), 595–601.
Clark, I. D., Moran, G., Skolnik, M., & Trick, D. (2009). *Academic transformation: The forces reshaping higher education in Ontario.* Montreal, Canada: McGill-Queen's University Press.
Cook, W. J. (1995). *Strategic planning for america's schools* (Rev. ed.) Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.
Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
D'Amico, J. J. (1988). *Strategic planning for educational reform and improvement.* Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Educational Research Association, (April) New Orleans, LA.
Danes, S., & Yang, Y. (2014). Assessment of the use of theories within the journal of financial counseling and planning and the contribution of the family financial socialization conceptual model. *Journal of Financial Counseling and Planning*, *25*(1), 263–269.
Das, S. (2011). *Extreme money: Masters of the universe and the cult of risk.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: FT Press.
Dennison, J., & Levin, J. (1988). Goals of community colleges in Canada. *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, *18*(1), 49–63.
Denzin, N. K., Lincoln, Y. S., & Lincoin, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Dunn, R. (1998, September). *Strategic deployment and the search for accountability in school system strategic plans.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Society of Educational Planning. Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
Edwards, L. J., & Muir, E. J. (2012). Evaluating enterprise education: Why do it? *Education and Training*, *54*(4), 278–290.
Eisner, E. W. (1991). *The enlightened eye: Qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice.* New York, NY: Macmillan.
Feldman, M. P. (2001). The entrepreneurial event revisited: Firm formation in a regional context. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, *10*(4), 861–891.
Fisher, D., & Rubenson, K. (1998). The changing political economy: The private and public lives of Canadian universities. In J. Currie & J. Newson (Eds.), *Universities and globalization: critical perspectives* (pp. 77–98). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Freeland, C. (2014). *Plutocrats: The rise of the new global super-rich and the fall of everyone else.* Toronto, Canada: Anchor Canada.
Friedman, J., & Hudson, B. (1974). Knowledge and action: A guide to planning theory. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *40*(1), 8–42.
Friedman, T. L. (2000). *The Lexus and the olive tree.* New York, NY: Anchor.

Gaither, G. (1996). The assessment mania and planning. *Planning for Higher Education*, *24*(3), 7–12.
Gibb, A. (2006, June). *Entrepreneurship: unique solutions for unique environments: Is it possible to achieve this with the existing paradigm?* Paper presented at the World Conference of the International Council for Small Business (pp. 18–21), Melbourne, Australia.
Government Canada. (2015, November 3). *Ontario ministry of training, colleges, and universities*. Postsecondary Education. Retrieved from http://www.tcu.gov.on.ca/eng/postsecondary/
Harris, S., Forbes, T., & Fletcher, M. (2000). Taught and enacted strategic approaches in young enterprises. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*, *6*(3), 49–67.
Holsti, O. R. (1969). *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities.* New York, NY: Longman Higher Education.
Johnson, S., & Kwak, J. (2011). *13 bankers: The Wall Street takeover and the next financial meltdown.* New York, NY: Vintage.
Kaufman, R., & Herman, J. (1991). *Strategic planning in education: Rethinking, resturcturing, revitalizing.* Lancaster, PA: Technomic.
Krugman, P. (2012). *End This depression now!* New York, NY: WW Norton.
Krugman, P., & Wells, R. (2013). *Microeconomics: Canadian Edition* (2nd ed.). Toronto, Canada: Worth.
Labuschagne, A. (2003). Qualitative research: Airy fairy or fundamental? *The Qualitative Report*, *8*(1), 72–76.
Land, G., & Jarman, B. (1992). *Breakpoint and beyond: Mastering the future today.* Toronto, Canada: HarperCollins Canada.
Lang, D. W. (2009). Articulation, transfer, and student choice in a binary post-secondary system. *Higher Education*, *57*(3), 355–371.
Leadbeater, C. (2000). *The weightless society: Living in the new economy bubble.* New York, NY: Texere.
Livingstone, D. W. (2009). *The education-jobs gap: Underemployment or economic democracy.* Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
Luczkiw, E. (2007). The end of entrepreneurship: a holistic paradigm for teaching and learning about, for and through enterprise. *Industry and Higher Education*, *21*(2), 43–57.
Luczkiw, G. (1995). Complexity, chaos, and change: Creating opportunities in enterprise education. *Economic Development Journal*, April, 11, 20–25.
Lundstrom, A., & Stevenson, L. A. (2005). *Entrepreneurship policy: Theory and practice.* Berlin, Germany: Springer.
Madrick, J. (2014). *Seven bad ideas: How mainstream economists have damaged America and the world.* Berlin, Germany: Knopf.
McAfee, A. (2009). *Enterprise 2.0: How to manage social technologies to transform your organization.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
Ministry of Training, Canada. (2015). *Ministry of training, colleges and universiites*. Retrieved December 4, 2015, from https://www.tcu.gov.on.ca/eng/about/annualreport/2016rbp_en.pdf
Mintzberg, H. (1994). The rise and fall of strategic planning. *Harvard Business Review,* January-Feburary, *72*(1), 107 - 114.
Moore, J. W. (2000). Planning, politics, and presidential leadership. *Planning for higher education*, *29*(5), 5–11.
Naisbitt, J. (1995). *Global P\paradox.* Chicago, IL: Avon Books.
Newberry, A. J. (1992). *Strategic planning in education: Unleashing our schools' potential.* Vancouver, Canada: EduServ.

Parsley, C., & Djukic, S. (February, 2010). *Industry Canada*. SME Research and Statistics. Retrieved from https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/061.nsf/eng/h_rd02468.html
Partnoy, F. (2004). *Infectious greed: How deceit and risk corrupted the financial markets.* New York, NY: Holt Paperbacks.
Piketty, T. (2014). *Capital in the twenty-first century.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
Porter, M. (1990). The competitive advantage of nations. *Harvard Business Review*, March-April, 73–93.
Praag, M. V., & Versloot, P. H. (2007). What is the value of entrepreneurship? A review of recent research. *Social Science Research Network,* TI Discussion Paper No. 07-066/3.
Raffo, C., Lovatt, A., Banks, M., & O'Connor, J. (2000). Teaching and learning entrepreneurship for micro and small businesses in the cultural industries sector. *Education and Training*, *42*(6), 356–365.
Reich, R. (2012). *Beyond outrage: What has gone wrong with our economy and our democracy, and how to fix it* (Expand. ed.). New York, NY: Vintage.
Rosenberg, S. (2003, August). *Questioning assumptions about the role of education in american society: A review of schooling in capitalist America.* Paper presented at the American Institute of Physics Education Research Conference (pp. 23–26), Madison, WI.
Roubini, N. (2009, March 3). Roubini sees more economic gloom ahead. *Time*, pp. 21–22.
Schumpeter, J. (2011). *The theory of economic development: An inquiry into profits, capital, credit, interest, and the business cycle.* New York, NY: Transaction.
Schwab, K., & Smadja, C. (1996, February 1). *Start taking the backlash against globalization seriously*. *New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/1996/02/01/opinion/01iht-edklaus.t.html
Shane, S. A. (2010). *The illusions of entrepreneurship: The costly myths that entrepreneurs, investors, and policy makers live by.* Chicago, IL: Yale University Press.
Stiglitz, J. (2015). *The great divide: Unequal societies and what we can do about them.* Chicago: W W Norton.
Tapscott, D., & Williams, A. (2010). Innovating the 21st century university: It's time. *Educause Review*, *45*(1), 17–29.
Turan, S., & Sny, C. L. (1996). *An Exploration of transformational leadership and its role in strategic planning: A conceptual framework*. Paper presented at The Annual Meeting of the International Society of Educational Planners. New Orleans, LA.
Yin, R. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

INVITATION TO SUBMIT MANUSCRIPTS

The editor of *Educational Planning*, a refereed journal of educational planning issues, invites the submission of original manuscripts for publication consideration. *Educational Planning* is the official journal of the International Society for Educational Planning. The audience of the journal includes national and provincial/state planners, university faculty, school district administrators and planners, and other practitioners associated with educational planning.

The purpose of the publication is to serve as a meeting place for scholar-researcher and the practitioner-educator through the presentation of articles that have practical relevance to current issues and that broaden the knowledge base of the discipline. *Educational Planning* disseminates the results of pertinent educational research, presents contemporary ideas for consideration, and provides general information to assist subscribers with their professional responsibilities.
Manuscripts preferred for inclusion are those from practitioners, reports of empirical research, expository writings including analyses of topical problems, or case studies. Unsolicited manuscripts are welcomed.

The following criteria have been established for the submission of manuscripts.
STYLE: All formatting should adhere strictly to the current guidelines set in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.
LENGTH: The manuscript, including all references, figures or illustrations, charts, and/or graphs, should not exceed 20 pages. In addition, an Abstract (between 150-500 words on a separate sheet of paper) describing the focus of the manuscript should be included at the beginning of the manuscript.
WORD PROCESSING: SINGLE-SPACE all text using TIMES NEW ROMAN with a 10 point type. Headings and sub-headings should be in ARIEL with a 10 point type. Provide 1.0 inch margins top and bottom, and 1.5 inch left and right, with 1.0 inch header and 1.0 inch footer. The body of the manuscript must be no wider than 5 ½ inches to fit the paper. Lengthily tables, drawings, and charts or graphs should be scaled to the dimensions given and should preferably be camera-ready.
FORM of SUBMISSION: Send the manuscript to the Editor electronically in Microsoft Word as an attachment to an email. The email address is: tchan@kennesaw.edu

The manuscript should include the following:
Title Page
- Title of the manuscript
- Date of Submission
- Author(s) name, mailing address, telephone number, email address, and fax number
- Biographical sketch not to exceed 75 words

Abstract
- An abstract not to exceed 500 words on a separate page

Body of the Manuscript
- Text of the manuscript not to exceed 20 pages, including references, tables, etc.

If the manuscript does not meet the guidelines exactly, it will NOT be reviewed and will be returned to the author.
Author(s) name or any other identifying information should not be included on the abstract or the manuscript. Authors are responsible for copyright clearance and accuracy of information presented and submission implies that the same manuscript has not been submitted t other publications.

Editorial reviewers and editors will review all manuscripts. Points of view are those of the individual authors and not necessarily of ISEP.

Please send manuscripts to: Dr. Tack Chan – tchan@kennesaw.edu
For more information about ISEP go to: www.isep.info

ISEP
MEMBERSHIP SUBSCRIPTION FORM
(Please Print)

Name: _____
Last First Middle

Organization/Department _____

_____

Mailing Address: _____

_____
City Province/State Postal Code Country

Email_____

Fees: Professional Membership and Subscription to Educational Planning = $125.00 USD

Payment by check, money order, or Purchase Order required with application.
NOTE: Annual Membership is based upon the calendar year – January to December.

MAKE CHECK PAYABLE TO: ISEP
RETURN MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION AND PAYMENT TO:
Dr. Carol S. Cash
Secretary/Treasurer, ISEP
ccash48@vt.edu
6543 Cold Harbor Road
Mechanicsville, VA 23111
USA

Forty-Sixth Annual Conference
International Society for Educational Planning

New Orleans
October 18-20, 2016

Conference Registration Includes:
Registration & Membership
Breakfasts, Luncheons
Journal Subscriptions

To Register Visit:
www.isep.info

For further information contact:

Ken Ducote
KenDucote@msn.com

Conference Hotel
Hotel Monteleone

Reservations:
504-523-3341
1-800-217-2033

Mention ISEP

FUTURE CONFERENCES

2017-Warsaw, Poland –

ORGANIZATION

The Society was founded December 10, 1970 in Washington, DC. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.

Since then its continued growth demonstrates the need for a professions organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.

PURPOSE

The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge sand interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications, the society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.

MEMBERSHIP IN THE SOCIETY

Membership in the society is open to any person active or interested in educational planning and the purposes of the Society. To join the Society or renew a membership please complete and submit the enclosed form.

Please forward check/money order/PO to:

ISEP
Dr. Carol S. Cash, Secretary/Treasurer
6543 Cold Harbor Road
Mechanicsville, VA 23111
USA

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
Dr. Glen I. Earthman
Publication Center
2903 Ashlawn Drive
Blacksburg, VA 24060
USA